

TEACHER ATTITUDES TO BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS
IN INDIAN ORDINARY AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS

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Unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, this thesis is the original work of the writer.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Mrs Rachel Natesan, who is no more but who has always been a source of inspiration and encouragement to me

and

My daughter Namira for believing in me.

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ABSTRACT

This research sought to investigate the attitudes of Indian teachers in special schools and ordinary schools in KwaZulu Natal towards problem behaviours in children. The study also examined how these teachers differ in their attitudes towards certain specified problems in terms of the variables of sex, age, marital status, professional experience, academic qualifications, language and religion of the teachers. The findings were compared with those of Wickman (1928) and Ramphal (1978). The present study used the attitude scale developed by Wickman, with the addition proposed by Ramphal. The items were clustered by the present researcher on a rational basis into six categories. The results were analyzed by One Way and Two Way Analysis of Variance and Pearson r Product Moment Correlation. The respondents of this study were one hundred and thirty nine teachers from five ordinary and four special schools. The study revealed that attitudes of teachers in ordinary schools are not statistically different from those of teachers in special schools, except in the case of attitudes towards resisting school authority and physical violence. Teachers in ordinary schools adopted a far more serious view than those in special schools. Age of teachers interacted significantly with attitudes towards behaviour, with younger teachers in both ordinary and special schools taking a more serious view of certain behaviour problems. Other variables such as marital status and professional experience were associated with differences in attitude towards behaviour problems. The results showed that for certain behaviour categories, teachers in ordinary schools were less tolerant of behaviour problems than those in special schools. The results also showed that younger teachers in both ordinary and special schools were intolerant towards certain categories of behaviour. An unexpected finding was that the more experienced teachers in special schools regarded resisting of school authority as a "middle of the road" problem. There was a very high correlation between the attitudes of teachers in ordinary

schools and special schools (0.93) whereas Wickman (1928) and Ramphal (1978) found correlations between attitudes of teachers and mental hygienists of 0.11 and 0.36 respectively. The high correlation of the present study implies that teachers in ordinary and special schools have remarkably similar attitudes towards behaviour problems. It follows that teachers in ordinary schools may need assistance in organization and discipline while teachers in special schools may need guidance in dealing with problems where pupils resist school authority. The attitudes of teachers in special schools are generally positive and congruent with those of mental hygienists who were respondents in previous studies. These findings must be viewed in the light of the relatively small sample size, the use of a single cultural group and the decision to use the instrument in its original form rather than to update it to include current perspectives.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Too many students are dropping out of school and many others are marginalised because teachers perceive them as displaying "problematic behaviour". Many of these students find school experience a frustrating and punitive one, to be escaped at the first opportunity (Brophy and Good, 1974).

Hamachek (1972) in Brophy and Good (1974) provides an analysis of school failure in the United States reminding us that roughly one-third of the youngsters who enter first grade do not complete their school career. The situation is worse in most developing countries.

Previous research has shown that students who drop out are more likely to be boys than girls, coming from lower class, broken homes and to be low achievers. However, even students from middle and upper class homes have begun to drop out of schools in increasing numbers. An especially common complaint is that the curriculum is not relevant to pupil needs or interests. It is often teachers themselves and in particular teacher attitudes, which may contribute to discouraging students, causing student failure and frustration, notwithstanding poor curricula (Brophy and Good, 1974).

Problem behaviours in the classroom are said to cause stress to the teacher. However, it is not events in themselves which produce distress reactions. Instead, it is one's perception of events that makes them distressful (Cedoline, 1982).

There has been much research on problem behaviour in the classroom (Wickman, 1928, 1974; Werthmen, 1963; Ramphal, 1978; Furlong, 1985; Galloway and Goodwin 1987). Whereas earlier

research focussed on problems as being within the pupils themselves, more recent research emphasizes the ethos or climate of the school as contributory to problem behaviour. An example of this is the study done by Galloway and Goodwin (1987) which concluded that "whether a pupil is considered disruptive or maladjusted depends at least as much on factors within the school as on factors within the pupil or the family".

The present study was prompted by an earlier one in KwaZulu-Natal by Ramphal (1978) in which he compared the attitudes of Indian teachers and mental hygienists towards behaviour problems of children. His research found that teachers were more concerned about trespassing against authority and dishonesty, whereas mental hygienists were concerned with withdrawal and dreaminess.

Ramphal's results strengthened earlier research done by Wickman (1928) in Cleveland and Minneapolis in the United States. Wickman's study, however, used two methods to rate and evaluate behaviour. One was a rating scale (see Appendix A) and the other involved evaluating the seriousness of troublesome behaviour, whenever it occurred, by individual teachers.

Further research was done by Laycock (1934). His Canadian sample of 167 teachers were asked to rate behaviour problems with respect to frequency of occurrence as well as seriousness. The Canadian group regarded violations of school work, classroom rules and of general school regulations as outstandingly more frequent than undesirable personality traits, gross transgressions against authority or the violations of standards of morality and integrity. The ratings for seriousness revealed that the teachers' emphasis was on violations of general standards of morality and integrity, transgressions against authority, violations of school and classroom regulations, rather than on pupils' difficulties with other children or on undesirable personality traits. The

results for frequency and seriousness were in substantial agreement with Wickman's American study.

The ratings for seriousness of the Canadian teachers were compared with Wickman's group of mental hygienists, who almost reversed the ratings of the teachers. Since the reactions of mental hygienists to the seriousness of personality and behaviour maladjustments of school children were different from those of teachers, Laycock concluded that educationists should seriously review their present attitudes towards school and curriculum organization and in particular the need for special training for teachers in the principles of mental hygiene.

There appears to be limited research in South Africa on either the incidence of behaviour problems in special schools or teacher attitudes to these problems.

Research conducted in the United States by Quay and Werry (1986) reveal that teachers identified a number of behaviour problems ranging from shyness to disruptiveness, from temper tantrums to bizarre behaviour. The mean incidence of such problems was 11.4% (n = 926) boys and 7.6% (n = 827) girls in the sample.

Behaviour problems have been identified in a number of schools and clinics by both teachers and parents. Connors (1970) cited in Ross (1974) compared clinic patients to "normal" children and found a surprisingly high prevalence of behaviour problems amongst the so-called "normal" children. Lawrence et al (1980) cite the following writers whose estimates show that between 10 and 30 percent of all school children have psychological problems severe enough to require professional intervention services (Berlin 1975; Cowen, Dorr, Izzo, Madonia and Trost 1971; Miller, Hample, Barret and Noble 1971).

In South Africa, limited research indicates that there is a perception of a high level of behaviour disorders in schools (Ramphal 1978; Govender 1989; Thompson 1987). Govender found that 13,8% of his sample of 304 Indian pupils were identified by teachers as exhibiting both emotional disturbances and behaviour disorders.

In her study, Thompson (1987) examined the incidence of problem behaviour that was referred to the psychologists of the Natal Education Department. She found that the incidence had risen steadily over the previous five years, especially in the urban areas. She also examined the management of such behaviour.

It becomes clear that the educator has an extremely important role to play in the perception of problems in both the ordinary and special schools. Educational personnel should be prepared to contribute effectively in meeting the needs and problems presented by the child with behavioural problems.

Earlier in this chapter, it was mentioned that teachers emphasize transgressions against school rules as being serious problems, as opposed to pupils' difficulties with other children (Laycock 1934). This holds true, even today. Pupil difficulties which teachers choose to ignore are bullying and victimisation (Smith 1991). Should such problems occur in the school playground, teachers may not be aware of them, as they may not always assume ground duty. According to Smith, only a minority of victims reported having talked to a teacher about their problems.

It is important to consider what constitutes a problem. Problematic behaviour is relative to the perceiver. Each teacher, according to Herbert (1978) will have different perceptions of the "real problem". Workers and parents speak of the "problem child" as if the problem resides within him. The child interacts within a complex network of interacting social and learning systems.

Teachers' attitudes or perceptions are central to a study of this nature. As Ross (1974) states, we classify not behaviour but people's judgements about behaviour. One must consider not only the demands made on the child, but also the tolerance level of his environment. Ross expands further that the arbitrary and relative nature of what people consider to be a behaviour disorder should lead one to suspect that the same behaviour can be found on either side of the clinic door. Teacher judgements according to Amos and Washington (1960) are subjective. The validity of teacher observations is difficult to prove or disprove, since what is viewed to be problem behaviour by one, may not be considered as such by another.

Becker's view (1963) of deviance is that it is "not a quality of the act a person commits ... the deviant is one to whom that label has successfully been applied; deviant behaviour is behaviour that people so label."

Behaviour problems are not only confined to pupils in the ordinary schools. Special schools, which have traditionally provided for disabled learners outside the mainstream, have their concern about behaviour problems, as indicated in the research (Gerside, et al., 1973; Rutter et al, 1970; 1979; Lawrence et al., 1979, 1980). These studies also provide insight as to management of these problems.

Pupils who come from poor socio-economic backgrounds, whose parents are semi-skilled or unemployed are considered by their teachers to be less well-adjusted to school than those whose parents are in skilled or non manual occupations (Rutter, et al., 1970). These children are more likely to be referred to special units for disruptive behaviour or to special schools for learning or behavioural difficulties (Jay and Kysel, 1986 - in Solity 1991).

An over-representation of Afro-Caribbean pupils in certain special schools has been a source of much concern (Tomlinson, 1981; Coard, 1971). A somewhat similar situation prevails in South Africa, where pupils have become disadvantaged because of socio-economic deprivation or political violence. These pupils have become "educationally disabled" as a result of extrinsic factors such as stark poverty, unrest, family instability and emotional neglect (Education Working Group - KwaZulu Natal, 1994).

A survey undertaken in Imbali near Pietermaritzburg by Butler, et al., (1993), showed that pupil numbers had dropped by 25 percent over a one year period because of political violence. Even those students who remain within schools have been severely traumatised by violence. A large number of South African pupils therefore have special needs which ought to be sensitively viewed by teachers.

In a special school, the atmosphere is not as competitive as that of an ordinary school. Children are expected to develop at their own pace, with the assistance of supportive teachers and teacher-aides. The emphasis is not on achieving academically, but on broadening the child's particular skill or area of proficiency. The curricula of special schools are adapted to the needs of their pupils and are different from the curricula of ordinary schools. In special schools, teachers with additional qualifications in remedial or special education are employed. In appointing staff, consideration is given to temperament, personality and suitability.

Special schools may be private, State-aided or financed by the State (the Department of Education and Culture) (Education Working Group - 1994). They have Boards of Management which function with the Education Department in the administration of the school's activities. In KwaZulu Natal there are 51 special schools. 28 of these schools are situated in and around Durban. In spite of vast special education needs, there

is very little chance of a meaningful budgetary increase in the near future (Education Working Group, 1994). There does not appear to be many local studies on the needs and concerns of special education. There is a need for such research in South Africa.

1.2 Objectives

The objectives of the present study are inter-alia:

- a) To investigate the attitudes of Indian teachers towards behaviour problems in special schools and to probe the extent to which their attitudes correspond with those of teachers in ordinary schools.
- b) To differentiate the teachers in respect of the following variables:
 - (i) sex
 - (ii) age
 - (iii) marital status
 - (iv) professional experience
 - (v) academic qualifications
 - (vi) professional qualifications
- c) To compare the correlations of the present study with those of Ramphal's (1978) and Wickman's (1928) studies.

We are at present in the midst of new and challenging developments in South African education. The idea of a unified system of education may hold hidden fears for some, but hope and optimism for the vast majority. In this context of unprecedented fluidity of South African society, studies of teacher attitudes to which my research is intended to contribute, become increasingly meaningful.

In comparing and examining teacher attitudes towards problem behaviour, the under mentioned procedures were followed:

Chapter One introduces the study and identifies its purpose.

Chapter Two covers a review of the current literature in this field and develops a rationale for the study.

Chapter Three details the design and instrumentation used. A pilot study was conducted to identify some consideration in the use of the instrument chosen.

In Chapter Four, the results of the study are presented and the analysis of the results is described in terms of the statistical procedures used.

Chapter Five explores the discussion of the results and the possible relationships between the findings of this study and those of Wickman (1926 - cited in Ramphal 1978) and Ramphal (op cit).

In Chapter Six, the strengths and limitations of this study are considered. The implication of these findings for theory, practice and future policy are discussed in relation to current changes in education, thinking, organization and provision.

Finally, the indication for future research, arising from the procedure and results of this study are specified and discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

A LITERATURE REVIEW OF TEACHER ATTITUDES TO BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS IN ORDINARY AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

2.1 Introduction

Teacher attitudes play a pivotal role in the behaviour and development of pupils and their responses to schooling. However, apart from teacher attitudes, other factors tend to affect the child's behaviour, such as the home environment, the curriculum and the school process itself. Laslett (1977) points out that the conventions and discipline of school can be an alienating experience for a child.

There is a vast array of literature on the separate issues of teacher attitudes and behaviour problems in schools. In this study, however, it will be the congruence of these issues - teacher attitudes to problem behaviour (in ordinary and special schools) - that will be considered.

2.1.1 Definition of Attitudes

According to Phillips (1989) attitudes are primarily cognitive phenomena which have strong affective components, as when a teacher not only decides that a student is a low achiever, but also becomes angry or frustrated in response to this realization. Attitudes may be accompanied by conscious cognitive components. At first the teacher may be only vaguely aware (or even unaware) of his reaction of attraction or repulsion toward a particular student.

Expectations are inferential judgements about probable future achievements and behaviour. Expectation refers to a primarily cognitively derived prediction, whereas "attitude" refers to a primarily affective reaction (Phillips, 1989).

Phillips (1989) mentions a steady drip of information and disinformation about pupils becoming available to teachers. This is likely to form stalagmite structures of attitudes, which once constructed, are extremely difficult to chip away.

Johnson (1978) - in Chezan et al (1980) states that attitudes are what we believe our experience to be. We are shaped by our sub-cultures and influenced by and reactive to peoples' expectations of us.

Since learning is an interactive process, the development of attitudes, while vicarious in some circumstances, may be empirically formed by others who are on the receiving end of certain behaviours. Such behaviours may be concomitants or the results of attitudes (Phillips, 1989).

In "Fifteen Thousand Hours", Rutter, et al., (1979) reported that it was not only the ethos of the school which maximised educational attainments of pupils, but also that teachers' attitudes to pupils are important ingredients. The teachers' expectations affect the development of their pupils' attitudes and attainments.

David Hargreaves (1975) said that "Interaction is not structured simply by the behaviour of two participants, but by the ways in which they perceive each other". This applies as much to the school situation as any other.

Attitudes will be communicated, according to Dunn (1989). A student whom the teacher particularly likes, will probably know it and so will his classmates. Teachers also respond differentially to each individual. Some student attributes, like friendliness and interest in learning seem to affect all teachers favourably, whereas attributes like laziness and hostility affect most teachers unfavourably.

2.1.2 Attitudes and Academic Performance

Silberman (1971) in Thompson (1975) studied teachers' interaction involving four basic teacher attitudes - attachment, indifference, concern and rejection.

He saw the students in the attachment group as conforming to and fulfilling the personal needs of the teacher. These children were observed to be "model" students.

Students in the concern group made extensive but appropriate demands upon the teachers. Teachers regarded them as students who needed much help, but they were quite willing to give this help.

Students in the indifference group had minimal contact with teachers. Silberman (1971) later added that teacher contact was not only infrequent but also briefer and less emotionally involving. These students were simply ignored.

Students in the rejection group made demands on the teacher which they saw as illegitimate or overwhelming. Most of them were behaviour problems and the teachers were ready to intervene quickly and reprimand them for misbehaviour. Silberman observed that when these students went to the teacher for help, they were refused it.

Jenkins (1972) in Thompson (1975) replicated this study and her findings were in agreement with those of Silberman. The rejected students were found to be primarily boys.

The teachers' views of these students were consistently negative. They were seen as restless, likely to cheat, uncomfortable in the classroom, sassy, defiant and likely to interrupt. This set of data exemplifies the halo effect. This effect represents one's general attitude towards another. If we think highly of him, we tend to rate him positively on most

scales; if we think poorly of him, we rate him negatively. The teachers also attributed the two qualities of daydreaming and being less imaginative to these students, although this seems unlikely (Jenkins, 1972).

Taylor (1976) used George Kelly's repertory grid techniques to show that teachers irrespective of gender, regarded academic independence and attainment as being the most important feature of a pupil.

Hargreaves et al (1975) commented on the effects of streaming, where pupils in the top streams were expected by their teachers to work hard, behave well and to succeed academically - evidence of the "halo" effect mentioned earlier, where positive expectations in one dimension flow into others. Those children who found their way to the bottom stream for whatever reasons, were not expected to work, were expected to misbehave, to truant and to fail at school; evidence of negative attributions flowing from one dimension to others, sometimes called the "horns" effect.

In the famous "Pygmalion" experiment conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) pupils produced what was expected of them by their teachers. Although their methodology has been severely questioned by many researchers, the substance of their results fits in with so many other findings from incursions into the field, that it should not be rejected out of hand (Phillips, 1989). In the "Pygmalion" experiment, information about pupils was given to their teachers, indicating that, predicted by IQ measures, some of the children would "bloom" at a later time. Teachers reported that these pupils did indeed do well but the original information fed to them was spurious. Rosenthal and Jacobson "set" the teachers' expectations of good performances.

