THE NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM


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# ABSTRACT

The thesis presents empirical studies and reviews that support a shift from traditional classroom practices in the Primary school to those based in a teacher-child partnership developed through negotiation. The opening Chapter looks at the ontology of the contemporary classroom of the Primary school. It holds that reasons for the presence of largely directive practices can be found in teachers background and training and in society's dependent model of childhood. This focus is continued in Chapter Two in respect to research into motivational processes.

Chapter Three presents two empirical studies looking at the nature of the directive classroom and the types of strategies that children use to cope with this phenomena.

In Chapter Four negotiation is examined across a variety of domains, developing in Chapter Five a model of a negotiating classroom and examining the extent to which it can be said that children negotiate.

Chapter Six presents three studies concerned with children's negotiating behaviour, the detailed nature of child-teacher classroom negotiating interaction and a sociometric perspective examining how children prefer to organize themselves. Study Six presents transcripts of negotiations between teacher and child with interpretive commentary.

Chapter Seven follows a class examining the effects

on children's academic performance while moving from a directive to a negotiating environment.

Chapter Eight presents a study combining three classroom components to create eight classroom environments. It highlights poor independent teacher-child agreement on the elements within the classroom organization that produce the best / worst match on different criteria. It also outlines data indicating poor agreement between In-situ and later questionnaire data collection methods.

Chapter Nine suggests that individuality of the child is a persistent theme throughout, particularly in types of curricular interaction and behaviour and that a movement is needed toward developing the negotiating philosophy into traditional classrooms.

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# CHAPTER 1:

## THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONTEMPORARY PRIMARY CLASSROOM

### 1.1. INTRODUCTION.

In this opening chapter, a number of broad themes will be treated, as a backcloth for the more specific issues of subsequent chapters. These themes include:

1) The historical development of institutionalized education and the concept of 'classrooms'.

2) The dominance of the structuralist / functional model of society and the positivist model adopted by educational research.

3) Typologies of classrooms offered by educational research.

4) The 'transmission' model of acquiring knowledge.

5) The prevalence of a dependent model of childhood which accordingly views children as dependent learners and the variety of processes that support this perspective across different educational areas.

### 1.2. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INSTITUTIONALIZED EDUCATION

The 1870 Education Act in this country which introduced compulsory education for the Infant, Junior and Senior years also introduced the concept of 'basic education'. Professor T.H.Huxley chaired the first school board meeting to develop the curriculum that would constitute this 'basic education' and in 1871 the board accepted the following components:

a) <u>Infants:</u>

1. The bible and the principles of religion and morality.

2. Reading, writing and arithmetic.

3. Exercises of hand and eye.

4. Music and drill.


b) <u>Junior and Senior Years:</u>

1. The bible and principles of religion and morality.

2. Reading, writing and arithmetic.

3. Principles of book keeping for senior boys.

4. Elementary instruction in physical science.

5. The history of England.

6. Elementary geography.

The organization of this curriculum was basically the same as today with morning and afternoon periods interspersed with play and lunch breaks. The physical organization of the classrooms consisted of large numbers of children seated in rows facing the teacher (Maclure 1970).

Both explicitly and implicitly the 1870 view of education implied values that still dominate current primary practice. These are:

1. There exists a limited, finite, socially defined content of education that children must experience.

2. This content is to be transmitted to children.

3. The transmission model of knowledge is best carried out by adults who structure its nature and content.

4. Children implicitly must behave passively to receive this knowledge.

It is only a small step to the next level of implied values or beliefs.    The first of these is that education for certain age groups in society should be by older teachers aware of the 'necessary structure' of educational content.

This belief has automatically placed children in a perceptual-cognitive framework of educational dependency on such elders.    It has lent support to models of classroom organization that function on a non-reciprocal teacher child interaction (cf. Bennett's, 1976, 'formal methodology').    This non-reciprocity further acts to drive attention away from consideration of other viable organizational strategies which might more directly involve the child.

A second belief relates to the bureaucratic hierarchical and bureaucratic organization of schools.

This too has fostered a submissive view of the child. In addition, however, it has extended the dependency concept to include teachers themselves, who are now seen as being submissive to and dependent on those higher in the hierarchy. Accountability with its related pressures places real institutional restraints on any teacher's consideration of models of classroom organization other than the formal transmission model.

A third belief relates to decisions about educational content.

The teacher's freedom to change practice and content in the classroom is limited by the demands of National, L.E.A., and school policy documents on curricular

content. The social and institutional pressures arising from these policies are so great that teachers spend considerable time both inside and outside the classroom simply attempting to cope with their demands. Bellack (1966) indicated how teachers' plans to offer the children certain experiences at the strategic level were drastically distorted by the press of classroom factors and external demands on the teacher. This allows little time for consideration of alternative models of interaction with the children, and acts to support the formal, directive model that still dominates primary practice (Galton, 1987 a).