An opposing effect may operate. If children are labelled "low achievers", but in fact, do well, there is strong indication that teachers may disregard the success and react negatively

towards the pupils because they do not "fit" the expectations held of them.

Teachers attributed pupil failure into three broad groups, according to Ravenette (1968):

Within child - the child's mental/physical ability, personality, attendance/migration.

Within home - the cultural background of the family and encouragement at home.

Within school - teaching methods, teachers' ability and personality, classroom organization and materials.

Revenette found that the majority of teachers in his sample attributed reading problems to "within child" factors. Allsop (1982) on the other hand, found more emphasis on "within home" causes.

The reasons for teachers attributing pupil failure to "within child" and "within home" causes is that teachers see themselves as significant in the classroom depending on pupil reactions to academic work, which may be acceptable/satisfactory or problematic/troublesome. Quirk, (1967) suggested that teachers see themselves as significant when pupils achieve and behave well. When the opposite occurs, teachers see themselves as not influential.

Good, et al., (1969) investigated teachers' views of their pupils' poor academic performance. All the teachers invoked the "innate idleness" and "dimness" of their pupils or parents for poor academic performance. Only a small minority of the teachers also included themselves in their attribution of the pupils' poor attainments.

Kagan (1990) concurs with the previous researchers. Her view is that we can develop a profile for students at risk - they are likely to leave school before receiving a high school diploma, have low educational aspirations, low self-esteem, an external focus of control, and negative attitudes toward school along with a history of academic failure, truancy and misconduct, with no indication that they lack requisite aptitudes. Kagan (1990) cites the following authors (Durken, 1981; Peng and Takai, 1983; Rumberger, 1981, 1987; Schreiber, 1979) as stating that the characteristics of at-risk students are further accompanied by variables such as a fractured family structure, low socio economic status, membership in racial or ethnic minorities and the incidence of teen pregnancy or drug abuse. These characteristics may be produced or exacerbated by the school experience itself. It may be significant that the single most frequent and consistent perception found among all varieties of at-risk students is that their teachers do not care about them (Wehlage and Rutter, 1986). They suggested further that schools and classrooms systematically alienate these pupils. Kagan (1990) cites several researchers among them, Catterall (1987) and Richardson, Casanova, Placier and Guilfoyle (1989) who suggested that we might regard dropping out of school as a symptom of institutional rather than individual pathology.

Further longitudinal studies bear out these observations - that school effect is the cause of these pupils' failure. The self-esteem of dropouts usually improves after they have left school (Ekstron, Goertz, Pollock and Rock, 1986). A large number of dropouts become motivated to enrol at other schools for diplomas or job training programmes (Fine, 1986).

2.1.3 Attitudes, Social Class and Minority Groups

Previous research (for example, Wedge and Prosser, 1973) suggests that the lower socio-economic groups have cultural

disadvantages such as large families and poor health which erect linguistic barriers between teachers and pupils.

Barker Lunn (1970) suggested that an observed decline in the reading ability of children from lower social classes might be due to a large extent, to their teachers' lower expectations of them, an attitudinal, rather than an entirely cultural effect.

This view supports Goodacre's (1968) study which showed that teachers rated their pupils' reading ability at infant school age, rating those who they believed to be from middle class homes more highly than those they thought came from a working class background. The actual reading levels of the pupils ascertained by standardized reading tests did not reveal the degree of differences between them, as that which was reported by the teachers.

The Swann Report reminds us that children of low income ethnic minority groups have to suffer "racial prejudice and discrimination on the part of society at large" (DES, 1985 in Solity 1991).

Researchers like Ogbu (1987 in Kagan 1991) and Erickson (1987) focus on the alienation of the minority students. Ogbu (1987) attributed the academic failure of some Black students to an oppositional cultural frame of reference, an oppositional identity and a concomitant distrust of White people.

The main problem with research of this type is that it does not determine whether the dynamics that apply to minority groups can be applied to other at risk students as well. Further, as Newmann (1981) pointed out, broad conceptual treatments of the at-risk student culminate in recommendations which involve fundamental changes in the structure of schools. We cannot expect such changes to be effected in the foreseeable future.

Newmann (1981) argues for schools that they have "internally consistent goals which are compatible with the values of the school's clientele, but which also respond to individual diversity". Despite the alienating characteristics of some schools, Erickson (1987) argues that some teachers clearly succeed at ameliorating the disengagement of at-risk youth.

2.2 What is Problem Behaviour?

It is very difficult to arrive at a consistent definition of problem or troublesome behaviour. The reason for this is that since one has to recognize the subjectivity and relativity of teacher perceptions, most definitions make any behaviour potentially misbehaviour (McManus, 1990).

According to Doyle, quoted by Wittrock (1986), "problem behaviour is any behaviour by one or more students that is perceived by the teacher to initiate a vector of action that competes with or threatens the primary vector of action at a particular moment in a classroom activity".

Galloway's (1987) definition of disruptive behaviour is similarly flawed, "any behaviour which appears problematic, inappropriate and disturbing to teachers". Similarly Lawrence, et al., (1977, 1984) defines it as "behaviour which seriously interferes with the teaching process and/or seriously upsets the normal running of the school".

Two general categories of excess maladaptive behaviour appear with impressive frequency in empirical studies (Conners, 1970 in Ross, 1974). These categories differentiate excess approach behaviour (aggression) and excess avoidance behaviour (withdrawal). Martin (1978) cites Kessler (1966) who speaks of the effect of the disturbance and asks whether it is the child or other people who suffer. Peterson (1961 in Martin (1978) says that when impulses are expressed, they are known

as "conduct problems" and when they are inhibited, they are known as "personality problems".

He also concludes that the generality of these factors appears to be enormous. However, we should not lose sight of the fact that these dimensions are not dimensions of child behaviour, but dimensions of adult reports of child behaviour.

According to Rutter, et al., (1979) conduct disorder denotes abnormal behaviour (such as aggressiveness, stealing or lying) which gives rise to social disapproval and which is repeated and habitual. Neurotic disorder is diagnosed when there is an emotional abnormality, such as a state of anxiety or depression, which is enduring and which is disproportionate to the child's circumstances. In the child with psychiatric disorder, the behaviour is present to an inordinate and handicapping degree.

2.3 Wickman's Studies on Teacher Reactions to Behaviour Problems of Children (1928, 1978).

Wickman's (1928) study was conducted in Cleveland and Minneapolis. He used two methods to measure teacher attitudes to the relative seriousness of the different kinds of problem behaviour. The first method consisted of a rating scale (see attached) on which the teachers recorded their beliefs and opinions about the relative seriousness of fifty types of problems considered abstractly when occurring in any child. The second method involved evaluating the seriousness of any form of troublesome behaviour whenever they reported its occurrence in an individual child under their care. The difference between the first and second methods is that in the former the teacher estimated the seriousness of any form of behaviour in the abstract as it might occur in any child, while in the latter method the individual teacher indicated her

reactions to the seriousness of a specified problem observed in a particular pupil in her room.

The teachers recorded their judgements on a graphic rating scale with four calibrations that corresponded to captions describing the following degrees of seriousness:

Of no consequence

Of only slight consequence

Makes for considerable difficulty

An extremely grave offence.

The teachers were urged to make their ratings as rapidly as possible. By securing their immediate reactions to the problems without permitting much time for rationalization, it was hoped that their everyday responses would be elicited rather than their studied intellectual responses indicating what their attitudes "ought" to be.

Wickman performed rank order correlations between the teacher's ratings and the clinicians' ratings, deriving the low negative correlation of 0,11. The differences in ratings were attributed to the teachers' emphasis upon aggressive and anti-social behaviour as being extremely serious problems. They considered the inhibitive recessive unsocial forms of behaviour to be of little consequence. The teachers reported more problematic behaviour in boys than in girls. There is overwhelming evidence that boys tend to be more aggressive and demanding in the classroom than girls (Spender, 1982).

The clinicians on the other hand, rated the withdrawing type of behaviour as more important than acting-out problems.

Both the experimental methods employed by Wickman produced the same results i.e. a heavier weighting for disobedience and aggressive acting-out behaviour.

The findings suggest that teachers' reactions to the behaviour problems of children are determined in relation to the immediate effect of the behaviour upon the teachers themselves. Transgressions against teacher authority and disruptions of the teaching programme were regarded as more serious than problems which affect the welfare of the individual child. Teachers then, tend to regard compliant, submissive, dependent behaviour as more desirable than aggressive, experimental, independent behaviour (Ramphal, 1978).

Laslett (1977) agrees with this finding. Whenever pupils are uncontrollable or aggressive, teachers readily refer them to special units. Laslett noted a rapid expansion of numbers of residential and day special schools for children displaying problematic behaviour.

In their Isle of Wight study Rutter, et al., (1975) studied the aggressive "acting out" child and the excessively withdrawn child. Rutter (1975) and Stott, Marsden and Neill (1975) used similar categories ie. conduct disorder and emotional disorders, or in Stott's terminology, over-reacting and under-reacting behaviour. Rutter described one-fifth of the children in his study as suffering from "mixed conduct and neurotic disorders".

Watson (1933) in Ramphal (1978) criticized Wickman's research on the following grounds:

- a) Mental hygienists and teachers were given different instructions.
- b) Teachers were limited in time. Mental hygienists had no time limit.
- c) Problems were presented without definitions, thus eliciting varied interpretations.

- d) Differences in ranking may not have indicated teacher insensitivity to emotional problems of children.

Although Wickman suggested that teachers should become better trained in the psychological approach to behaviour problems, Woody (1969) asks whether it is really necessary for teachers to perceive behaviours in the same manner as clinicians. Teachers, he points out, are concerned with the individual child, but they also have responsibilities to other children in the classroom and to the educational objectives of the school. Clinicians, on the other hand, are more concerned with a particular child's needs and problems as an individual.

Stanley (1957) gives another explanation for the difference in the views of teachers and clinicians. She points out that the clinician is trained to understand the meaning and seriousness of various symptoms of emotional disturbance, including withdrawn behaviour. Moreover, the fact that clinicians deal with individual pupils, makes it possible for them to tolerate aggressiveness and other forms of acting-out behaviour to a greater extent.

It would appear that the teacher cannot escape the social pressures relating to his task. Teachers' actions are subjected to community opinion. Scarcely any such pressure is brought to bear upon the psychologist, psychiatrist or the social worker, who usually work in the seclusion of their offices, isolated from the powerful forces of the community (Ramphal, 1978).

In spite of these and subsequent criticisms, Wickman's classic study and recommendations have made quite an impact on subsequent textbooks.

Much research was done on the same subject but with methodological modifications, eg. Laycock (1934); Stouffer (1952; 1956); Hunter (1957) and Sparks (1952) among others.

These researchers continue to strengthen and confirm Wickman's conclusions (Ramphal, 1978).

A follow-up study was done by Wickman in 1974. He obtained a list of behaviour problems from teachers in American schools. This list was reduced from 428 to 185 items. Wickman then grouped these items into seven categories. He asked the teachers to rate the seriousness of the types of behaviour.

Wickman's (1974) findings were that the teachers viewed stealing, untruthfulness, cheating, sex problems, disobedience, impertinence, defiance, temper outbursts, impudence, rudeness and truancy as being more serious than disorderliness in class, inattentiveness, lack of interest in work, carelessness, laziness and unreliability. Wickman's teachers regarded domineering behaviour, attracting attention, sullenness, interrupting and meddlesomeness as being more serious than shyness, unsocialness, sensitivity, fearfulness, suspiciousness, imaginative lying and dreaminess (all these items with the exception of "imaginative lying" are in the present researcher's category of Disposition).

Wickman's conclusion was that teachers' perceptions of the seriousness of bad behaviour is in direct relation to the impact that this behaviour has on teachers themselves both as people and as teachers. The teachers were most concerned about those behaviours which transgressed their moral sensitivities and authority or which frustrate their immediate teaching purposes and are regarded as relatively more serious than problems which affect for the most part only the welfare of the individual child (Wickman, 1974).

In support of Wickman's view, Tattum (1982) reviewed recent research in Britain and found that teachers had a serious view of disruptive and violent behaviour. The conclusion reached by Tattum was that these behaviours were problematic because they offended members of the teaching profession and they may

hinder the educational and social progress of the "good children".

2.4 Ziv's Study (1970)

Ziv conducted his research in Israel, where he compared the attitudes of teachers and psychologists to behaviour problems. Ziv included the attitudes of children in his study and compared them to teachers and psychologists.

He reduced the 50-problem checklist to 30, as he found that some of the problems were similar, for example "disobedience - disorderliness in class".

He found a positive relation between teachers and psychologists' rankings of children's behaviour problems ($p < 0,05$).

There were twelve problems in which there was a higher than eight point discrepancy between the rankings of teachers and psychologists. Teachers ranked as more severe: disobedience, impertinence, tattling and overcritical. Psychologists noted as more severe: dishonesty, depression, hyperactivity, easily discouraged, enuresis, shyness, dependency and dreaminess.

Ziv also found that the correlation between children's and teachers' rankings was higher than the correlation between children's and psychologists' rankings. Children do not regard personality problems as serious, as no attention is given to these problems in the school framework.

The problems ranked as severe by teachers were school-oriented problems of teacher-pupil relations or peer relations. Psychologists on the other hand were more concerned with problems in the personality field (depression, hyperactivity, shyness).

The reason that Ziv (1970) advances for the similarity in rankings is that in Israel, the teachers and psychologists work closely together. Teachers demonstrate a very active interest in psychology. His correlation of 0,51 is therefore to be expected (Ramphal, 1978).

2.5 Ramphal's Study (1978)

Ramphal used a sample of 961 teachers, both male and female and 76 clinicians (consisting of psychiatrists and medical practitioners) who had an interest in the field of mental health. His aim was to examine the attitudes of Indian teachers to behaviour problems and compare their views to those of clinicians (Ramphal, 1978).

He obtained a rank order correlation of 0,36, as compared to Wickman's of 0,11. This trend toward greater consensus between the attitudes of the two groups is consistent with the findings of Mitchell (1940) and Stouffer (1950).

There was some degree of agreement between both groups in respect of items such as truancy, lack of interest in work, destroying school materials, untruthfulness and stealing. By and large, however, teachers took a more serious view of acting-out behaviour as compared to the clinicians who viewed withdrawing types of behaviour as more serious (Ramphal, op cit).

Ramphal also made intra-group comparisons and found that teachers who were younger, unmarried, of lower rank, of lower professional and academic qualifications are more concerned than their counterparts about aggressive, acting-out behaviour. Teachers with greater experience and higher qualifications tend to be closer to the clinicians in their assessment of problem behaviour (Ramphal, 1978).

Ramphal's findings supported those of Amos and Washington (1960) who carried out a study comparing teacher perceptions of pupil problems to determine whether the problems which teachers recognize in pupil behaviour agree with those which the pupils themselves identify. The results of this study were that teachers were more concerned with disruptive behaviour in the classroom as well as behaviour which threatened the position of the teacher. Pupils on the other hand, were more concerned with problems in the areas of Money, Work, the Future and Self-Centred Concern. The researchers concluded that teachers identified fewer problems as characteristic of the students than did the students themselves, and appeared especially unaware of the needs and problems of students.

2.6 Behaviour Problems in Ordinary Schools

Research on the incidence of emotional and behaviour difficulties in school has been handicapped by a lack of reliable statistics (The Pack Report HMSO, 1977). One reason for this is that teachers have varying levels of tolerance of children's behaviour, so that what is considered a problem in one case may give no cause for concern in another. Other reasons may be that figures are disputed; if they are too low, critics say that teachers are unwilling to risk censure in an hostile environment; or they may be dismissed as from a tainted source, for example, the head-master covering up his school's shortcomings. If the figures are too high, they are said to be the exaggeration of interested parties seeking additional compensation (McManus, 1990).

The historical emphasis for problem behaviour is on the pathology of the individual child. However there is growing recognition that school factors may also cause, exacerbate or precipitate disruptive behaviour (Lawrence, et al., 1980). Although individual children were considered initially, the

perspective has broadened to take account of school structures and ethos.

There are no reliable statistics on troublesome behaviour. Very few acts of violence against teachers are recorded (Hargreaves, et al., 1975; Lawrence, et al., 1977). A survey conducted by the Department of Education and Science (DES 1980) found the level of violent acts to be 7,68 per 10,000 pupils and the level of acts of rowdyism to be 3,81 per 10,000 pupils (McManus, 1990).

Lawrence, et al., (1984) found a patchy mix of concerns in Britain. The problems giving most concern were bullying, vandalism, refusal to obey teacher, bad language and difficult classes. Alcoholism and violence to teachers were at the bottom of the list.

In the U.S., Doyle (1986) writes of serious incidents being generally rare in most schools.

Limited research in South Africa indicates that there is a perception of a high level of behaviour disorders in school and that the incidence of reported problem behaviour is on the increase (Ramphal, 1978; Thompson, 1987; Govender, 1989).

A survey among teachers was conducted in Clwyd in which disruptive behaviour was analyzed into 6 categories which were listed in order of occurrence as rowdyism, actual violence, damage to property, threats of violence, theft and sexual misbehaviour (Clwyd County Council, 1976 - cited in Dunham 1992).

Lawrence, Steed and Young (1984) conducted a survey of disruptive behaviour in two London schools. When these teachers talked about acts of disruption they meant rowdiness, abuse, bad language and refusing to accept the teachers' authority. Violent and aggressive behaviour makes demands on

teachers which stretch their coping methods to their limits and sometimes beyond them (Dunham, 1992).

Research was conducted by Birmingham University Centre for Child Study which showed that teachers are in general much more concerned about "persistent minor misbehaviour than the occasional dramatic confrontation", such as talking out of turn, making unnecessary noises as opposed to verbal abuse or physical aggression towards pupils (Houghton, Wheldall and Merrett, 1988).

In 1961 the California State Department of Education found that between 5 and 10 percent of the total enrolment in the schools under their control is made up of children who are handicapped by behaviour and learning problems caused by emotional disturbances. In Canada, a conservative estimate of the number of pupils with these problems is between 5 and 10 percent (Laycock and Munro, 1966 in Williams 1974).

In 1970 Rutter, et al., in their Isle of Wight study showed that 5.7 percent of 2,193 children (9 - 11 year old group) revealed a psychiatric disorder.

The most extensive and influential investigation of the causes and effects of disruptive behaviour in the 1980s was the Elton report (DES and Welsh Office, 1989 - cited in McManus 1990). This Committee describes these difficulties as "persistent low level classroom disruption". The majority of the primary and secondary school teachers reported that the flow of their lessons had been disrupted by having to deal with minor discipline problems.

Many researchers believe that problem behaviour in schools is indirectly caused through teacher attitudes. Sharp and Green (1975), for example, found that teachers interacted more often with pupils they believed to be "bright".

Fry (1983) examined teacher relationships with what he called "problem" children and "non-problem" children. His results showed that "problem" pupils received more "negative effect" behaviours (verbal/non-verbal behaviours reflecting hostility or negative feelings) from teachers. They were asked less frequently to express their views and preferences. On the other hand, "non-problem" pupils received a greater number of "positive effect" behaviours such as smiling, joking, reinforcement and praise, and obtained feedback on their responses.

Fry (1983) also concluded that there was an apparent steady decline in teacher involvement with problem children which was accompanied by significantly greater passivity in children and a sharp incline in the incidence of problem children's serious misbehaviours.

It becomes clear that the behaviour of the pupil who is the attitude object is fundamentally affected by the existence and projection of the teachers' attitude. Leach (1977) has said that not only are pupils' achievements affected by teacher attitudes, but the recurring relationship of behaviour and low achievement generally found in schools highlights significant teacher influences.

Problem behaviour should not and cannot effectively be tackled in isolation. Shostak's (1983) research reports that "95% of 5th year pupils voiced criticisms which called into question their school experience". Galloway and Goodwin (1987) concur by stating that a pupil's disruptiveness depends as much on factors within the school as on factors within the pupil or the family.

Reynolds (1982) studied eight secondary modern schools in Wales and found that schools using "incorporative" rather than "coercive" methods to enlist the co-operation of pupils and their parents had higher rates of academic success, half the

delinquency rates of coercive schools and rates of attendance about 6 percent or 7 percent higher. The "incorporative" schools adopted the following strategies:

- a) Pupils encouraged to actively participate in lessons.
- b) Prefect and monitor systems for pupils to take responsibility and exercise some control over their within-school lives.
- c) Good interpersonal relationship between teachers and pupils; avoidance of conflict/rule enforcement likely to provoke rebellion.
- d) Therapeutic rather than coercive responses from the schools to individual instances of problem behaviour.

Parents were encouraged to communicate with school personnel about pupil progress and school affairs.

In "coercive" schools on the other hand, relationships between teachers and pupils were characterized by hostility. Teachers expected rebellion from their pupils; over-estimated the "social deprivation" of their pupils' background, underestimated their abilities and regarded them as needing strong discipline and "character-building" to make up for the deficiencies of their up-bringing.

Finlayson and Loughran's (1976) study revealed greater behavioural problems when the teacher adopted rigid, authoritarian methods of establishing discipline, rather than negotiation.

Hargreaves, et al., (1975) report a study by Jordan (1974) which distinguishes two types of teacher: the "deviance-provocative" teacher whose handling of deviant behaviour

exacerbates the problem; and the "deviance-insulative" teacher whose handling of problem behaviour serves to inhibit it.

Nash (1973) studied the effects of teachers' favourable and unfavourable perceptions of pupils upon the pupils' behaviour. He shows how children modify their behaviour for better or worse in response to the way they feel themselves to be perceived by teachers.

Teacher judgements are not only related to behaviour, but to gender stereotypes as well. In her research, Clarricoates (1980) found that teachers expected boys and girls to behave according to sex stereotypes. Girls who were "aggressive" or "independent" and boys who were "effeminate" or "sensitive" were regarded as the deviants.

These expectations were found to be self-fulfilling by Spender (1982) and Deem (1978) who found boys more aggressive in classrooms than the generally more diffident and compliant girls.

2.7 Behaviour Problems in Special Education Settings

The most direct and comprehensive study of the prevalence of significantly handicapping conditions in the UK is that of Rutter, Tizard and Whitmore (1970). This Isle of Wight survey totalled 2,199 children aged between 9 and 11 years. All handicaps likely to affect the child's educational progress were studied and divided into the following four categories: intellectual retardation, educational retardation, psychiatric disorders and physical impairments and handicaps (Bowley and Gardner, 1980).

This study showed that at least 16 percent of the children had one or more handicaps. Those with physical impairments were very close to 4 percent. The striking point about the Isle of

Wight study is that they highlight the extent to which children have more than one handicap (for example, 19 percent had two handicaps and 5 percent had three or four). The Isle of Wight study not only discovered the prevalence of handicapping conditions, but also involved the measurement of children's actual social, educational and physical functioning. It also exemplified the idea of handicap as a "continuum" with many gradations from near normal to severely handicapped. They found that the proportion of children with special education needs are 1 in 6 at any one time.

Rutter, et al., (1970) found, interestingly enough, that parents as well as teachers expressed concern about behaviour disorders of children; but there was surprisingly little overlap between the groups. Children who were disruptive at school were not always regarded as problems at home, nor was the converse true. The small overlap resulted from teachers identifying more overtly disturbed pupils, while parents identified a larger number of withdrawn children.

The above findings, however, differ from those of Kaufman, Wood and Swan (1981), who used factor analysis to determine parent and teacher ratings of behaviour problems. A review of the literature using factor analysis suggests three factors which recur in normal and disturbed children. These factors are:

- a) A highly aggressive and hostile dimension.
- b) An anxious and withdrawn behavioural dimension.
- c) A dimension characterized by lack of interest in or awareness of the environment or inadequacy immaturity.

Kaufman, et al., (1981) used a sample of 194 emotionally disturbed children, who were rated by both parents and teachers. The Referral Form Checklist which comprises 54 behaviour problems was used. The main concern in this study

was personality-related behaviours. Consequently the topic of academic difficulties was omitted from the analysis.

There was a close similarity between the factors isolated for parents and teachers. This implies that they view children from the perspective of the same basic behavioural dimensions. This convergence is important in view of multidisciplinary assessment and educational planning involving parents and teachers. This finding, however, differs from Sines (1988) who reported a low correlation level on the MCBC - (Missouri Children's Behaviour Checklist) between parents and teachers. This low correlation is consistent with reports by others (Achenbach, et al., 1987 in Sines 1988). These findings are partly attributed to the fact that the home and the school environments exert quite different demands on children.

Berger and Yule (1987) conducted a study in Inner London areas and found a high rate of psychiatric disorders and retardation in reading.

Solity (1991) warns that the "one in-five" prediction of special education needs arrived at by the Warnock Report (DES, 1978) is a myth. He states that the evidence of the Warnock Committee was based on IQ data to identify children experiencing difficulties. The role of psychometric assessment has been challenged on methodological and moral grounds. Swann (1982) discusses the IQ figure of 70 used as a cut off point for referral to special schools. This figure was adopted many years ago in London, as a convenient figure on purely pragmatic grounds to fill the number of available places in special schools.

Many writers, like Solity (1991), are of the opinion that by withdrawing children from mainstream education, we are in fact discriminating against them. Croll and Moses (1985) investigated special needs in ordinary schools and found that the ratio of boys to girls experiencing special needs was

almost two to one. In the area of behaviour problems, boys outnumbered girls by almost four to one. Croll and Moses (1985) also reported that more children from ethnic minority backgrounds are seen to have special needs than White children. As a result of these findings and many others, Solity (1991) questions the extent to which teacher perceptions, expectations and prejudices contribute to children being seen to have special educational needs.

According to Solity (1991) teachers will have difficulty in meeting the educational needs of all the children not just "one in-five". The problem may be one of teacher management rather than the learning characteristics of children. He challenges the idea of children failing to learn: was this considered by the Committee in relation to the quality and appropriateness of their learning experiences and learning environment?

Problem behaviour, whether in ordinary or special school settings, occurs as a result of a breakdown in the wider system of child, family, neighbourhood, school and community (Hobbs, 1966 in Varma 1993). We can try to adjust and balance the demands that each component in the system makes of other components.

The controversy as to whether it is necessary to have special institutions still rages on (Dunn, 1963; Chazan et al, 1980).

According to Dunn (1963) special education programmes were not initiated in response to the needs of exceptional children, but rather as an expedient measure to resist a perceived threat to existing goals for "normal" children who were being more or less adequately served by regular school programs. Public schools were forced to initiate special education programmes so as to avoid disturbing the traditional establishment .

Meyerowitz (1967) in Hammill and Bartel (1971) warned that special classes would lead in the long run to increased maladaptive behaviour. He came to this conclusion after examining parents' attitudes to educable mentally handicapped children. The parents whose children were in special classes tended to derogate and devalue their child to a greater degree than did parents of children in regular classes.

Laing, et al., (1980) conducted a study into the prevalence of developmental and behavioural difficulties in young children who attend special schools. The problems exhibited by the children were rated by the family from mild to very severe. The children were withdrawn with emotional problems as well as aggressive and overactive. The children in the special school had severe physical or mental handicaps. Some had slight speech or hearing defects. Some difficulties mentioned by the parents were toileting, sleep problems, overactivity, destructiveness, demanding behaviour, aggression, lack of initiative and shyness or withdrawal. Other problems reported less frequently were head-banging, temper tantrums, stubbornness and convulsions. The families had other problems as well, which were seen as contributing factors such as home environment and marital problems among others.

The most common type of problem exhibited by students in special education is conduct disorder (aggressive acting out behaviour). Boys tend to exhibit more aggressive behaviour than girls (ratio of 5 to 1 or more) (Cullinan and Epstein, 1985).

Rubin and Balow (1971) in Hammill and Bartel (1971) reported that 7,4 percent of normally distributed pupils on measures of IQ, socio-economic status and school achievement were considered as having behaviour problems by every teacher who rated them. They explained their findings by stating that children's behaviours remain relatively constant, but teachers vary widely in their observational powers, which leads to

differing perceptions of behaviour. Although teachers are reliable observers of behaviours, they vary widely in their judgements as to what constitutes a problem. Teachers vary greatly in the environments they create, which in turn, produces high variance in problem behaviour.

Do the attitudes of regular and special educators to marking exert an influence on student classroom behaviour? Crowl and Berkowitz (1985) compared the attitudes of regular and special educators to marking. The results of their study were that regular teachers believed to a greater extent than did special education teachers that marks have a positive influence on students. Special educators generally believed that marks have neither a positive nor a negative influence on students. They seem to view the assignment of marks as a more subjective process than regular teachers do. Special educators appear more willing than regular educators to use marks as a means of altering student behaviour and to apply different standards to different students.

Weener (1981) cites many researchers such as Ysseldyke, Algozzine, Richey and Gradin, (1982); Ysseldyke, Algozzine, Shinn and McGue, 1982) as believing that teacher variables and not student characteristics influence the decision to refer a child for special education.

McIntyre (1988) conducted a study on whether teacher gender was a predictor of special education referral. His results were that students with a high level of problem behaviour were more likely to be referred by female teachers rather than males. When there were low levels of problem behaviour, gender did not matter. A further implication of his study was that male students were referred for special education services in greater proportion than females. His point, however, was that there were fewer male teachers as compared to female ones (McIntyre, 1988).

It is important for psychologists and teachers to focus on what children have achieved, rather than what they have not. Psychologists should help teachers to identify the educational needs of all children (Solity, 1991).

There is a dearth of research on behaviour problems of pupils in special education in South Africa or teacher attitudes to these problems. However a study has been done on the perception of teacher stress in special schools, which will be elaborated on later in this work. The reasons for the inclusion of teacher stress in this work is that Dunham (1992) has shown that teacher stress is linked to having to cope with behaviour problems of pupils.

2.8 The Relationship of Labelling to Behaviour Problems

In American schools, the typing of students is performed by school psychologists; the formality of such labelling can have a powerful effect on teachers' perceptions and classroom behaviours (Richardson, et al., 1979 in Varma 1993).

There have been frequent associations between anti social behaviour and poor academic achievement (Hallworth 1962). In the Isle of Wight study, Rutter, et al., (1970), reported that children with specific reading retardation were reported by teachers as displaying anti-social behaviour.

The findings of Harris, (1984) in Ramesut (1989) are similar to those of Rutter's. In their study of 6 to 12 year old boys attending special schools, it was revealed that emotionally disturbed pupils averaged 2,6 years behind in reading for age.

There is much confusion in the United states and elsewhere as to the definitions of the terms Learning Disabled (LD) and Emotional Disorders (ED). There is no consistency in construct definition of these terms (Boucher and Deno, 1979).

A study was conducted by Boucher and Deno (1979) to determine which child characteristics teachers used to categorize children as LD or ED. Of 25 listed behaviour items, teachers had to decide which label was appropriate for each item ie. LD, ED or both LD and ED.

76,4 percent of the statements were identified by at least 75% of the teachers as characteristics of both LD and ED students. The teachers in this study said that children bearing the LD label could be distinguished by problems such as "academic" and "health and development" while "psychological" and "behavioural" problems were said to be more typical of ED students.

The results of this study support the view that in reality the populations of children labelled LD and ED overlap significantly.

A second study by the same researchers (Boucher and Deno, 1979) was conducted to determine what effect the LD and ED labels might have on decisions regular and special education teachers make when setting achievement goals and selecting services for students. The outcome of this study showed that labels did not influence goal setting and programming. A further outcome was that teachers recalled the ED label (after reading a case report) far more than the LD label. This finding is consistent with McCarthy and Paraskevopoulos (1969) in Hammill and Bartel (1971), who found that teachers perceived problem behaviours to differ more in number and/or degree of severity for children labelled LD.

According to Dunn (1968) the danger of diagnostic procedures is that they may have resulted in disability labels and children have been grouped homogenously in school on the basis of these labels. The multi-disciplinary teams' goal is to look at the complete child. However, the outcome is that the child is merely labelled as mentally retarded, perceptually impaired

or minimally brain damaged. Usually the school psychologist administers a battery of tests and then labels the child eligible for special education services.

2.9 Teacher Stress in Ordinary and Special School Settings

Dunham's (1992) definition of stress is that it is "a process of behavioural, emotional, mental and physical reactions caused by prolonged increasing or new pressures which are significantly greater than coping resources".

Dunham found that incidents of misbehaviour in school contributed to a sense of stress and growing frustration among teachers. A study by Travers and Cooper (1990) in Dunham (1992) of the United Kingdom indicates that pupil misbehaviour is still one of the major sources of stress for teachers.

When teaching children with emotional and behaviour disorders, teachers feel a sense of insecurity, which is increased by the unpredictability of the pupils' behaviour (Dunham, 1992). Another source of insecurity is lack of psychological knowledge, a feeling that one is out of one's depth with a particular child. A further source of insecurity for teachers is that the range of pupils' behaviour and attitudes is beyond the teachers' expectations, training and experience.

Galloway, et al., (1982) investigated the effects of special classes for disruptive pupils in Sheffield. They found an absence of support for staff teaching disruptive pupils, as colleagues may feel reluctant to offer assistance (because to do so would imply their colleagues' impotence).

Dunham (1992) examined teacher stress in special schools and found that stress was caused through the unpredictable, depressing and disruptive behaviour of some of the children.

Stress factors were reportedly caused by the frustrations of liaison work with social services and other personnel. In a different special school, Dunham found a teacher experiencing stress because of reduced numbers in her classes.

Another cause for concern in special schools was the tendency of the principal to consult only his management team in decision making concerning staff. Members of staff were not consulted at all. Dunham's teachers in special schools reported feeling "irritable, tense and edgy". Dunham suggests that if increasing pressures go beyond a person's coping resources they lead to high levels of anxiety, poor concentration and memory and impaired ability to make decisions.

As a result of violence and physical or verbal abuse towards teachers, the Health and Safety Commission (1990 - cited in Dunham 1992) recommended that victims of such abuse be given time off work, counselling or compensation.

In South Africa, limited research is available on teacher stress. Garbharran (1990) investigated the incidence of stress among South African Indian teachers and found that they experienced a significant degree of emotional distress. He also found a significant relationship between the degree of stress experienced by teachers and the degree of job satisfaction. A further conclusion was that secondary teachers experienced higher levels of work-related stress than primary teachers.