A fourth belief about the educational process concerns the organization of school time. Historically, the four period day (Maclure, 1970) with each period divided by a playtime or lunchtime, has acted to support the formal method of instruction and conceptualization of teaching. This is because the shortness of each educational period places a considerable structural limitation on the types of interactive approaches teacher's feel they can develop. This historical division of the school day was to allow different curricular areas to be taught in each period with more 'difficult' subjects, such as mathematics in the morning and 'easier' such as art, in the afternoon. The survival of this attitude is still observable in schools today; as a teacher recently remarked, "We do mathematics in the morning, every day, as the children are fresher then". A brief look at the paper timetables of classes in contemporary schools still sees the

dominance of this four-period day with different
curricular areas allocated to different and distinct
periods.

This four way division of the school day has further
acted to frame the teacher's perspective on curricular
delivery in terms of distinct curricular units linked to
that structure of the day. Moreover, it is extremely
difficult with the intervention of assemblies, playtimes
and lunchtime to encourage an organization of the
classroom which allows children to develop their interests
into extended activities. It is also interesting to note
the types of social and institutional pressure placed on
teachers who attempt to go against these divisions of the
day. When allowing children to work across these breaks,
the present author has often experienced comments from
other teachers complaining that a precedent is being set
in that other children were complaining they also were
not allowed to stay in, and that this was causing
problems in getting children out to play. (cf. Goffman's
(1968) concept of secondary adjustments).

A fifth belief relates to the physical layout of
schools and classrooms. Historically, the physical
layout of the classroom has been designed to support
formal, directive methods of instruction. The original
seating was based on group instruction methods with
children working individually. This has still been
observed to be the case in current primary practice.
Thus, Galton (1987 a) reported that while children now
appeared to sit in collaborative working groups of five

or six, the main interactions between children and teacher were still on an individual basis, with little evidence of collaborative group work. It appears then that the very nature of the classroom and the number of children can act to limit the types of organization structures teachers are willing to attempt. Such demands are handled by many teachers, by changing the outward physical appearance of the classroom to group seating rather than rows of desks but never the less largely retaining the formal methods of an earlier historical period. Within this coping strategy the teacher has little time to consider alternative methods of classroom organization which might be more child centred.

We see, then, within the development of the historical perspective, the perpetuation of the Directive Classroom. Directive or dependent classrooms in this study are held to be those that are teacher controlled environments with little room for development of children's own interests (Barker Lunn, 1970), dominated by repetitive and mechanical tasks directed at children (Desforges and Cockburn, 1987), of undemanding tasks again based on teacher direction (Galton, 1987 a), with teachers carrying out most of the actual classroom work (Holmes, 1984) and within which children play mainly a passive, dependent role, dominated by a transmission model of knowledge.

In sum, the original structuring and conceptualization of compulsory education, while not entirely responsible for the continued domination of the formal, directive

methods, has played a key part in maintaining their facilitation and the suppression and neglect of alternative child-centred models of classroom organization.

## 1.3 PHILOSOPHICAL AND RESEARCH POSITIONS LEADING TO NEGLECT OF CHILD-CENTRED MODELS OF CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION.

In general terms, the 'science' method and the positivist perspective that supports it has acted to inhibit consideration of the more humanitarian element in research involving children. This development of an anti-humanitarian position has been supported by two factors. These are the historical emergence of a distinction between the normal and philosophical components of theory, and the link between positivism and educational research.

Paul Feyerabend (1970) distinguishes between the normal and philosophical components of science and scientific theory.

The normative component is that which is directed by the institutions of society; schools, churches and the state. These together could be called the directors of social consciousness. The normality of the position that has developed is that current scientific methods and values that are inherent within the positivist model dictate ways of carrying out research. This development has superseded Feyerabend's philosophical component which emphasizes consideration of alternative methods and views. The consequences for educational research has

been dominance of the positivist position. This
dominance has naturally acted to emphasise
methodologies heavily quantitative in nature. It has also
acted to undermine education's own philosophical
consideration of the value of alternative, more
qualitative methods. The unfortunate consequence has
been to weaken the role of the individual and concepts
such as subjectivity, thought and cognition from classroom
studies together with any place for consideration of the
'humanness' of children. Mimicking of the methods of
physical science is heavily ingrained in educational
research (Kaplan, 1964). Within this perspective the
individuality of the child disappears in the aggregating
process of means and trends.

The supremacy of educational research and theory of
quantitative methods applied from the positivist
perspective has supported research designs that not only
fail to consider the uniqueness of the child but also the
child's active presence within the classroom.

All of these methodologies; survey methods,
questionnaire and classroom observation schedules, have
assumed a view of the child in the classroom as passive
and limited in role and promoted attention to the
teachers role behaviour. The continuing ascendancy
of this view is still evident in the journals and on
many courses of psychology and education (Pope and
Gilbert, 1987). The continued ascendancy of the
quantitative method lays partly with the ease that its
developed methodological tools (questionnaire, sampling,

and time related behavioural observation schedules) provide for rapid data collection and generalizable data interpretation.