Harrison (1992) investigated the extent of teacher stress among White teachers in five special schools in KwaZulu-Natal. He concluded that the teachers were moderately stressed and there was a report of a comparable level of ill-health. The greatest source of stress was Task Stress, which involved having to complete lengthy reports and other paper work. Female teachers

were found to be slightly more stressed than their male counterparts.

It is noteworthy that many researchers, among them Dworkin (1987) and Dedrick (1981 cited in Dunham 1983) concluded that student indiscipline was ranked highest by teachers as a cause of stress, in their samples.

CHAPTER THREE**EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION**

This chapter will cover the following areas:

Purpose of study

Sample

Instrumentation

Procedure

3.1 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of Indian teachers in special schools towards certain behaviour problems in pupils and to probe the extent to which their attitudes correspond with those of teachers in ordinary schools. It was also attempted to determine how teachers in special and ordinary schools differ in respect of the following variables:

- i) sex
- ii) age
- iii) marital status
- iv) professional experience
- v) professional qualifications
- vi) academic qualifications.

This study will compare the attitudes of teachers in special and ordinary schools. The teachers in special schools are generally more highly qualified than teachers in ordinary schools. They are screened by the school's Board of Management, before they are employed. The size of the special schools are generally smaller than those in the ordinary schools. The present correlation obtained will be compared to the correlations of Wickman (1928) and Ramphal (1978).

Past research has shown that teachers stress the importance of problems relating to acting-out behaviour, such as disorderliness, disobedience, dishonesty and failure to learn (Silberman, 1971; Jenkins, 1972 in Thompson 1975; Ramphal, 1978; McFie, 1934; Laslett, 1977). They did not consider the withdrawing type of behaviour as being serious. Wickman (1928) ended his study with an appeal for teachers to become more educated in the psychological approach to behaviour problems. Subsequent research has not indicated that Wickman's appeal has been heeded (Ramphal, 1978; Laslett, 1977; Hunter, 1955 and Stouffer, 1956).

The present study's inter groups were different from those mentioned, as it involved teachers in different settings; ordinary and special schools, as opposed to teachers and mental hygienists used in most previous studies. No specific results were predicted. It was anticipated that the attitudes of special school teachers may differ from those of their counterparts in ordinary schools. It was also anticipated that the attitudes of special school teachers may be similar to those of mental hygienists as these two groups have received further education, with an emphasis on psychology, which may have shaped their attitudes similarly.

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Sample

The sample comprised 139 teachers from five ordinary and four special schools in Durban.

The five ordinary schools were chosen because of the age-range of the pupils (six to thirteen years) as well as the fact that they were in close proximity to the researcher's place of

residence. These schools serve populations of children from mainly middle class families.

The five special schools were chosen because they include children of this age-range (although in some special schools, the children are up to eighteen years old). Each of these special schools are different in the type of child they cater for and the type of services they offer. Although the special schools were not in close proximity to the researcher's place of residence, an effort was made to administer the questionnaires at the schools, rather than post them. The special schools were situated in mixed areas: some lower socio-economic and some middle class suburbs.

Among these teachers at ordinary and special schools, there is a wide variety in terms of age, sex, marital status, academic and professional qualifications and professional experience.

Teachers, principals, deputy principals and heads of department completed the questionnaires. It was reasoned that all respondents who had a teaching load would be included, as they came into contact with children, and could therefore complete the questionnaire on the basis of their teaching experience.

Since teachers were of central interest to this study, they were required to furnish certain personal details, for example, age, sex, marital status, length of teaching experience, highest academic and professional qualifications, language and religion.

Questionnaires were distributed and collected from only four of the five special schools under study. The reason was that there were many delays in one particular special school for permission from the principal for the researcher to enter that school. The researcher eventually decided to omit that school from her study. Apart from this setback, the researcher did

not encounter any resistance or serious problems in the schools.

For the purpose of this study, ordinary schools will be referred to as O and special schools as S.

The sample comprised two groups as follows:

- A: Teachers Ordinary school
- B: Teachers - Special schools

A. Teachers in Ordinary Schools

Five primary schools were included in the study. Twenty teachers from each school were to have participated in this project. However, instead of a return of 100 questionnaires, 83 were received (83 percent).

B. Teachers in Special Schools

Five special schools were selected for the study. However, as stated earlier, the researcher went to four schools. Although a return of 80 questionnaires was expected, the number received was 56 (a percentage of 70).

The tables which follow show the distribution of the sample by sex, age, marital status, academic qualifications, professional qualifications and professional experience.

Table 1 Distribution of the Sample for the Nine Schools

Schools	Teachers
Ordinary (O)	83
Special (S)	56
Total	139

the number (83) was higher for the ordinary schools than the number for the special schools (56). The reason for this is that one special school was not included, for reasons previously stated. The number of returns was 139 of a total of 180 (a return percentage of 77).

In Table 2, the distribution of teachers according to sex is indicated.

Table 2 Distribution of the Sample of Teachers by Sex

	O Schools	S Schools	Total
Males	21	24	45
Females	49	17	66
Sex not Indicated	13	15	28
	83	56	139

The data reveals that of the 139 teachers in this study, 45 were males (32 percent). Females constituted 47 percent (n = 66) while 20 percent (n = 28) did not indicate their sex at all. These were included in the data wherever sex was not a variable influencing measurement and excluded wherever it was. The data shows that more female teachers than male teachers were represented in this study. There were more female teachers in ordinary schools than in special schools.

Table 3 indicates the distribution of the sample, according to age.

Table 3 Distribution of the Sample of Teachers by Age

	O Schools	S Schools	Total
up to 19	0	0	0
20 - 29	17	6	23
30 - 39	38	19	57
40 - 49	7	10	17
50 - 59	1	4	5
Age not indicated	20	17	37
Total	83	56	139

According to the data, the highest number of teachers (n = 57) fall in the age group 30 - 39 (a percentage of 41). There were more teachers aged 40 and over in the special schools (n = 14) than in the ordinary schools (n = 8). The number of the teachers that did not indicate their age was 37 (27%). A fair number (23) of teachers were in the 20 - 29 age group (17%). There were no teachers aged 19 or younger.

Table 4 Distribution of the Sample of Teachers by Marital Status

	O School	S Schools	Total
Single	7	6	13
Married	53	31	84
Widowed	-	-	-
Divorced	6	2	8
Not indicated	17	17	34
Total	83	56	139

This table shows that the highest percentage (60 percent) n = 84, are married while the lowest percentage (6 percent) is

divorced (n = 8). There were no widowed teachers in the sample. There were more married teachers in O schools (n = 53) than in S schools (n = 31). Ramphal (1978) also had a high percentage (71) of married teachers in his sample, as compared to the other categories.

Table 5 Distribution of Teachers by Professional Experience

Years	O School	S School	Total
0 - 9	33	14	47
10 - 19	24	18	42
20 - 29	8	5	13
30 - 39	1	2	3
40 - 49	-	-	-
Not indicated	17	17	34
Total	83	56	139

In the sample, the highest number of teachers in both O and S schools have 0 - 9 years of experience (n = 47). The percentage is 34. A fairly high number (n = 42) have 10 - 19 years of experience (30 percent). Not many teachers have over 30 years of experience. However, a noticeable feature is that the teachers are well-experienced. In the O schools, there is a higher number (n = 33) of teachers with 0 - 9 years of experience, as compared to the special schools (n = 14).

Table 6 Distribution of the Sample of Teachers by Professional Qualifications

Professional Qualifications	O School	S School	Total
Nil	1	1	2
JP/SP/Ed	39	12	51
NTD	1	4	5
DSE/DRE	1	13	14
HDE	11	16	27
B.Paed	4	3	7
Not indicated	26	7	33
Total	83	56	139

The highest number of teachers ($n = 52$) a percentage of 37, in both O and S schools have teaching diplomas, in some cases more than one. A combination of the number of teachers with degrees and post graduate qualifications in both O and S schools is a percentage of 35 ($n = 49$). A noticeable feature of the sample is that only one teacher has a matriculation qualification. On comparing the number of teachers with post matric qualifications ($n = 30$), it can be seen that teachers at present have far higher qualifications than previously (for example, Ramphal's sample, where only 7 percent of his sample had university qualifications).

Table 7 Distribution of the Sample of Teachers by Academic Qualification

Academic Qualifications	O Schools	S Schools	Total
Below matric	-	-	-
Matric	40	12	52
Univ. Degree/s	28	24	52
Not indicated	15	20	35
Total	83	56	139

Of those teachers who indicated their academic qualifications a fairly high number (n = 52) that is, 37 percent have university education. In this sample, the same percentage (37) have a matriculation level of education. All these teachers have professional qualifications, in addition to their matriculation certificate (See Table 5). Of these teachers who indicated their qualifications, only one teacher had a standard of education that was below matriculation level. However, the same teacher had a teaching diploma.

3.2.2 Instrumentation

An adapted form of Wickman's Rating Scale (Appendix 2) was used in order to measure teachers' responses to the different kinds of behaviour problems presented by children. According to Oppenheim (1966) the purpose of using the questionnaire is "to gather data". It was decided to use the questionnaire to test the attitudes of teachers.

The list comprises 51 items of troublesome behaviour. Fifty of the items appeared on Wickman's scale, while the 51st item, "homosexuality" was added on by Ramphal (1978).

In the questionnaire, behaviour problems are listed in random order, for example, "Truancy, cheating, whispering and note-writing, etc."

In Wickman's scale, the respondents recorded their judgements on a graphic rating scale with four calibrations that corresponded to captions describing the following degree of seriousness.

Of no consequence

Of only slight consequence

Makes for considerable difficulty

An extremely grave offence.

Ramphal (1978) chose to use a seven-point scale, as this would enable the respondents to make finer distinctions in their judgements about the seriousness of the different problems. He also felt that the use of a definite midpoint in a scale with an odd number of calibrations would make the handling of the statistical data more convenient.

On the first page of the questionnaire, respondents were required to enter demographic data pertaining to their age, sex, year of experience, professional and academic qualifications. Instructions relating to the scale of 1 - 7 are given. The teachers could enter their responses towards a particular behaviour problem on a 7-point scale. The respondents are instructed that if they place their cross at 1, it would not be regarded a serious problem; 4 would be regarded as a middle of the road problem and 7 an extremely serious problem. The numbers range in seriousness from 1 to 7.

On pages 2, 3, and 4 the behaviour problems are listed.

3.2.3 Reliability and Validity of the Instrument

Vaughn (1980) warns that any attitude scale should provide valid results. He states that face validity is insufficient; construct validity is far more substantive and involves "the integration of many studies" (Cronbach (1970)).

In this particular study the constant is attitude toward behaviour problems.

Vaughn (1980) states further that construct validation of an affective assessment device should include evidence of two aspects of reliability: internal consistency and stability.

The rating scale used in the present research has both validity and reliability, as it has been replicated several times by various researchers since 1926. The correlations obtained have proved to be reliable in the past.

A pilot study was, however, undertaken to modify and refine the instrument.

3.2.4 The Pilot Study

3.2.4.1 Aim

A pilot study was undertaken mainly with the aim of modifying and refining the questionnaire. It was important to conduct a pilot study in order to eliminate researcher bias and subjectivity. It also served useful methodological considerations in that the questionnaire format and content, as well as any linguistic ambiguities relating to the listed problems, could be gauged.

3.2.4.2 Sample

The sample consisted of twelve Bachelor of Education students from the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg. Of these, ten were females and two were males. They were reluctant to fill in demographic details such as their ages, qualifications and other personal details.

3.2.4.3 Procedure

The researcher, assisted by Mr. Robin Farman, administered the questionnaire to the students. These students constituted Mr. Farman's tutorial group. They were instructed to fill in their responses quickly, without discussion with their colleagues.

The respondents took approximately fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaires. They were collected and scored.

3.2.4.4 Results

The completed questionnaires were later examined. The results and modifications are as follows:

1. The following items appeared to be ambiguous, as they were not scored by the respondents:
 - suggestible (someone who is easily influenced by others)
 - tardiness (slowness, sluggishness)
 - profanity (irreverence, blasphemy)
 - slovenly (untidy in personal appearance; careless and lazy)
 - homosexual activity (having an inclination towards sexual behaviour with persons of one's own sex)

Additional meanings were therefore given in brackets to these five items.

2. The questionnaire format was in order and therefore remained unchanged.
3. Since the questionnaires were completed in a relatively short period of time, it was decided that they would be administered in the different schools and not posted.
4. Since no problems were reported by the respondents, apart from the lack of clarity stated above, it was decided to administer the questionnaire in its present form.

3.3 Procedure

Permission to conduct the research in ten schools had to be obtained from the Department of Education and Culture, since all government schools fall under their control. The Department granted approval, subject to the following provisos:

1. The completion of questionnaires had to be done outside teaching time.
2. Prior arrangements be made with the principals of the schools.
3. Participation in the research was to be on a voluntary basis.

A copy of the letter is provided as Appendix 1.

In the case of special schools, permission had to be sought from their Boards of Management as well (See Appendix 3).

The researcher then approached the principals of the schools to explain the aims of the research and to request their support.

The researcher arranged to meet the staff members of the respective schools in order to brief them concerning this investigation. Principals of ordinary schools were cooperative and permitted the researcher to meet staff members during their breaks.

In the case of special schools, permission was not granted immediately for the researcher to communicate with the staff. The reason for this delay was that prior permission had to be sought from their Boards of Management.

The Boards of Management of four special schools granted permission promptly. However in one special school, there was a long delay. As stated earlier, the researcher then omitted this school from her study.

Some special schools employ psychologists who proved to be particularly helpful in the administration of the questionnaires.

Twenty respondents per school volunteered to participate in the study. The respondents were instructed to make their ratings as quickly as possible. It was hoped that their everyday responses would be elicited by securing their immediate reactions to these problems, rather than their studied intellectual responses. The questionnaires were completed independently by the staff members. The returns were collected by the researcher.

The reason for the returns being less than 100% in the case of both ordinary and special schools (83 percent and 70 percent respectively) was that it was not possible to meet with all the staff members during their breaks. Some of them were on ground duty and others involved in extra-curricular activities. However, the overall return percentage was 77 (n = 139) which was quite reasonable.

Since the instrument was previously refined by Wickman, and the study replicated by other investigators no checks were made for test-retest reliability. The pilot study conducted by the researcher further refined the instrument. Oliver (1979) recommends the use of instruments which have proved effective in previous research, rather than the construction of new measures.

The presence of the researcher during the administration of the questionnaires in many of the schools provided a measure of procedural reliability. However the use of volunteers in the study could have introduced an element of bias.

Summary

This chapter specified the purpose of this study and provided details about the sample used. In addition to this, details regarding the instrument used in this study were furnished. The outcome of the pilot study and its impact regarding the refinement of the instrument was stated. The research procedure was outlined.

Chapter Four consists of the results obtained and a description of the statistical procedures used for the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER FOUR**RESULTS**

This chapter presents the results obtained and describes the statistical procedures used in the analysis of these results. The interpretation includes a discussion of the statistical differences between teacher responses in ordinary and special schools as well as the significance of differences between the two groups.

The correlation of the teachers (both O and S schools) will be compared to the correlation of Wickman's teachers and mental hygienists (1928) and Ramphal's teachers and mental hygienists (1978), using the Pearson r.

4.1 Statistical Techniques

The 51 behaviour items were grouped on a rational basis into 6 categories, as follows:

Category 1 - Disruptive/Acting Out Behaviour

1. Imaginative lying
2. Cheating
3. Stealing
4. Profanity
5. Impudence
6. Selfishness
7. Domineering
8. Tale-carrying
9. Temper tantrums
10. Over critical of others
11. Inquisitiveness
12. Silliness
13. Physical coward
14. Suggestible
15. Obscene notes

Category 2 - Disposition

1. Untruthfulness
2. Quarrelsomeness
3. Sullenness
4. Shyness
5. Sensitiveness
6. Unsocial
7. Unhappy
8. Resentful
9. Nervousness
10. Fearfulness
11. Dreaminess
12. Suspiciousness
13. Easily discouraged
14. Enuresis
15. Whispering and note-writing
16. Thoughtlessness

Category 3 - Resisting School Authority

1. Tardiness
2. Truancy
3. Destroying school material
4. Interrupting
5. Restlessness
6. Inattention
7. Lack of interest in work
8. Carelessness in work
9. Laziness
10. Unreliableness
11. Disobedience
12. Impertinence
13. Stubbornness
14. Slovenly in appearance
15. Disorderliness

Category 4 - Sexual Behaviour

1. Masturbation
2. Heterosexual activity
3. Homosexual activity

Category 5 - Physical Violence

Cruelty and bullying

Category 6 - Smoking

Smoking

4.1.1 One Way Analysis of Variance

One way ANOVA tests were performed on the sample, to see if significant differences existed in the attitudes of teachers in O and S schools. Two way ANOVA was also used on the biographical sample, to see if significant differences could be gauged on the following teacher variables:

- i) Sex
- ii) Age
- iii) Marital status
- iv) Professional experience
- v) Academic qualifications
- vi) Professional qualifications

The ANOVA procedure is based on a mathematical proof that the sample data can be made to yield two independent estimates of the population variance: the "within-group" variance estimate which is based on how different each of the scores in a given group is from other scores in the same group, and the "between group" variance estimate which is based on how different the means of the various groups are from one another (Welkowitz, et al., 1982). Therefore, if there is no significant variance, the between-group and within-group variance estimates will be approximately equal, so that P will be approximately equal to 1.0. When P is so large as to have a probability of .05 or

less of occurring, then there is a significant difference between the sample scores.

4.1.2 Two Way Analysis of Variance

Two way ANOVA was used on the biographical sample to test for significance on the six behaviour categories.

4.1.3 Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson product-moment correlation is frequently used. The symbol is r . A correlation coefficient is a measure of relationship between two variables. In this study the two variables were ordinary and special schools. An r of .80 and above is considered a high coefficient, an r around .50 is considered moderate and an r of .30 and below is considered a low coefficient. The Pearson r is not a measure of causality (Downie and Heath, 1970).

A correlation was obtained by taking the mean scores of the six behaviour categories of teachers in ordinary and special schools and applying the Pearson r formula.

This correlation was then compared with the following previous correlations:

Wickman's teachers and mental hygienists (1928).

Ramphal's teachers and mental hygienists (1978).

Tables will be presented to show the significance of r and the comparison of the correlation figures.

4.2 ANOVA Tables for Six Categories of BehaviourTable 8 Disruptive/Acting Out Behaviour

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	3.1160	1	3.1160	1.5774	.2116
Within groups	233.1009	118	1.9754		

The figure of .2116 indicates that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of teachers in ordinary and special schools to disruptive/acting out behaviour.

Table 9 Disposition

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	1.3799	1	1.3799	.9920	.3212
Within groups	176.6666	127	1.3911		

The figure of .3212 means that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of teachers in ordinary and special schools to the behaviour category of disposition.

Table 10 Resisting School Authority

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	8.4628	1	8.4728	5.2024	.0243
Within groups	196.83333	121	1.6267		

The above table indicates that there is a level of significance of 0.243. This indicates that the teachers in ordinary schools take a more serious view of resisting school authority than do teachers in special schools. The following bar graph illustrates this:

Graph 1 Bar Graph For Resisting School Authority by Type of School

RESISTING AUTHORITY by TYPE OF SCHOOL

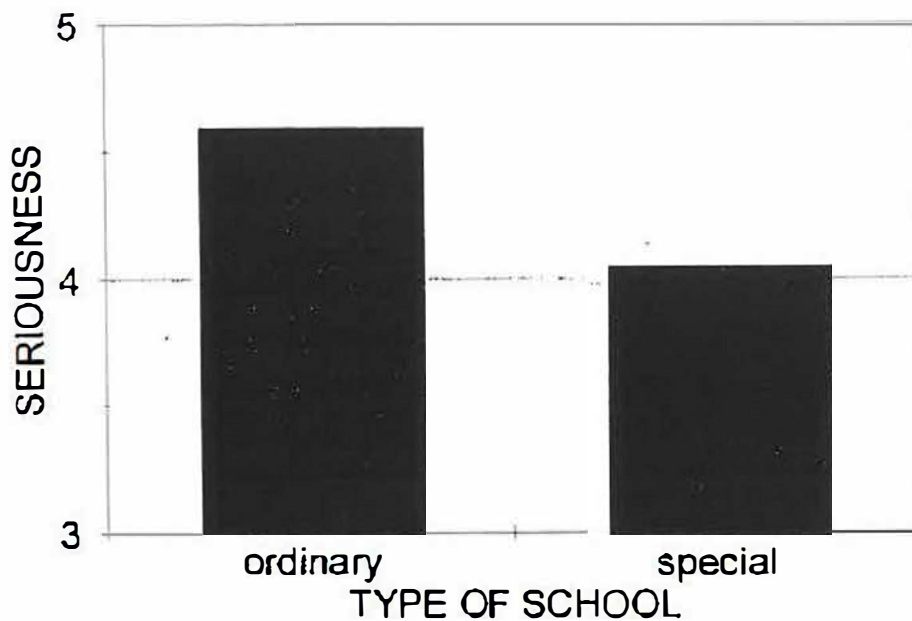


Table 11 Sexual Behaviour

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	6.1996	1	6.1996	1.4073	.2377
Within groups	563.8995	128	4.4055		

The figure of .2377 indicates that there is no significance for sexual behaviour. Teachers in both O and S schools do not take a serious view of sexual behaviour.

Table 12 Physical Violence

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	16.5762	1	16.5762	4.1112	.0445
Within groups	556.4167	138	4.0320		

$P = .0445$, which indicates that teachers in O schools take a more serious view of physical violence, as compared to teachers in S schools. The graph below illustrates this tendency.

Graph 2 Bar Graph for Physical Violence by Type of School

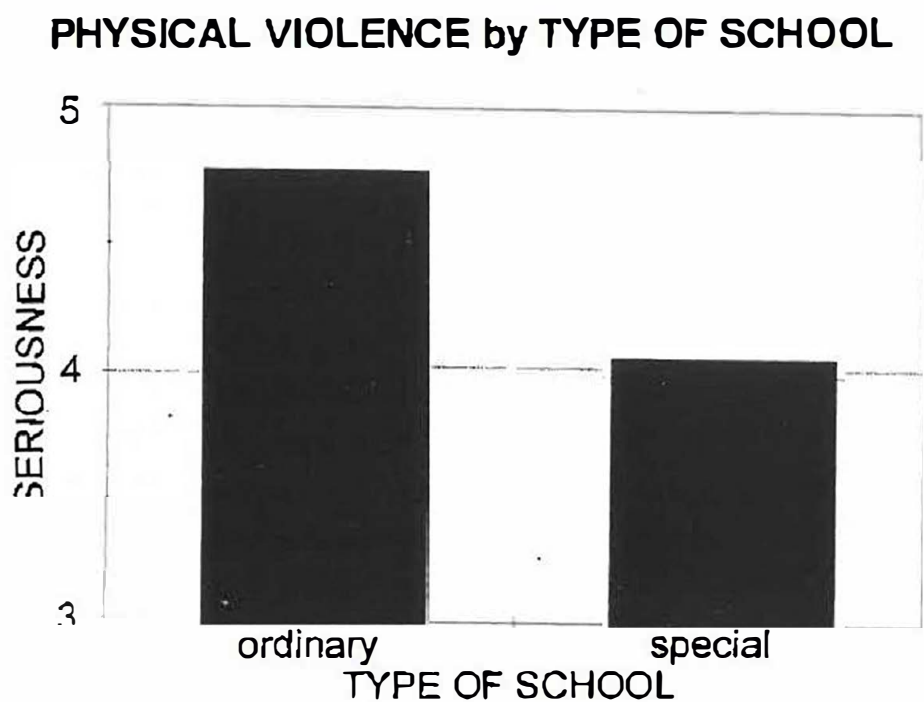


Table 13 Smoking

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	2.5466	1	2.5466	.5428	.4626
Within groups	633.4242	135	4.6920		

The figure of .4626 indicates that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of teachers in ordinary and special schools to smoking.

4.3 ANOVA Tables for Biographical Sample Data

Two way ANOVA was used for the following teacher variables: sex, age, marital status, professional experience, academic qualifications and professional qualifications.

Significant findings are illustrated by tables as well as graphs.

There was no significance for biographical data compared to behaviour categories for religion, language, sex, academic or professional qualifications. The only significant variable was age, which interacted with five different behaviour categories viz. disruptive behaviour, disposition, resisting authority, sexual behaviour and physical violence. Other lesser significant variables were Marital Status which was only significant for disruptive behaviour; and Professional Experience which had significance for disruptive behaviour as well as resisting school authority.

In all the findings, younger teachers in both ordinary and special schools took a more serious view of the behaviours mentioned. The only exception was the variable of Professional Experience, where teachers in special schools of high

experience took a "middle of the road" view of Resisting School Authority. (Tables and graphs will be presented to illustrate these findings).

When teachers at O and S schools were compared, there was significance for age and academic qualifications: teachers in S schools were older and had higher academic qualifications (tables will be presented to illustrate these).

Table 14 Academic Qualifications by Group

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	1.6932	1	1.6932	6.6401	.011
Within groups	26.7741	105	.2550		

In the above table, $P = .011$ which is significant in that teachers in S schools have higher academic qualifications than teachers in O schools.

Table 15 Age by Group

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	350.5879	1	352.5979	7.4409	.0075
Within groups	4880.7925	105	47.3863		

The significance level of .0075 indicates that of the teachers in O and S schools, teachers in S schools are older.

Thus far it was revealed that teachers in S schools were older and had higher academic qualifications.

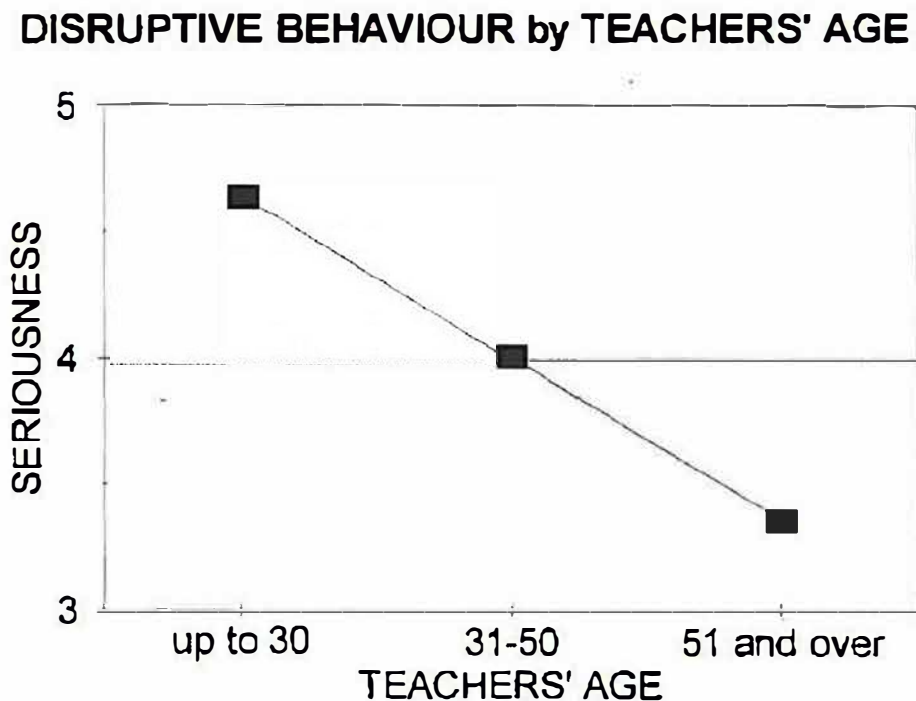
As stated earlier, the variable of age was significant for various behaviour categories. These results will be presented.

Table 16 Disruptive Behaviour by Teacher Age

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	25.9242	2	12.9621	7.2117	.0011
Within groups	210.2927	117	1.7974		

The significance of $p = .0011$ in table 16 indicates that younger teachers in both O and S schools take a serious view of disruptive behaviour. The following graph illustrates this attitude.

Graph 3 Line Graph for Disruptive Behaviour by Teacher Age



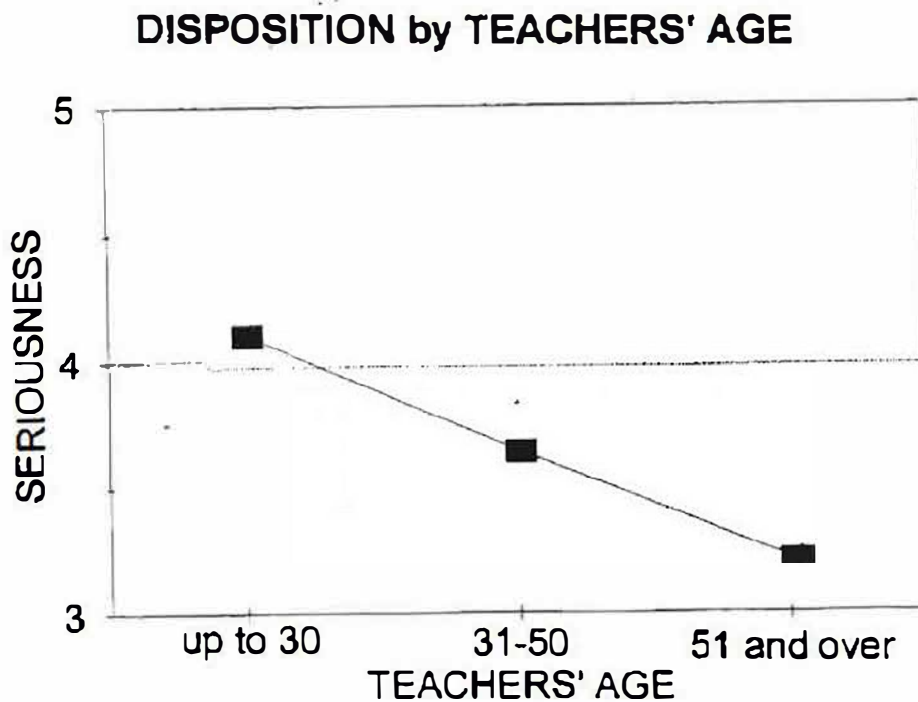
The graph shows that younger teachers (under 30 years) take a more serious view of disruptive behaviour than older teachers (51 years and over) in both O and S schools.

Table 17 Disposition by Teacher Age

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	21.2122	2	6.1061	4.6394	.0114
Within groups	165.8343	126	1.3161		

The significance of $p = .0114$ in table 17 indicates that younger teachers in both O and S schools take a more serious view of disposition as opposed to the older teachers. The following graph illustrates this attitude.

Graph 4 Line Graph for Disposition by Teacher Age



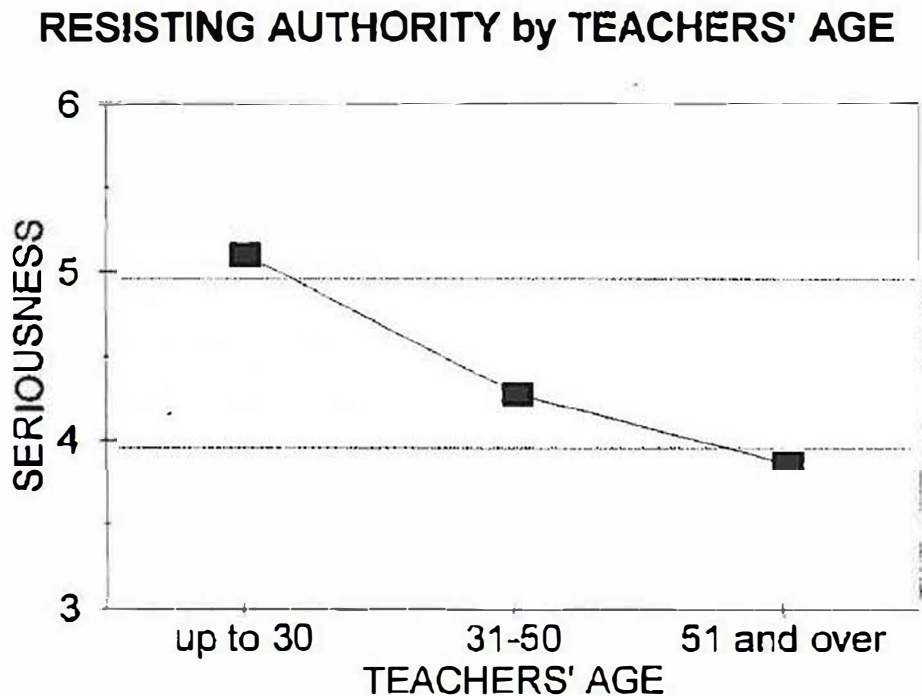
The above graph shows that younger teachers (under 30 years) take a more serious view of disposition as opposed to older teachers (ie. 51 years and over) in both O and S schools who do not regard it as a serious problem.

Table 18 Resisting Authority by Teacher Age

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	23.0842	2	11.5421	7.6013	.0008
Within groups	182.2119	120	1.5184		

The significance of $p = .0008$. Younger teachers in both O and S schools take a more serious view of resisting authority than older ones. The following graph illustrates this attitude.

Graph 5 Line Graph for Resisting Authority by Teacher Age



The above graph shows that younger teachers take a more serious view of Resisting School Authority than older teachers. This graph may be cross-referenced with Table 16, which shows that teachers in S schools are older. The implication, therefore, is that Resisting School Authority would present more of a problem to teachers in ordinary schools. Graph I confirms this.