### 1.3.1 Alternative Approaches

In reaction to the domination of quantitative methods, some researchers have attempted to develop positions that are more able to include consideration of the unique and active nature of the child. Included in these approaches are methodologies which are part of the perspectives of interactionalism, phenomenology and ethnography (Hargreaves, 1978). These fall under the general heading of micro-approaches (Barton et al. 1978).

The interactionalist perspective is illustrated in the work of Herbert Blummer and the Symbolic Interactionalist school of Chicago (Hargreaves, 1978), following Dewey and Mead (Jacob, 1987). It is a position consistent with a child-centred / child-involving model and emphasizes the following principles:

1. that the individual's experiences are mediated by his or her own interpretation of experience (Jacob, 1987)

2. that researchers need to adopt a humanistic liberalism in their research in order to address events from the individual's point of view.

3. that the child should be seen in terms of his or her active human nature.

4. that there is a need to develop research concepts and a language framework within social research that aids analysis in a form that has meaning to the individual and

the researcher.

The importance of the interactionalist position is that it offers a perspective that allows representation of the child as an active human agent and emphasizes the humanness of the child and its actions in the classroom. Interactionalism introduces criticisms and questions of validity for process-product and transmission of knowledge models of the classroom and its processes.

The pedagogical interactionalist position (Prucha, 1986) holds that children and teachers act together to create a classroom environment, through a process of mutual influence. In its emphasis on a bi-directional causal relationship between teachers and children, it places criticism on the uni-directional model espoused by the positivist and reductionist perspectives of classroom processes (Mares, 1984). Support for the reciprocity effect between teacher and children is found in Worrall et al. (1988) who review a range of studies that have observed reciprocity effects in a variety of environments. Their classroom study identifies a range of intervening variables such as gender, ability and classroom differences as influential.

Further support for the reciprocity of causality effect to be found in the interactionist position, can be observed in Feyerabend's concept of tenacity in current research positions: that researchers will hold on to a perspective even when it encounters difficulties.

Indeed, in educational research, in spite of all the data and continuous everyday experiences of observing the

active role that children play in the construction of classroom events and processes, many researchers still observe classrooms from methodological positions that give little consideration to the child's active role.

The ethnographic tradition has much to offer in this approach, for like interactionalism, it focuses specifically on the actions of individuals and the effects they have on classroom processes. The particular concern of the ethnographic approach, to focus on the natural setting via participant observation and using the constructs of the actors already present, highlights the individual's role within the classroom. As such it draws attention to the active nature of children within the classroom environment and their effects on the creation and maintenance of processes such as reciprocity (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982).

## 1.4. RESEARCH TYPOLOGIES OF CLASSROOMS

A response to 'state of the art' studies such as Bennett's (1976) 'Teaching and Pupil Progress', has been to create a style within classroom research concentrated on measuring and classifying classrooms along a Bennett-type continuum of formality-informality. The presence or absence of nominated indicators is used to place a given classroom on this continuum. The normative consequence that this approach has created, has been to direct teachers and researchers towards locating classrooms somewhere along this continuum and to highlight research designs and applications which take to this perspective

(Diamond, 1987).

The use of the classificatory perspective has limited research and debate to this particular model of classrooms, to the detriment of other perspectives. By developing research designs that spend a great deal of time measuring, identifying and discussing the elements that do or do not make up 'formal - informal' or 'open-closed' or 'directive-progressive' perspectives, attention is directed away from alternative concept realizations. Conceptualizations of classroom organization such as negotiated curricula do not fit into such a normative view of classroom research and organization and therefore receive little consideration. Many teachers still consider their classrooms within a normative framework; "you let children do what they like, I'm not so progressive" or "I've been teaching for years, I'm very formal", (statements by colleagues which emphasise this view). The general currency of this line of thinking has led to the failure of many teachers even to consider alternative models of classroom organization.

The degree of influence on classroom research of this classifying perspective is underlined by Horwitz's (1979) review of the literature which found over two hundred such 'classificatory' research studies. Horwitz's major criticism was that these studies confused the elements that were supposed to make up each distinct classroom type along the continuum. However a more fundamental point is that the perspective has dominated so many studies of classroom organization that alternative

models have had difficulty being heard.

However, the present critique should not be seen as an attempt to damn the classificatory approach outright. The approach has developed a variety of concepts that offer a useful insight into child self determination in the classroom. Examples are the role of the child as submissive or active, theories of teacher power bases (Tauber, 1985), design of classroom tasks (Neisser, 1976), the role of the teacher (Holmes, 1984) and the concept of coping strategies (Bowles and Gintis (1976) and Doyle (1979). All have much to offer within alternative frameworks of classroom processes.