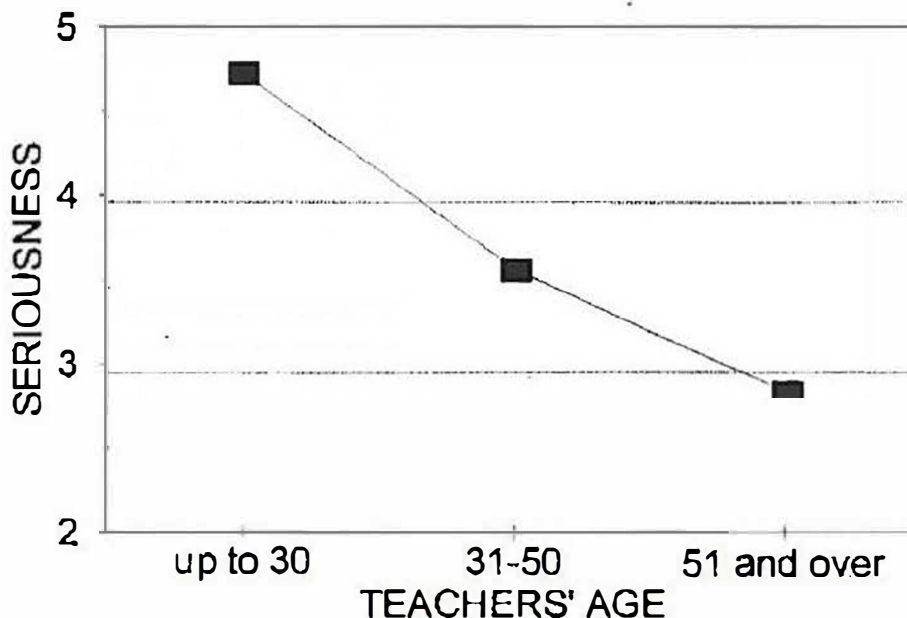
Table 19 Sexual Behaviour by Teacher Age

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	59.7176	2	29.8588	7.4299	.0009
Within groups	510.3815	127	4.0188		

The significance of $p = .0009$ in the above table indicates that younger teachers in both O and S schools took a more serious view of Sexual Behaviour than older teachers. The following graph illustrates this attitude.

Graph 6 Line Graph for Sexual Behaviour by Teachers' Age

SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR by TEACHERS' AGE



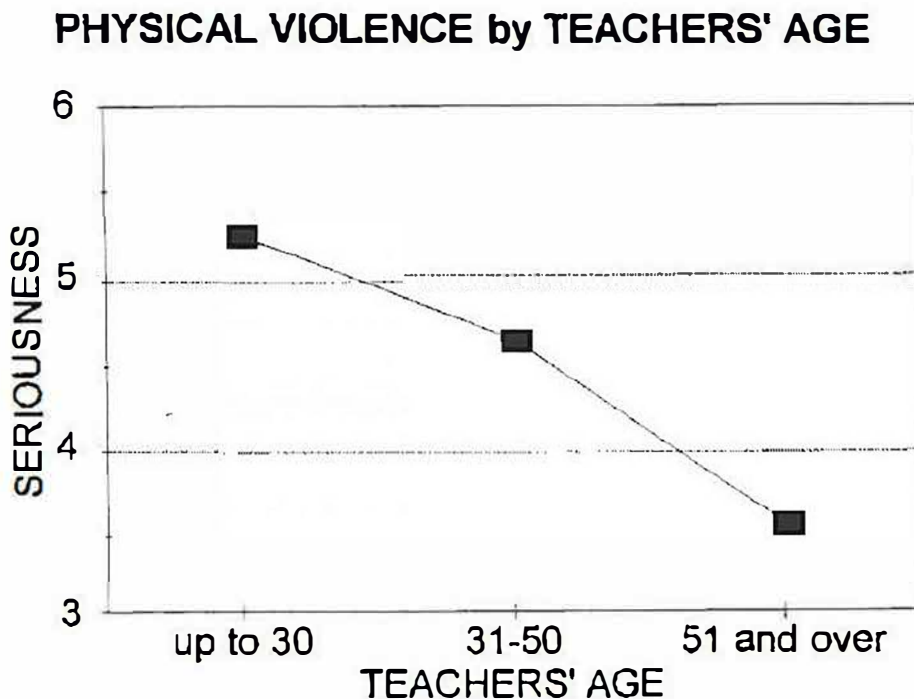
This graph shows that teachers in both O and S schools who are under 30, take a more serious view of Sexual Behaviour among pupils than those teachers who are 51 years and over.

Table 20 Physical Violence by Teacher Age

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	55.5678	2	27.7840	7.3564	.0009
Within groups	517.4249	137	3.7768		

The above table with a significance of $P = .0009$ indicates that younger teachers in both O and S schools take a fairly serious view of Physical Violence, as compared to older teachers. This table may be cross-referenced with Graph 2, which shows that overall, teachers in O schools take a more serious view of the above behaviour category than teachers in S schools. The graph below illustrates Table 20.

Graph 7 Line Graph for Physical Violence by Teachers' Age



This graph shows that teachers who are under 30 years take a more serious view of physical violence than those who are 51 years and over.

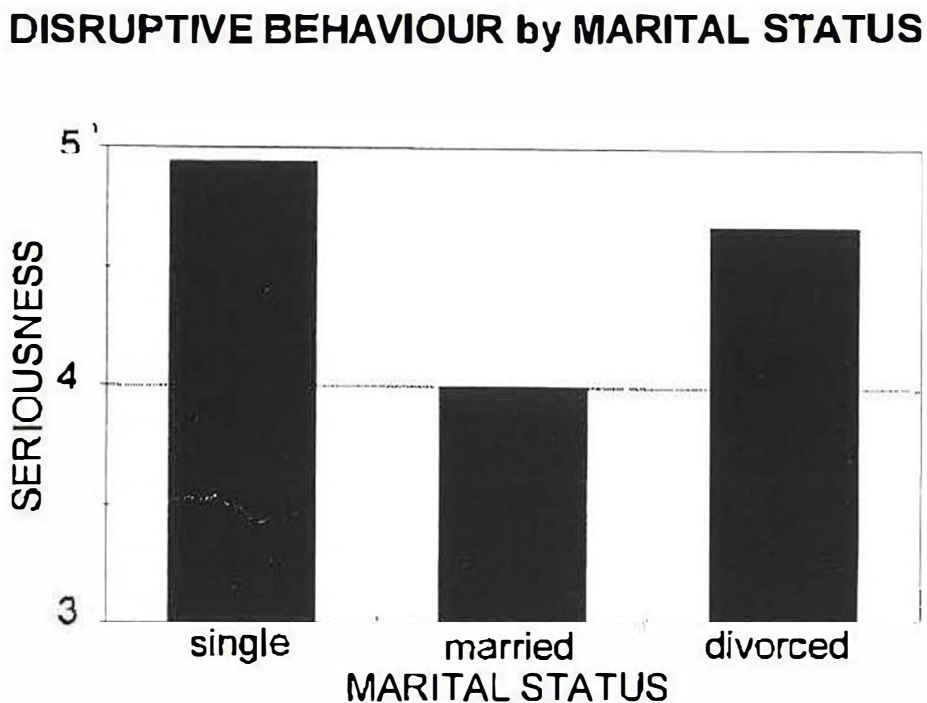
As stated earlier, variables that were less significant were Marital Status and Professional Experience. These findings will be presented below.

Table 21 Disruptive Behaviour by Marital Status

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	11.9545	2	5.9772	3.3889	.0381
Within groups	158.7410	90	1.7638		

The significance of $p = .0381$ in table 21 indicates that unmarried teachers in both O and S schools takes a more serious view of Disruptive Acting-out Behaviour than married teachers. The following bar graph illustrates this attitude.

Graph 8 Bar Graph for Disruptive Behaviour by Marital Status



The bar graph shows that single and divorced teachers take a far more serious view of disruptive behaviour than the married teachers.

The other significant variable was Professional Experience which was significant for two behaviour categories ie. Disruptive Behaviour as well as Resisting School Authority.

Table 22 Disruptive Behaviour by Professional Experience

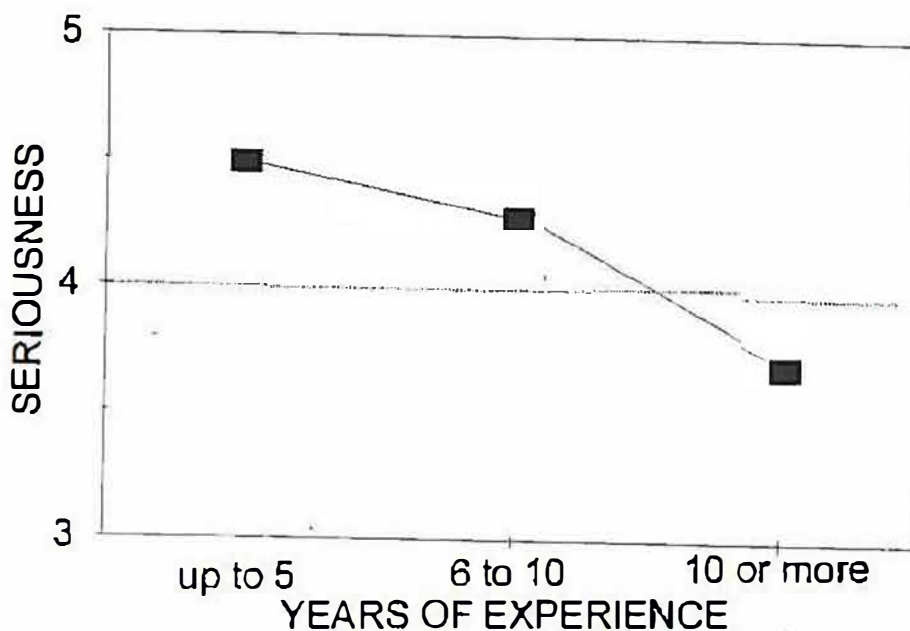
Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	12.1138	2	6.0569	3.1622	.0460
Within groups	224.1031	117	1.9154		

The significance of $p = .0460$ in the above table indicates that teachers who have less professional experience take a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour than those with high experience (ie. 10 years or more). The following graph illustrates this attitude.

Graph 9 Line Graph for Disruptive Behaviour by Professional Experience

(key : Behav = Behaviour, Exp = Experience)

DISRUPTIVE BEHAV. by TEACHING EXP.



The above graph shows that teachers in both O and S schools with 5 years of experience or less take a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour than those who have been teaching for 10 or more years.

Table 23 Resisting School Authority by Professional Experience

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig
2 way interactions group and teach	9.307	2	4.654	3.005	.05

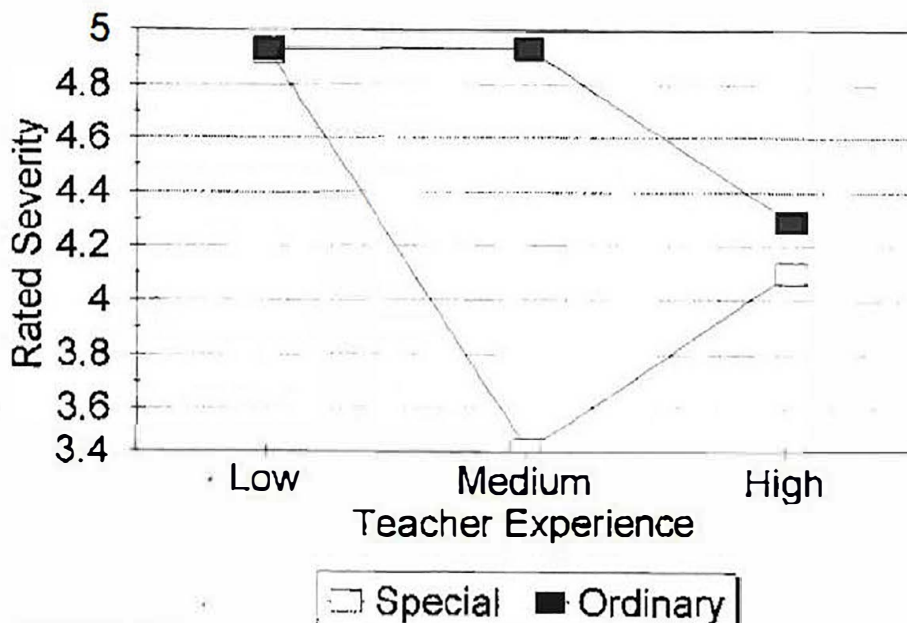
(Key: Group = Teachers in O and S schools
Teach = Professional Experience.

The significance of $p = .05$ in table 234 indicates that teachers with less Professional Experience take a more serious view of Resisting School Authority than those with high Professional Experience. This result showed that teachers of high experience in special schools took a "middle of the road" view of Resisting School Authority. This is illustrated by the graph.

Graph 10 Line Graph for Resisting Authority by Professional Experience and Group

(Key: Resist Auth = Resisting Authority)

Resist Auth. by Experience & Group

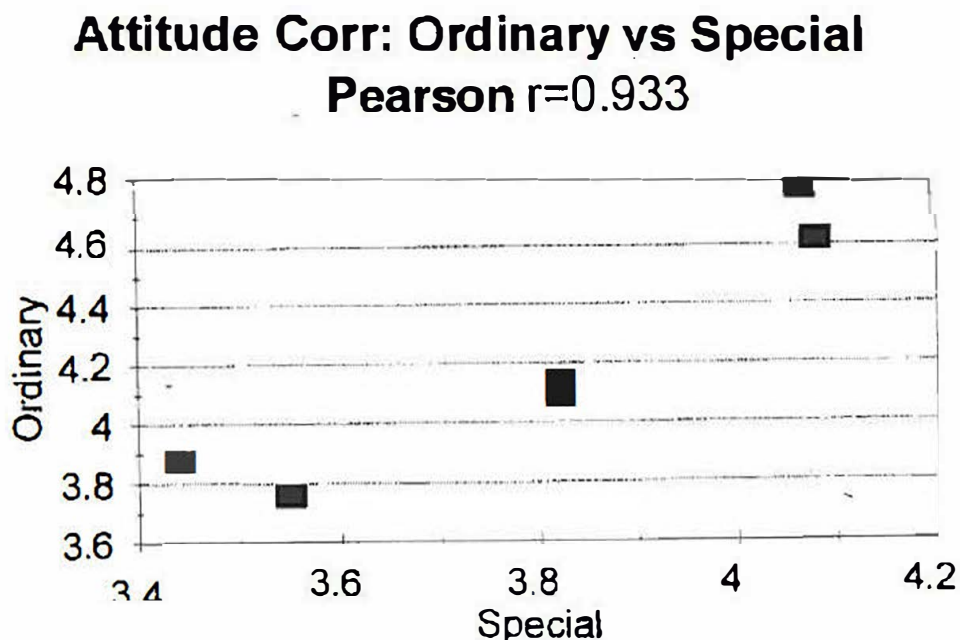


The graph shows that teachers in O schools of low (0 - 5 years) and medium (6 - 10 years) experience took a more serious view of Resisting School Authority than teachers in S schools. However, teachers in S schools of high experience (11 years and over) took a "middle of the road" view of this behaviour. The teachers in O schools of high experience took a similar view.

4.4 A comparison of the Correlation of the Present Study to Wickman's (1926) and Ramphal's (1978) Correlations

A rank order of the fifty-one behaviour items was not obtained as in this particular study, the items were clustered into 6 categories. These six categories were tested for significance by the two groups (O and S) using one way ANOVA. The means of these scores were used in the Pearson r formula to obtain a correlation between the two groups (O and S). A correlation between the teacher attitudes of the two schools (O and S) is $r = 0.933$, which is a very high correlation. The following graph illustrates this finding.

Graph 11 Attitude Correlation: Ordinary vs Special Schools
(Key: Corr = Correlation)



The above graph shows that the attitude correlation between the two schools is 0.933. This indicates that there is a great consensus in attitudes between the teachers of both types of schools. This figure is higher than either Ramphal's which is 0.36 and Wickman's which is 0.11. The table below shows the comparison of the three correlations.

Table 24 A Comparison of Three Correlation Figures

Wickman's Teachers (1926)	Ramphal's Teachers (1974)	Laloo's Teachers (1994)
0.11	0.36	0.93

Wickman's study was done in 1926 and shows a low correlation between the attitudes of American teachers and mental hygienists. Ramphal's 1978 study shows a correlation of 0.36 between South African teachers and mental hygienists. The present study involved teachers in ordinary and special schools and not teachers and mental hygienists as in previous studies. The present correlation of 0.93 is considerably higher than the previous two figures of both Wickman and Ramphal's.

This chapter examined the data obtained from the instruments and presented the statistical procedures by which the data were analyzed. A discussion of the results follows in Chapter five.

CHAPTER FIVE**DISCUSSION****5.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this study, as pointed out in Chapter Three, was to investigate the attitudes of Indian teachers towards behaviour problems in special schools and to probe the extent to which their attitudes correspond with those of teachers in ordinary schools.

The secondary aim of this study was to determine whether the variables of teacher sex, age, marital status, professional experience and academic qualifications would prove significant with regard to teacher attitudes to behaviour problems in both ordinary and special schools.

A further aim of this investigation was to compare the correlation-coefficient of the present study with those of Ramphal's (1978) and Wickman's studies (1926).

This chapter will discuss the findings of this investigation and make comparisons with the findings of other researchers.

5.2 Interpretation of Results

The primary results of this investigation have revealed that teacher attitudes in special schools differ from those in ordinary schools in only two dimensions: Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence. In these dimensions, teachers in ordinary schools were found to have a more serious view than teachers in special schools. The levels of significance for Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence were 0.243 and 0.445 respectively.

The results showed that there were no significant differences for the following categories: Disruptive/Acting out Behaviour, Disposition, Sexual Behaviour and Smoking.

This finding differs from those of other researchers (eg. Wickman, 1928, 1974; Laycock; Stouffer, 1952 and Ramphal, 1978), who found that teachers took a more serious view of annoying Disruptive Behaviour than problems relating to Disposition. The results which indicate teachers in ordinary schools taking a more serious view of pupils Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence than teachers in special schools, is consistent with other researchers (eg. Ramphal, 1978; Hunter, 1957; Amos and Washington, 1960; Lawrence, et al., 1984). However, Ramphal (1978) and Hunter (1957) used mental hygienists as their controls and not teachers in special schools. Amos and Washington (1960) and Lawrence, et al., (1984) compared teacher perceptions of resisting school authority to other types of behaviour.

Violent behaviour was not tolerated by teachers many years ago and it is so, even today. To quote Dunham (1992) "Violent and aggressive behaviour makes demands on teachers....."

There was no significance for the category of Disposition, which means that teachers in both ordinary and special schools did not take a serious view of it. However this is a matter of some concern, as teachers should take a more serious view of the withdrawing type of behaviour.

As far as the secondary aims of this study were concerned, it emerged that the important variable was age which interacted significantly with the following behaviour dimensions: Disruptive Behaviour, Disposition, Resisting Authority, Sexual Behaviour and Physical Violence. Younger teachers took a more serious view of these types of problems. These findings are consistent with Wickman's (1926) and Ramphal's (1978).

The other variables were marital status which had a significant effect on disruptive behaviour and Professional Experience which had significant effects on both disruptive behaviour and resisting school authority. A somewhat unusual finding with relation to Professional Experience, was that teachers in special schools with high experience rated resisting school authority as being a "middle of the road" problem. The reasons for this could be that these well-experienced teachers do not like the routine of the school situation disturbed.

The high correlation in the present study, could be due to the fact that in this study, teachers were compared with each other and not with mental hygienists. The trend is for greater consensus between teachers and mental hygienists, as research continues in ensuing years. This trend is consistent in the findings of Mitchell (1942), Stouffer (1952) and Ramphal (1978).

As stated earlier, teachers in ordinary schools took a more serious view of Physical Violence and Resisting School Authority than teachers in special schools. In analysing the significance of these findings, one has to bear in mind, that in South Africa, we live in a violent society with an escalating crime rate. Teacher perceptions of physical violence as serious could be symptomatic of the society we live in. Aggression and vandalism in schools tend to reflect the levels of such behaviour in the country at large (Goldstein, et al., 1984). However violence and violent acts are not merely confined to South Africa. In the United States, Neill and Rubel (1977 - cited in Goldstein 1984) have observed that aggression or vandalism has escalated in American schools in the last few years. Reports of physical assault against teachers have been recorded by Hargreaves, et al., (1975). Some children may come from chaotic environments where violence is a way of life. There may be a lack of family discipline (Reynolds, 1982). The cause of violence in school according to Goldstein et al (1984) could be the lack of firm and fair

leadership. There is a lack of research on school violence in South Africa.

Various studies have been carried out which include teacher perceptions of resisting school authority (Wickman, 1928; 1974; Laycock, 1934; Stouffer, 1952; Sparks, 1952; Hunter, 1957; Ramphal, 1978; Amos and Washington, 1960).

Many of these researchers have revealed that teachers recorded violations of school work and classroom regulations as occurring more frequently than undesirable personality traits. These studies also showed that teacher emphasis was on violations of general standards of morality and integrity, transgression against authority, violations of school and classroom regulations rather than on undesirable personality traits. Wickman's more recent (1974) study concluded that teachers' perceptions of bad behaviour was in direct relation to the impact that this behaviour has on teachers themselves and whether or not it interferes with their teaching authority. This finding is consistent with the result relating to resisting teacher authority of the present study. Tattum (1986) supported these findings. These researches in the field need to be borne in mind when analysing the present findings as the focus then shifts from the individual child to what Fry (1983) refers to as "school affect" and teacher attitudes as causative factors. Lawrence, et al (1984) point out that one of the concerns of teachers in Britain was "refusal to obey teachers".

Teachers' perceptions of resisting school authority as serious, could be attributed to any or all of the following reasons: that teachers see themselves as symbols of power in the classroom and dislike their power being challenged. Teachers involved in the power struggle would probably come from "coercive" schools (Reynolds, 1982), where teachers regard pupils as needing strong discipline. These teachers adopted

rigid methods of discipline, rather than negotiation (Finlayson and Loughran, 1976).

Teachers see themselves as perfectionists and believe that they have to control every situation that arises in the classroom, or else they will lose prestige. These teachers usually have a sense of inadequacy (Grunwald, 1964 in Goldstein et al., 1984).

Teachers' concern about pupils resisting school authority in the present study could be due to cultural factors. In Indian culture, the child is expected to be conformist, obedient and to respect authority. Ramphal (1978) in his study found that teachers prefer "compliant" pupils to "aggressive" ones.

Teachers in both ordinary and special schools did not take a serious view of disposition. In this respect, the teachers in the present study were similar to teachers of previous studies who disregarded the withdrawing type of behaviour (Wickman, 1928; Laycock, 1934; Sparks, 1952; Stouffer, 1952; Hunter, 1955; Amos and Washington, 1960; Ramphal, 1978). It would appear that in this respect, teachers in special schools do not have the same concerns as those of mental hygienists of previous studies. Often teachers are quite happy when a child is submissive and does not question authority as this presents fewer discipline problems. However, teachers ought to review their attitudes to the withdrawing type of behaviour, as these children could need psychological help. Laslett (1977) stated that the observation of quiet and withdrawn behaviour is important for the class teacher, who should assess the importance of this less obvious behaviour.

In examining the six broad categories of behaviour problems of this study, it was found that Disruptive Behaviour was not regarded in a serious light by the teachers in this study. This is contrary to previous studies (Wickman, 1928; Ramphal, 1978). Disruptive/acting-out behaviour, however does figure

prominently on variables such as age, marital status and professional experience, which will be discussed later in the study.

Teachers in both ordinary and special schools do not regard sexual behaviour as being serious. This could be due to increased knowledge on relationships and sex education programmes. It could also be due to the lack of incidence of this type of problem in the schools in this study, which were Indian primary and special schools. However, it was found that the variable of age does have a significant effect on sexual behaviour.

The category of smoking was not seen as being significant in both types of schools. The possible reasons for this could be that the sample included primary schools, where the incidence of smoking was not significant. A further reason could be that the teachers regard drug and alcohol abuse as being far more serious than smoking. However drug and alcohol abuse were not included as items in the questionnaire.

Younger teachers in both ordinary and special schools took a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour, Disposition, Resisting Authority, Sexual Behaviour and Physical Violence. With the exception of Disposition, these findings are consistent with those of Ramphal (1978); Amos and Washington (1960); Lawrence, et al., (1984).

An unusual but positive feature is that younger teachers in this study took a more serious view of disposition than older teachers. This could be attributed to the improved teacher training programmes of tertiary institutions or the perceptiveness of younger teachers. Older teachers on the other hand, as with the finding on Resisting School Authority, may not like the routine of the class disturbed.

Overseas studies reveal that teachers' definitions of disruptive behaviour is flawed. Therefore when they mention "disruptive" behaviour they refer to "any behaviour which appears problematic, inappropriate and disturbing to teachers" (Lawrence, et al., 1984).

Teachers may not be aware that when disruptive behaviour occurs, it may not necessarily be that the child is undermining the teachers' authority. Children may be immature, have fears and anxieties, or may be unprepared or lacking in skills (eg. listening, attending) to learn from the teaching experience. Children may become frustrated at school because they have not had learning experiences at home (eg. parents may not have read to the child). The teacher may wrongly assume that all children have these pre-requisite skills (Howe, 1993).

Younger teachers in both ordinary and special schools took a more serious view of a wide range of behaviour problems from disruptive behaviour to physical violence. A possible explanation is that younger teachers in their first year of teaching are usually on probation and are pressurised. In addition to having to cope with additional administrative work, they may have large classes and extra-curricular activities. Younger teachers need time to adjust to school routine and to become more flexible and mature in their attitudes. A further reason could be that the school is not providing adequate resources, in-service programmes, workshops and supervision to enable the younger teacher to cope.

Ramphal (1978) differentiated his younger teachers in terms of gender. He found that younger male and younger female teachers viewed behaviour problems in a more serious light than older male and female teachers. The present finding is consistent with many other studies as well (Hunter, 1957; Stanley, 1957; Stouffer; 1952).

Irrespective of the type of school, older teachers tend to be more tolerant towards behaviour problems than younger teachers. The present sample (see Table 1) has more older teachers in special schools. This implies therefore, that they have a more tolerant view of behaviour problems. Their tolerance may be attributed to lengthy experience, marital status or additional qualifications. They also have smaller classes as compared to teachers in ordinary schools. A further advantage is that many special schools have psychologists on the premises, unlike the ordinary schools. The lack of mental health personnel could be handicapping to staff. According to Maliphant (1977) in Dunham (1992) despite the assumed sensitivity of psychologists to the needs of teachers, contacts are often remote and inadequate.

The present study had a positive feature in that younger teachers took a more serious view of the withdrawing type of behaviour. This shows that teachers should not be underestimated regarding their perceptiveness about the seriousness of certain types of behaviour. Related to this point of view is Bower's (1957 - cited in Ramphal 1978) study involving the identification of disturbed children by teachers. The result was that teachers placed 87 percent of the group in the category "among the poorest". This group had the emotionally disturbed children. Bower therefore concluded that teacher ratings are quite reliable and that "their judgement of emotional disturbance are very much like the judgement of clinicians". However a criticism of Bower's study is that the teachers might have had prior knowledge of their pupils' examination by mental health personnel. This information might have contaminated the teachers' ratings. Nevertheless, Bower's study is of value to present and future researchers (Ramphal, 1978).

Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence could give rise to concern in other areas too. The Elton Report (DES 1989 in McManus 1991) found that teachers complained of "persistent

low level classroom disruption" and having to deal with minor discipline problems. Teachers tend to be concerned with the flow of their lessons and resent interruptions. This is understandable when one realizes that teachers have to cope with an extensive syllabus and high classroom numbers. However concern with these factors should not preclude the teacher ignoring the child who displays withdrawing recessive traits.

A further result of this finding was that younger teachers view sexual behaviour in a serious light, as compared to older teachers. This finding is inconsistent with that of Ramphal's study (1978), who found only married female teachers viewing heterosexual behaviour in a serious light. None of the clinicians in Ramphal's group considered heterosexual activity as being a serious problem. Generally teachers do not regard this problem as being particularly serious. A possible reason for the present finding could be the youth and inexperience of the teachers and perhaps their being at a loss as to how to handle the problem.

Unmarried teachers in the present study took a more serious view of disruptive behaviour than married teachers. This finding is consistent with Ramphal's (1978) findings. He found that certain types of behaviour problems were viewed in a more serious light by unmarried male and female teachers. The reason for findings such as these could be attributed to married teachers having children of their own and being more tolerant.

Teachers with less experience had a more serious view of behaviour problems as compared to teachers with many years of experience. This finding is consistent with that of Ramphal's (1978) and Wickman's (1928). Ramphal's experienced teachers were more concerned about undesirable personality traits.

There were no significant findings for the variable of teacher sex in this study. This is inconsistent with previous studies

which found that women teachers consistently rate problem behaviours as more serious than do men. (Ellis and Miller, 1936; Stanley, 1957; Ramphal, 1978). The latter found that female teachers viewed certain behaviours such as disobedience, impertinence, destroying school materials and resentfulness as being more serious than withdrawing traits. The male teachers on the other hand, were more concerned with withdrawing characteristics such as nervousness and fearfulness. Sexual behaviour was also viewed in a more serious light by females in Ramphal's study. A probable reason for the lack of significance in the present study is that women in the nineties seem better able to cope with problem behaviour than previously. Whereas disruptive behaviour would have unnerved women teachers in the past, they now appear to be more confident and capable of asserting their own strategies.

This study also revealed that older teachers in special schools took a "middle of the road" view to resisting school authority (refer to Table 24, Graph 10). This is contrary to the pattern of results of this research, whereby older teachers did not have a serious or "middle-of-the road" view of most problems. A possible explanation could be that whereas some teachers become tolerant as they grow older, others may resent any disturbance of the school routine. Another reason could be that teachers have their own beliefs about classroom management and punishment. Kaplan (1992) cites a number of investigators (Halpin, Halpin and Harris, 1982; Lunenberg and O'Reilly, 1974; McGee, 1955) as having found that teachers who profess authoritarian beliefs are likely to practise harsh or even punitive methods in the classroom. Kaplan (1992) cites Anderson (1989) as stating that the origin of these authoritarian beliefs and punitive discipline practices could be traced to childhood experience. Wright and Tuska (1967 in Kaplan 1992) hypothesized that teachers' memories of their own families might influence the decisions they make about teaching. Kaplan further cites Rosen (1968) who examined prospective teachers' recollections of their "childhood selves"

and found that individuals who recalled a sense of self esteem and strongly positive experiences as children were more likely to establish positive relationships with their students. Kaplan's study (1992) showed that individuals selecting punitive strategies were more likely to report that they were punished first by their parents without being asked about the circumstances. They were prohibited from questioning parental authority as opposed to those individuals who selected non-punitive strategies. Furthermore those who selected punitive strategies were significantly more likely to report higher instances of a variety of punishments including physical punishment after the age of twelve.

However, Kaplan warns of the limitation of his study, because certain variables were not controlled for eg. to what extent are adults' recollections of their socialization experiences systematically distorted by their present beliefs about children and discipline? To what extent does one's personality influence the ways in which they were disciplined as a child on one hand and the disciplinary strategies they might select as an adult on the other?

Notwithstanding these limitations, Kaplan's study is significant because it adds an important dimension to the present study. It is possible that the respondents were influenced when making their responses by the child rearing methods that were used on them. Perhaps this is a variable that could be considered in future research.

The findings of this study differ from that of Ramphal's (1978) in respect of the following variables: there was no significance for teacher sex, academic and professional qualifications. The findings of this study are consistent with that of Ramphal's in the following areas: teachers in ordinary schools took a more serious view of Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence than withdrawing behaviour; younger teachers took a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour,

Resisting Authority and Physical Violence than older teachers; unmarried teachers took a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour than married teachers and teachers with less Professional Experience took a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour and Resisting School Authority than teachers with high experience.

The correlation of the present study was done by applying the Pearson r Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. The correlation arrived at was 0.93. This high correlation shows that teachers in ordinary schools have remarkably similar attitudes to those of teachers in special schools. The correlation of Wickman's (1928) teachers and mental hygienists was 0.11 and Ramphal's (1978) teachers and mental hygienists was 0.36.

The present high correlation could be due to the homogeneity of the sample. Teachers were being compared with teachers and not with mental hygienists. Another reason could be improved teacher training courses and that teachers in this sample were fairly highly qualified. It is assumed that more mental health personnel are available for referrals than previously and that present teachers are coping more effectively than previous teachers in classroom management. It has been recommended by the Elton Report (1989) in McManus 1991 that teacher training courses should include "practical training in how to manage pupil behaviour". It is noteworthy that the statement mentioned "managing behaviour" rather than "controlling pupils". The more recent term could signify a change in teachers' attitudes to problem behaviour in schools (Docking, 1993).

In summary, the findings of this study strongly support the findings of other studies which showed that teachers in ordinary schools took a more serious view of Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence than Disposition (Wickman, 1928; 1974; Ramphal, 1978) among others.

This study showed that younger teachers in ordinary and special schools took a more serious view of Disruptive Behaviour, Disposition, Resisting Authority, Sexual Behaviour and Physical Violence than older teachers. Some of the reasons were that teachers could be inexperienced and perhaps under pressure. Married teachers saw Disruptive Behaviour in a serious light and teachers in both ordinary and special schools with less professional experience saw Disruptive Behaviour and Resisting School Authority in a serious light. Teachers of high experience in special schools took a "middle of the road" view of Resisting School Authority. Their counterparts in ordinary schools took a fairly similar view. Possible reasons were that teachers disliked any disruption of the classroom routine or possibly their parents' child rearing practices were authoritarian.

Finally, the high correlation of 0.93 of attitudes between teachers in ordinary and special schools shows that teachers do have a certain degree of agreement. Wickman's and Ramphal's correlations of 0.11 and 0.36 respectively were far lower than the present one. A possible explanation for the present figure could be an improved teacher training programme; teachers are showing more interest in psychological concerns than previously and the high level of teacher qualifications in this sample and in general.

CHAPTER SIXCONCLUSION6.1 Introduction

This study was aimed at examining the attitudes of teachers in ordinary and special schools. This research was prompted by earlier studies done by Wickman (1928) and Ramphal (1978) which showed that teachers took a serious view of aggressive acting-out behaviour and any disruption or violation of classroom regulations. The teachers in these studies did not take a serious view of the withdrawing type of behaviour. The clinicians or mental hygienists took a fairly serious view of this type of behaviour. It was envisaged that the teachers in special schools would take a similar view as the mental hygienists of previous studies.

The findings, however, were quite varied. They showed that the teachers in both ordinary and special schools were remarkably similar in their attitudes. The findings revealed that teachers in ordinary schools took a more serious view of certain types of problems than teachers in special schools. Further, younger teachers took a more serious view of certain types of problems than older teachers in both types of schools.