### 1.4.1 Alternative Views

The pervasive influence of the classifying research model is indicated by its effects on so-called 'alternative' perspectives of classroom organization in the literature. Concepts such as self-direction (Thomas et al. 1988), self control (Mclauglin, 1976) and self-monitoring (Sagotsky et al. 1978) are still referred back to or contain implicit elements linked in particular to the normative perspective. For example, Mclauglin (1976) points out that the term self control, like negotiation, has a broad and diverse use. Application of the concept is typified in a study by Broden et al. (1971), where pupils marked a plus or minus on a report card at given times to indicate if they felt they were on task. This study like others was carried out in established classrooms, with the occasion being defined

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by the teacher and experimenter and involving little input by the child. In the Broden study, therefore, the application of the self concept still fits within a formal - informal structured classroom defined totally by adults.

Allowing children to use self-direction of abilities in the classroom is a further approach held to produce basic changes in classroom models (Thomas et al 1988). However, the point must be emphasized that children's behaviour and strategies within any pre-structured classroom where self-direction is being evaluated will be directly influenced by the very structures already present within the environment. The children's strategies far from developing new forms of classroom process will be limited and moulded by the prevailing ethos to fit the existing classroom. This is exemplified in cases where children may wish to move towards a more practical experience of mathematics but the presence of a whole school mathematics scheme dictates to a large extent their mathematical experience.

## 1.5. DOMINANCE OF THE TRANSMISSION MODEL OF KNOWLEDGE.

A further restraint on consideration of alternative classroom models is to be found in the prevailing model of classroom learning - the 'transmission of knowledge' model.

The implicit premise of this model is that knowledge can be transmitted from one individual to another without the need for either direct first-hand experiences or for an active constructive role on the part of the receiver.

Within this model the notion of experiential knowledge (Rogers et al. 1969) therefore has little importance. Instead, the major features of (transmittable) knowledge (or traditional knowledge, Stephenson, 1980) are held to be its ability to be acquired, stored, classified and replicated when the occasion demands. It is this view of knowledge that forms the basis of the principles underlying the prescribed curriculum of many schools and in particular the organization of the National Curriculum. The transmitted knowledge model is heavily dependent upon the view that, rather like building a house, one lays the foundation and works upwards. In place of the bricks are units of ascribed knowledge and the role of builder is given to the teacher.

The interpretation of such a model in the classroom consists of class-based books and schemes, common assignments and standardised tests. Two facets of this view of knowledge found in primary practice are the concepts of 'knowing that' and 'knowing how' (Broudy, 1977). Both these elements can come in pre-packaged and easily transmittable forms such as schemes of work or structured assignments as commonly found in primary classrooms (Bennett et al. 1984).

The major criticism of this transmission model of knowledge is that it places the child in a passive role. Implicitly assumed is that 'delivery' by the teacher of the ascribed units of knowledge can be equated with reception and learning by the child. In this process the

child has only to be 'active' as a receiver of the units of knowledge transmitted.

### 1.5.1. An Alternative Model of Knowledge

An alternative view is that learning is to be experienced not received, and that in any case knowledge is never absolute but always provisional. Such a view lends support to the child as actively involved in the construction of his or her own knowledge, and supports the application of child-centred models (Stephenson, 1980).

The main principles of this experiential view is that knowledge has an individualistic nature and is based heavily within active experimentation by the child. If the nature of knowledge is experiential, individualistic and provisional then an active part in the process of 'knowledge acquisition' must be ascribed to the child in the classroom. In particular, the view that knowledge is provisional (and therefore to be challenged, refuted and developed) points to consideration of the active role for both teacher and child in this process and also consideration of the reciprocity of their relationship in the classroom.

Entwhistle et al. (1983) likewise argue for an active interpretation of the child's role in the classroom. They suggest that knowledge and learning can be seen as consisting of surface and deep structures. The surface layer is that which demands of the child only memorization

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and replication while the deep involves reflection, decision and strategic elements.

## 1.6. THE DEPENDENT MODEL OF CHILDHOOD.

As already indicated, a dominant influence on the consideration and application of alternative classroom organizational models has been the perception of the child as dependent upon the adult teacher for classroom learning experiences.

The dependency model has led to support for formal directive classroom organizational methods found throughout our primary schools. This child-as-a-dependent-learner attitude has also been supported by the historical, philosophical, theoretical and knowledge model processes already outlined. Together these influences function to direct teachers' perspectives of classroom organization to those currently dominant and to the dependency of the child as a learner and away from conceptualization of alternative classroom organizations. The dependent model of childhood developed in collaboration with the concept of the hidden curriculum (Hurn, 1978) and has led to the development of an analytical base. From such a base it is possible to consider another element in the failure of classroom research to develop concepts of classroom organization outside of the traditional historical, philosophical and methodological limitations. This base suggests a self reinforcing social process that acts to maintain the stability of current curricular content, style and

structure. The attitudinal factors that drive the process are mainly hidden from the teacher. This attitudinal model is held to support the view that children as a group are dependent upon adults both in a biological and educational / cognitive sense.

### 1.6.1. Historical Factors

Aires (1962) notes that at different times in history different conceptualizations of childhood have dominated, and that these stereotypes have distorted adults' perceptions and actions towards children. In the sixteenth century children were held by the general social stereotype of the time to be inherently sinful, and full of evil and uncontrolled spirits. This general stereotype led adults to selectively perceive a large range of child behaviour as reinforcing the sinful view. From this stereotype, adults' behaviour was directed toward disciplinary approaches such as swaddling and physical punishment.

With the seventeenth century the stereotype shifted to one of innocence and led to the growth of more caring behaviours and less physical controls (Aires, 1962).

In the twentieth century the emphasis is now on the psychology of the child and the growth of labels such as maturation, chronological, development and dependency. Part of this 'reality' is the growth of normative ability aptitude and attainment tests that promote the dependency concept by relating a child's expected abilities and limitations to its age. The ascendancy of the model is

partly reflected in Bennett's (1976) and Galton's, ORACLE chronicle (1987 b) observations on the continued dominance in primary classrooms of directive methods which inherently require the dependency of the child upon the teacher.

## 1.6.2. Educational Language and Concepts of Child Dependency

Another reason for the rooted nature of the establishment of the dependency attitude has been the growth of a confused educational language. Much current educational language as used by both practising teachers and researchers has derived from a confusion between biological and scientific language and non-scientific cognitive / educational language. The point is exemplified in Dearden's (1968) example of a major concept in the current views of the child being that of 'growth'.

The concept of growth originates from the work of Rousseau (1762) and Dewey (1938) with their application of the term having strong biological reference. A similar biological underpinning can be found in Piaget's model of cognitive development. Such models perpetuate a view that children's cognitive growth is directly linked to chronological markers.

A similar development has taken place with 'maturation' which again has become closely linked with its use in the biological field. The confusion of purely biological indicators of maturation with theoretical

cognitive indicators, in the educational literature, has inevitably led to a maturational concept of cognitive development.

Further cross-confusion is indicated in book titles such as Susan Issac's 'Intellectual growth in young children' (1930) and Ilg and Ames 'School Readiness' (1965). Developmental norms reflect the same cross-confusion. Thus, Illingworths 'Basic Developmental Screening, 0-2 years' (1973), suggests that the 'normal' child at ten months should be able to creep on hands and knees (a biological index) and also be able to play 'patacake' (a cognitive index).

There is of course nothing necessarily problematic about this, except that the conjunction of indices across different domains has led to solid research evidence from the one domain, the biological, being used to support the use of the term in the educational domain, where supporting data are often less available. The conjunction has also operated to validate in teachers' minds the idea of structuring certain experiences for certain ages. And as already noted, it is the teacher, not the child who is perceived as the active constructor of learning experiences. The general consequence has been to embed the idea of child dependency in the language used by teachers and administrators (Illich, 1971). Accordingly, teachers will account for a child's inability to replicate a transmitted piece of knowledge or skill as due to the child being in some sense 'unready' to learn it (e.g.

not-old-enough). The responsibility for the childs' inability is thus displaced from the classroom organization or the child's interest and on to a developmental marker of "readiness". It is this attitudinal position that underpins the formal, directive methods of classroom organization by demanding that certain experiences be directed toward children only at certain ages and in set orders. Such a focus on order and set structure is to the clear disadvantage of alternative child-centred models.

### 1.6.3. Attitude Development and Classroom Organization

The particular attitude constellation which teachers hold towards children may be seen as developing from three major areas of the teachers' own lives;

1) their own life style

2) teacher training

3) in-school experiences.

The convergent effect is that certain attitudes become powerful enough to structure and maintain the teachers' behaviour in the classroom and thereby sustain dependency views of the child. It is helpful therefore to look at the process of attitude development and relate this to the three areas in the teachers' life experiences noted above.

### 1.6.4. The Nature of Attitudes

Oskamp (1977) defines an attitude as a readiness to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a

particular object or class of objects. Attitudes
therefore have three components:

1) a subject (in this case the child or a particular form
   of classroom organization),

2) a judgemental or evaluative component,

3) a temporal component, since attitudes are relatively
long lasting (cf. Feyerabend's, 1970, "tenacity").

Within these three components are found cognitive,
affective and conative elements. The cognitive component
consists of the concepts and perceptions an individual has
about the object or group of objects under consideration,
for instance the nature of children's learning.

The affective component consists of the feelings
that the individual has about this object or class of
objects.

The conative component consists of the individual's
action style towards these objects e.g. implementation of
a directive regime (Gergen and Gergen, 1981).

It is the cognitive components of attitudes that are
held to be clustered and generalized by individuals
(Adorno et al. 1950). Therefore a teacher who has been
introduced to labels such as 'dependent', 'readiness',
'stage of development' or 'growth', in relationship to
children, will tend to generalize these terms when
thinking about children. It should be noted that this
type of language is widely used in institutes of
education, albeit often covertly when introducing
theories such as Piagetian stage theory or theories of
development.