Teachers with high professional experience in special schools had a similar view of Resisting School Authority as those in ordinary schools. They adopted a "middle of the road" approach. This was an unusual finding for this study, as teachers in special schools generally did not have a serious view of much of the problem behaviour. Perhaps the reason for this unusual finding is that older teachers dislike any disruption of the school routine.

This study was similar to studies which were conducted many years ago by different researchers. The results were similar

in respect of teacher age as younger teachers in both ordinary and special settings took a more serious view of behaviour problems than older ones. The other area of similarity was that the teachers of this study as the teachers of previous studies, did not take a serious view of the withdrawing type of behaviour.

Certain questions arise from these findings. Could it be that teachers' attitudes of sixty eight years ago have not changed much from the attitudes of present teachers?

This chapter examines the implications of the study undertaken, examines some of its limitations and presents recommendations for future research.

6.2 Implications of the Study

One of the findings of this study was that teachers in ordinary schools saw Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence in a serious light. In this respect, they showed some similarity to previous researchers (Wickman 1928, Ramphal 1978). The implication of this finding is that a closer look should be taken at the discipline problems experienced by teachers in primary schools. Since primary schools do not have counsellors, they may have to cope with various difficult problems. As stated earlier, contacts with psychologists may be few and far between and teachers may be very reluctant to seek help from fellow staff members.

Disruptive Behaviour was seen in a serious light by younger unmarried teachers with less professional experience in both ordinary and special schools. A closer examination of Disruptive Behaviour leads one to conclude that many teachers view discipline as a problem in isolation, separately from the learning and teaching process. It is also assumed that there is a consensus on behaviour judged to be deviant. However this

is not the case (Daniels and Corrie, 1993). The Elton Report (1989) concluded that disruptive behaviour was caused by teacher acts which were seen as being inconsistent. The report stated that "the central problem of disruption could be significantly reduced by helping teachers to become effective classroom managers." The implication is that teachers need to view discipline in conjunction with the learning process.

Teachers in ordinary and special schools did not view Disposition in a serious light. This is a matter of some concern, as teachers may be ignoring real problems. The implication is that teachers should be made aware of the importance of identifying such problems and trying to assist the child by making appropriate referrals. Teachers ought to show interest not only in structured classroom activities, but in the individual child as well.

Teachers may not be aware that many school problems may be indirectly caused through their attitudes (Sharp and Green, 1975; Fry, 1983). It therefore becomes necessary to be more aware of themselves and their interactions with their pupils. This can be done through workshops, seminars and planned case conferences with the team approach. It is very important for schools to enlist the help of psychologists in relevant areas.

Teachers may seek to improve their teaching styles and methods in order to avoid disruptive behaviour in the classroom. Mortimore, et al., (1988) speak of the correlation between good behaviour and a "work-centred" environment. Saunders (1979) cites Richard Church as providing some insight as to how pupils become bored during lessons, in his book "Over the Bridge" where he mentioned "interminable hand-writing lessons". John Holt (1982) in "How Children Fail" speaks of the majority of children in his study who paid little or no attention during questioning or discussion, "Some daydreamed, others wrote and passed notes" (Saunders, 1979). Such insights as provided by

Holt and Church have a future implication. Teachers could be motivated to make their lessons more interesting.

Teachers in special schools had similar views to those of clinicians in previous studies only in certain respects. These were that, overall, they took a less serious view of Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence. Since the sample consisted of teachers in special schools who were older, it therefore follows that they took a less serious view of Disruptive Behaviour, Resisting School Authority, Sexual Behaviour and Physical Violence than younger teachers. In addition to being older, teachers in special schools had higher additional qualifications. Although one could argue that teachers in special schools hold such views because they may not encounter many of these problems in their schools, their attitudes are nevertheless important for the future. Bearing in mind, the controversy pertaining to special schools, the financial constraints in the Education Budget, one has to nevertheless concede that special education services, irrespective of race group, have proved to be invaluable and worthwhile. There are certain categories of children who cannot be housed in mainstream, for example, the deaf, blind, severely mentally retarded among others. The implication for the future is that special schools should be retained as their personnel have the expertise and knowledge to run them successfully. This researcher was particularly impressed with the high standard maintained in the Indian special schools in her survey. Activities in special schools should not go unnoticed and need to be publicized more widely. Teachers and psychologists in special schools could share their expertise with others. Dunham (1992) cites Krasner (1969) as stating that techniques such as behaviour modification could be used quite successfully with pupils in the ordinary school.

A further significant finding of this study which has important implications for the future is the recurring variable of Teacher Age for Disruptive Behaviour, Resisting School

Authority, Sexual Behaviour and Physical Violence. One may well ask why younger teachers experience considerable difficulty in coping with such problems. Relevant here are studies on teacher stress (Garbharran, 1990; Harrison, 1992) which clearly indicate that teacher stress levels in this country are high. Teachers are reluctant to ask for assistance as they might be considered inefficient. Dunham (1983) states that if increasing pressures go beyond a person's coping resources, they lead to "high levels of anxiety, poor concentration and memory and impaired ability to make decisions". A further aspect to consider is that perhaps the younger teachers are not receiving adequate supervision and support during their initial teaching years. This in fact, seems quite likely in view of the limited number of management staff and high number of level one teachers. Schools should be aware of the increasing pressure on staff and provide coping resources rather than being overly critical.

Younger staff in any school, be it ordinary or special, often feel alienated because of the tendency of the principal to consult only his management staff in decision-making. Dunham (1983) in his study of stress in special schools found that staff become "edgy and irritable" when this happened. Management staff must involve the rest of the staff in decision-making and planning. The implication is that management should make teachers feel that they are a part of the team. Stress-reduction programmes should be held.

Younger teachers take a more serious view of sexual behaviour than older ones. Teachers in both ordinary and special schools may need help in handling of sexual behaviour problems. Mortimore, et al., (1988) argue that the teacher should be the primary support. Sex education programmes by qualified personnel should be held more frequently in schools.

A remarkable congruence exists in the attitudes of teachers in ordinary and special schools to behaviour problems. This

congruence could be attributed to the fact that all teachers in this sample were fairly highly qualified as compared to teachers in previous studies who had lesser qualifications (Ramphal, 1978). A positive implication is that teachers in ordinary schools who may not be as highly qualified as those in special schools, do seem to hold similar attitudes.

The overall implication of this study is that caution should be exercised by teachers or mental health personnel when pronouncing a child to be "emotionally disturbed". Inasmuch we acknowledge that a child may need help, it is also imperative to identify that a teacher may need help in coping with disruptive behaviour and discipline problems. Teaching is regarded as a high-risk occupation with associated high stress levels.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of this study was that the sample size of the pilot study was too small ($n = 12$). Although certain items were explained as a result of the pilot study (see Chapter Three) the researcher is of the view that the instrument could have been further refined had there been a larger sample.

The return percentage of this particular study was 77. Although this may be considered as fairly reasonable, the researcher expected a higher return of material. A larger sample would have been more authoritative for the purpose of this research.

A constraint of this study was the generalizability of the findings. The sample was limited to Indian teachers in ordinary and special schools. These teachers are largely from middle class backgrounds. Their responses would have been influenced by people within their environment. The findings

therefore are pertinent to these respondents; one must be cautious when comparing the responses of these teachers to other teachers from different backgrounds.

The homogeneity of the sample was a limitation as all the respondents were Indian. A cross-cultural sample would have been more representative of the different groups in this country.

A further limitation of this study was that the respondents were very reluctant to fill in their personal details. Such information was voluntary. The lack of significance for language and religion could be attributed to the paucity of information. There are many ethnic and religious differences in the Indian community, however this was not indicated. Teachers from a particular cultural milieu may have had different responses.

The instrument used in this study was Wickman's Rating Scale. It was devised in 1926 by Wickman himself. Although the instrument is reliable, the researcher is of the opinion that current problems (such as drug, child and alcohol abuse and drug trafficking) among others, could have been included in the questionnaire. A more comprehensive and current list of behaviour problems would have yielded more information in this study.

A possible limitation is that the respondents did not treat the task of answering the questionnaire seriously. Although they were instructed not to discuss anything with their colleagues, some of them did so, as this task was performed during break time. This is a common criticism of questionnaire methodology and may be applicable to other studies as well.

The restricted sample may be a limitation. This study involved teachers only in a limited number of ordinary and special

schools. It did not include the attitudes of mental hygienists, parents or pupils.

Despite the limitations of the study, it is noted that the findings are generally consistent with those of other researchers. This data may be of value not only to the population under investigation, but for further research in the field.

6.4 Recommendations for Future Research

The lack of generalizability of the findings suggest that further investigations need to be carried out among the different cultural, religious and socio economic groups in South Africa.

Future researchers may consider cross-cultural samples.

Since some children who display problems at school may not be disruptive at home, it would be interesting to compare the attitudes of parents as well as teachers. This was done by Rutter (1970) and Kaufman, Wood and Swan (1981) with interesting results. Parents and teachers don't always agree on what they consider to be serious behaviour problems.

Various researchers have examined pupil attitudes to teachers. They are Woods (1979), Ziv (1970 and Cronk (1987) among others. It is therefore suggested that further research takes pupils' views into account.

Future researchers may improve on the present Wickman Rating Scale by making it more current.

The size of the sample (both pilot study and the present sample) should be increased to make the findings more authoritative.

Instruments other than the questionnaire may be considered. Some other methods may be open-ended interviews, tape-recorders, check-lists, among others.

It is also recommended that researchers reassure respondents as to anonymity and stress the importance of completing all biographic details.

Future researchers may find it useful to investigate behaviour in the classroom by means of direct observation. Longitudinal studies of this nature may prove useful.

In addition to the usual biographical data, which are used as variables in research, one could add the variable of type of child-rearing practice. This possibility arises because of research in this field, as cited by Kaplan (1992): Wright and Tuska (1967); Rosen and Kaplan, (1968); Albertson and Kagan (1988) which attempts to show that good relationships in childhood do affect later relationships and disciplinary strategies. The authoritarian beliefs of individuals may influence their present attitudes; it would therefore be worthwhile to trace the origins of such beliefs.

Disruptive behaviour was viewed seriously by younger teachers in both ordinary and special schools. Goldstein (1984) cites the following writers as showing that disruptive behaviour may be due to school disaffection (Sennet and Cobb, 1977; Fuller, 1983; Furlong, 1984 and Walker, 1988). There is a shift (as stated earlier in this study) from focussing on the individual to the school environment. It would therefore be particularly useful for future researchers in South Africa to examine the consequences of school affect, rather than focussing on the individual child.

6.5 Conclusion

This study revealed that teachers in ordinary and special schools had similar views to certain behaviour problems. This can be interpreted positively, as it indicates that although teachers in ordinary schools have larger classes and are not as highly qualified as those in special schools, their attitudes are not dissimilar.

Yet another positive feature of this research was that younger teachers take a more serious view of the withdrawing type of behaviour, as compared to older teachers. In this aspect, younger teachers are perceptive in their views of problem behaviour.

The research also indicated a problem area, whereby younger teachers had significantly more serious views of certain behaviour problems than older teachers. This tends to create a need for a stronger support system for all teachers within the school system.

Lastly, this research has consolidated the findings of previous researchers such as Wickman (1928; 1974), Ramphal (1978) and Laycock (1934). It revealed that teachers in ordinary schools take a more serious view of Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence than the withdrawing type of behaviour. Teachers in special schools took a less serious view of the three behaviour categories mentioned. For the purpose of this study, teachers in special schools were regarded in the same category as mental hygienists (psychiatrists, psychologists and social workers). This study showed that in the behaviour categories of Resisting School Authority and Physical Violence, teachers in special schools did have similar views to the mental hygienists of previous studies. However since they did not regard the withdrawing type of behaviour as being significant, their attitudes in this aspect are similar to those of the teachers in ordinary schools.

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APPENDICES

Copy

HOE 1

Republic of South Africa
Republiek van Suid-Afrika

Despatched on 99/05/16.

ADMINISTRATION: HOUSE OF DELEGATES
ADMINISTRASIE: RAAD VAN AFGEVAARDIGDESDepartment of Education and Culture
Departement van Onderwys en Kultuur

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Truro House
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Private Bag X54323
Privaatsak X54323
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4000Ref. No.
Verw. No.

A 10/29/2/11

Enquiries
Navrae

H. Rambehari

1993-07-26

Mrs S. Laloo
62 Bodmin Road
Allandale
PIETERMARITZBURG
3201

Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS
Your letters dated 1993-05-10 and 1993-06-22 have reference.

1. Permission is hereby granted to you to conduct your research at the 10 schools indicated in your letter provided that :
 - 1.1 prior arrangements are made with the principals concerned;
 - 1.2 participation in the research by teachers is on a voluntary basis;
 - 1.3 completion of questionnaires is done outside normal teaching time; and
 - 1.4 all information pertaining to educators is treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only.
2. Kindly produce a copy of this letter when visiting/approaching schools.
3. The Department wishes you every success in your research and looks forward to receiving a copy of the findings.

Yours faithfully

H. RAMBEHARI

DEPUTY DIRECTOR-GENERAL
930831/abh/rn

APPENDIX TWO

ATTITUDES TOWARD BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS

NAME :

SCHOOL :

NO. OF COMPLETED YEARS IN TEACHING PROFESSION :

AGE : YEARS : COMPLETED MONTHS :

HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS : ACADEMIC : PROFESSIONAL :

RELIGION : LINGUISTIC GROUP : SEX :

MARITAL STATUS :

TO BE FILLED IN BY TEACHERS

The aims of this study is to ascertain the seriousness with which teachers view certain behaviour problems of children.

On the accompanying sheets are listed 51 behaviour problems which are applicable to both boys and girls.

You are requested to indicate in each case the degree of seriousness with which you regard the problem, ranging from "of no consequence" at one extreme to "an extremely grave problem" at the other, by placing a cross in any one of the seven spaces provided against each problem to indicate your judgment, remembering that as you move from the left hand side to the right hand side of each scale (1 - 7) you are indicating greater and greater concern about the disorder.

Examples

1. The following indicates that the respondent has a "middle-of-the-road" view of the problem:-

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Of No Consequence				X				An Extremely Grave Problem

2. The following indicates that the respondent regards the problem in a serious light:-

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Of No Consequence						X		An Extremely Grave Problem

3. The following indicates that the respondent does not regard the problem as serious but yet would not dismiss it entirely:-

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Of No Consequence		X						An Extremely Grave Problem

4. The following indicates that the respondent regards the problem with the utmost seriousness:-

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Of No Consequence							X	An Extremely Grave Problem

5. The following indicates that the respondent regards the disorder as being of no significance whatsoever:-

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Of No Consequence	X							An Extremely Grave Problem

Now proceed in the same manner with the rest of the items.

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. We are interested only in your considered opinions.

Please do not discuss possible answers with other members of the staff.

No marks must be made on this sheet.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS

Behaviour Problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tardiness (slowness, sluggishness)							
Truancy							
Destroying school materials							
Untruthfulness (Lying).							
Imaginative lying							
Cheating							
Stealing							
Profanity (irreverence, blasphemy)							
Smoking							
Obscene notes, pictures, talk							
Masturbation							
Heterosexual activity							
Whispering and note-writing							
Interrupting (Talkativeness)							
Restlessness (Overactivity)							
Inattention							
Lack of interest in work							
Carelessness in work							

Laziness									
Unreliableness (Irresponsible)									
Disobedience									
Impertinence (Defiance)									
Cruelty and bullying									
Quarrelsomeness									
Tale-carrying, gossiping									
Stubbornness									
Sullenness (Sulkiness)									
Temper Tantrums									
Impudence, impoliteness, rudeness									
Selfishness (and unsportsmanly)									
Domineering, overbearing									
Shyness, bashfulness									
Sensitiveness									
Unsocial, withdrawing									
Overcritical of others									
Thoughtlessness (Forgetting)									
Inquisitiveness									

Silliness, attracting attention							
Unhappy, depressed, dissatisfied							
Resentful							
Nervousness							
Fearfulness (Easily frightened)							
Enuresis (Bed-wetting)							
Dreaminess							
Slovenly in personal appearance (Untidy, careless, lazy)							
Suspiciousness							
Physical coward							
Easily discouraged							
Disorderliness							
Suggestible (Someone who is easily influenced by others)							
Homosexual activity (Having an inclin- ation towards others with person of own sex)							

Hillgrove Secondary School

HILLGROVE DRIVE HILLGROVE NEWLANDS WEST 4051

P.O. BOX 76005
MARBLERAY 4035
☎ 5785761



REF:

24 - 03 - 1994

THE CHAIRMAN
BOARD OF MANAGEMENT

Sir / Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL :

I am presently engaged in a Masters dissertation in Educational Psychology at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg.

In my dissertation , I intend comparing attitudes of teachers in ordinary schools to those of teachers in special schools.

I have obtained permission from the Department of Education and Culture to conduct the research in 10 schools, your school being one of them. (attached please find a copy of their letter).

I would appreciate it if this matter is discussed with your Board of Management at its next meeting. Kindly inform me of the outcome by telephoning me at either 5785761(work) or 874622 (home).

I thank you for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully

S. LALLOO

FORWARDED :

PRINCIPAL (S. Lalloo)