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## 1.6.5. Teachers' Childhood Experiences and Attitude Formation

The development of dependency attitudes towards children's learning abilities begins in many teachers' own childhood experiences.  Two possible sources of this attitude development are parental modelling (Adorno et al. 1950) and the mass media (Gerbner and Gross, 1976).  A parental modelling account would hold that teachers when young  observed their parents' behaviour towards them as children and towards other children,  and simply learnt to copy this behaviour  which is then replicated in  their behaviour towards children in their own classes.  Support for  this  suggestion  comes  from  Adorno's   (1950) observations that parents who were authoritarian  in their behaviour and anti-semitic  in attitude developed the same attitudes in their own children.  A similar process has been observed by Byrne (1965)  in his discovery  that parents  high  in  authoritarian  attitudes  also  had college-aged children high on the same measures.

This point is developed by Miller (1987) who suggests that the type of pedagogy a child experiences from its parents' child rearing practices directly influences both the  child's  development  and  later  own  pedagogical practices towards children.

A major part of this process of adopting the parent's attitudes and behaviour toward children,  that later on in life develops in the teacher's view of  the  child  as  a

dependent learner could be the influence of early language development.

### 1.6.6. Teachers' Early Language Experiences and Attitude Formation

Bernstein's (1974) determinist position as related to his theory of language codes, would support the view that teachers from families in the higher social economic groups, as children, would have had directed toward them by their parents, speech patterns and behaviour that was child centred in nature. The 'code' of such families is held to function by taking the young child's initial utterances and extending them via the parents' playing an extending, developing role, hence forming an 'elaborated' code. This would covertly indicate to the child that it is dependent upon the parent for language development, an observation supportive of the later general dependency model. Other early forms of this attitudinal development process would come through play, reading to the parent and feeding.

### 1.6.7. Mass Media and Teachers' Early Attitude Formation

A second major influence in development of the dependency attitude, and one also linked to teachers' early childhood experiences is the influence of the mass media. A number of researchers have indicated that the effects of mass media exposure on children are dramatic in terms of behaviour, ideas and attitude development (e.g Gerbner and Gross, 1976).

Although it is difficult to find a direct study of dependency attitude development in relation to the mass media, there are parallels in related themes such as gender bias. For example, the 'Women on Words and Images' study (1972) indicated that sex bias ratios in childrens books (i.e boy-centred to girl-centred stories) may well have the effect of teaching children that men are more central to society and to the cultural process. Similar results have been found in studies of television (Tuchman, 1978).

If as these studies suggest gender bias can be developed through the media, then it is possible that television programmes that indicate a dependency role for the child on the adult, may be supporting the development of such attitudes in children who later become teachers. In the television programme 'Top of the Class' 'gifted' children are shown as dependent on the teacher and in 'Beat the Teacher' if the children's group out-scores the teacher's, it is the teachers who are congratulated for teaching the children so well! Children's comic papers can also promote the dependent child view, for example the Beano's Bash Street Kids while active in terms of avoiding school work are shown as dependent on the teacher when actual school learning has to take place.

It is suggested, then, that teachers' early experiences as children; their membership of families that use certain child rearing practices, observation of certain forms of parental behaviour and the media expose

them to overt and covert influences. These act to develop an attitude constellation that holds the child as dependent on the adult both biologically and cognitively. Later these attitudes find expression in a preference for certain classroom organizational methods to the disadvantage of others such as negotiation.

## 1.6.8. Attitudes of Child Dependency and Teacher Training

There appear within teacher training six processes that act to covertly support the dependency of the child in the classroom. These six processes are;

1. Generalizations

2. Negative memory bias.

3. Polarized judgements.

4. Overestimations of differences between groups.

5. Underestimation of variations of differences within a group.

6. Distortions of reality.

These influences are not so much linked to the affective component of attitude development as in childhood but now move to the cognitive. These processes thus support the attitudes that began their development in childhood experiences.

## 1.6.9. Generalizations and Teacher Training

Generalizations operate in the teacher training course whenever there are demands on students to write generalized essays on children, childhood or children's development. Even in the case of individual child studies, students are expected to link individual observations of children to general theoretical discussions. An example of this can be found in the directions to relate individual development to generalized theories such as Chomsky's (1968) theory of language development or Piaget's (1977) theory of cognitive development. These types of demands have not been affected to any great extent by the recent upsurge in small scale ethnographic type studies in educational research as conversations with students undergoing teacher training readily indicates.

## 1.6.10. Memory Bias and Teacher Training

Selective memory bias, is the process by which only certain facts or information are recalled from the variety of information received by an individual. It is closely linked to the processes of generalization in that it functions from recall of only certain learnt 'facts'. The institution, in teaching generalized theories such as Piaget's, teaches a core of information based on selective, generalized views of childhood. These aspects then support a generalization effect in the students' perception of children.

An integral part of this process is the development and support of stereotypes. Howard and Rothbart (1980)

indicate that individuals remember information that supports their held stereotypes and not that which is opposed to them. Part of the expression of this process may be the way in which children are treated by many teachers in a similar, generalized way and not as individuals.

An extension of this process in a school setting is that once the dependency attitudes towards children begin to develop then a process of "assimilation- contrast" begins. Thus, the student either assimilates the information into existing cognitions or rejects assimilation due to the contrast between the information in the lecture and pre-existing cognitions. Assimilation occurs when the student already holds views or attitudes similar to those in the information of the lecture or text (Hovland and Weiss, 1951). This process would support the view being developed here that teachers see children's learning and classroom behaviour in very black and white terms, perceiving that which supports the dependency attitudes and not that which presents children as active and capable directors of their own learning. Evidence for this selective nature of teachers perceptions and memory comes from studies indicating that teachers with given attitudes are likely to be selective of information they receive from television, radio and billboards (Klapper, 1949). Klapper's study indicates that this selectivity is in favour of existing attitudes.

## 1.6.11. Judgement Formation and Teacher Training

A third process in teacher training that promotes the dependency model is a tendency of individuals to make judgements about various social groups without having much information on them (cf. Linville and Jones, 1980). For example, many teachers asked to name any educational researcher or research literature, could name only two or three examples (Piaget and Rousseau being common) and there was even then little detail (Whiteside, 1984).

However teachers are quite willing despite their deficient information base to pass generalized statements on children's educational needs and classroom methods e.g. " Children must learn their sounds first before you can even think about teaching them to read" or "Half-an-hour's silent reading every day means they can concentrate on developing their reading skills".

This tendency to generalize also appears to be part of a general coping strategy within the classroom where demands on the teacher from the number of children present are handled by generalizing a given behaviour towards all children. For example, to listen to all the children in a class read for five minutes twice a week, which many teacher's express as an ideal ratio would involve for a class of thirty children, over seven hours of teacher time, assuming no disturbances. As one way to overcome this discrepancy between the ideal and the possible, the introduction of generalized silent reading practices for whole classes has become fashionable in London primary schools.

### 1.6.12. Group Difference Concepts and Teacher Training

A fourth element in the engendering of the dependent child attitudes relates to the over emphasis found in training institutions on the differences between groups. Within the very nature of the course structure in teacher training institutions, a distinction is immediately drawn between the child and the adult. Far from children being seen as growing into adults they are perceived as separate, distinct groups.

This distinction is continued by the institution which then offers courses on 'the early years', nursery education, pre-school education and other categories of childhood. As Campbell (1967) indicates, this labelling and grouping leads to and maintains related forms of behaviour toward these distinct groups of children. The suggestion here is that this takes the form of dependency-expectations from the group labelled children.

This labelling and grouping process relates closely to the self-fulfilling prophecy research of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), Pilling and Pringle (1978), which further suggests that the development of such views in teachers acts to create corresponding behaviours in children themselves.

### 1.6.13. Underestimation of Group Differences and Teacher Training

The fifth element in this dependent-child attitude development relates to the underestimation of differences

within a group of children. It fosters the attitude that children in a class are very similar, even though large variations may be present. Theories such as those of Piaget (1977) and Bernstein (1974) which are taught in many training institutions emphasise this generality-based perspective. The greatest amount of contact between a teacher and child is in the form of the teacher addressing the whole class (Galton et al. 1980). Thus while teachers may report their consideration of children on an individual basis, in actuality it is not so; their one-to-one experience is very limited. This pattern would link closely with Bellack et als. (1966) strategic and tactical level distinction of teachers' classroom behaviour. While at the level of strategic decision making before class, in which the teacher decides aims and objectives, the intentimay be to work individually with children, at the tactical level, the actual interaction with the class is often very different.

## 1.6.14. Reality Distortion and Teacher Training

The sixth element in the development of the child as dependent relates to a process of reality distortion. It operates as follows. Part of the contemporary "reality" of children and their nature is linked to the growth of normative tests which support the concept of a relationship between a child's age and its expected abilities and limitations. This reality then acts to support the general dependency attitude constellation by placing developmental markers within the tests that the

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'normal' child should reach at a given point. To reach such a point the child needs to be directed toward certain educational experiences that will develop these normative skills appropriately linked to the 'right' age. This type of attitude further enhances in teachers the view that the reality of being a child is a need to be directed and educated to meet certain 'normal' developmental markers at certain ages.

It appears possible that as children, teachers may have already began development of a dispositional component that sees children as dependent learners. From this foundation, on entering training college other processes become active and these link to the cognitive component, continuing the development of the attitudes.

The work of Hovland and Weiss (1951) and the later work of Birnbaum and Stegner (1979), indicated that if the person communicating information was held to be trustworthy, unbiased, informed and of high status, then the attitudes being transmitted in the information, were likely to be taken up by the listener. This suggests that student teacher's interaction with lecturers and tutors who are perceived to have these qualities, will lead to internalization of dependency attitudes present in the material and values these lecturers are transmitting.

## 1.6.15. Teacher Dependency Attitudes Towards Children's Learning and In School Experiences

While all these processes are going on, a third source feeding these dependency attitudes can be found within the teacher's in-school experiences.

The staffroom group provides a social network of individuals most of whom have come from similar backgrounds (Bowles and Gintis, 1976), experienced similar child rearing practices (Bernstein, 1974), and completed a similar professional training course. This staff room group, provides teachers with a range of attitudinal reinforcing and support mechanisms which keep salient particular views and values.

Saliency effects were made clear by Charters (1952), where the maintenance of an attitude was supported by calling attention to it and by making it salient. Saliency effects are also present in the language of the staffroom, the more the group expresses attitudes in staffroom interactions, the more the members are reminded how they should feel. The dependency constellation would be reinforced by the constant use of dependency type terms in relation to the children. Consider as examples here remarks such as, "You must tell them what you want" "Give them worksheets, that will keep them quiet".

Social support mechanism's are another example of processes that act to support group attitudes among individual members. Murphy and Likert (1938) originally indicated that the maintenance of an attitude relates to the amount of social support it receives. The expression

of attitudes of children's dependency in learning receives support by being shared within the staffroom group and is indicated in assertions of the type; "You've got to explain it (lesson content) slowly to them (class) or they're totally lost", followed by general staffroom agreement.

Further sustaining mechanisms found in the staff room are in the form of particular practices that support established attitudes. These include the criticism of non-group attitudes such as allowing children to stay in at play times to carry on activities (Ferguson and Kelly, 1964), a more positive view of group ideas than others, the dependency of the child (Brewer 1974) and development of self-esteem by identifying with group ideals (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). These all act to maintain dependency attitudes.

### 1.6.16. Summary of the Dependency Model

The dependency model of childhood puts forward a set of processes that operate to maintain attitudes toward children as held by teachers and others. These attitudes see children as unable to take an active, dynamic role in the development of their own educational experiences. The range of processes that form this attitudinal constellation begin with the teacher's own early childhood experiences, continue through training and further continue even when back in the school. Such formation and consideration of attitudes involves powerful processes that must be addressed by any model that

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proposes an active, constructive role for the child in the classroom.

## 1.7. POSITIVE ASPECTS OF A DIRECTIVE RELATIONSHIP

Again the present critique should not be seen as seeking to deny any positive aspects of a teacher-directed relationship between teacher and child. For example, it is conceivable that unless we are to consider personality reconstruction, certain extreme kinds of teacher will always require a directive relationship.

The directive method plays a useful role within the school in areas of the institution that are not negotiable; health and safety issues, supervision of children and certain set arrangements of the day; assembly, lunch. Within the institutional press it allows quick adherence to procedures without much hesitation.

Again, certain children within school require a well defined, fairly permanent directive relationship. These include children learning English as a second language who require set experiences of development and graded exposure on formal schemes. Children with behavioural differences that require firm structures and boundaries would also be included in this group. Certainly, for certain groups of children the achievements of a stimulus-response based regime (behaviour modification via token economies) are incontestable. Chapter 2.9 considers the historical development of the Law of Effect from Thorndike to Skinner, and its classroom applications. In short, the purpose of the argument is not to proscribe but to

prescribe a more restricted role for the directive
teacher-child relationship.

## CHAPTER 2: MOTIVATION AND THE CLASSROOM

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# CHAPTER 2

## 2.1 THE NATURE OF MOTIVATION

The research to be described in later chapters will be continuously concerned with issues of motivation, of one complexion or another. It seems unnecessary to argue the point that motivation is at the heart of the educational and learning processes.

While the term originally derives from the Latin 'movere' (to move), its extension in current literature is varied. Definitions for motivation include:

" how behaviour gets started, is energized, is directed, is stopped and their (the energy, direction and stopping processes) relation to subjective reactions of organisms while these processes are occurring" (Jones, 1955).

" a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity" (Vroom, 1964).

" it has to do with a set of independent / dependent variables relationships that explain the direction, amplitude and persistence of an individual's behaviour" (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976).

However three general ideas can be located across the range of definitions;

1) that motivation involves an energizing of human behaviour,

2) that it acts to direct behaviour,

3) that it maintains or sustains behaviour.

It should be held in mind that there are certain conceptual dangers in drawing out distinct common ground

between theories or maintaining uncritically a generalized view of motivation. It is possible in such amalgamation that the role of individuality may be lost. It is important to retain the rider that any generalization when applied to real life situations is only a framework and that within this, the variability of the individual may not fit.

The following review of the literature does not claim to be comprehensive but addresses those areas of motivational research that have important points of contact with classroom processes and learning that need primary consideration in classroom design.

## 2.2. MOTIVATION: EXTERNAL - INTERNAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Support for a less generalized concept of motivational processes, can be found in research related to a distinction between internal and external motivational theories.

External motivation is held to be created and directed by environmental factors external to the child. This is distinguished from internal or intrinsic motivation theory which suggests that organisms have a inherent, built in need to seek stimulation through exploration of the environment (Harlow et al. 1950). This can be observed in children who often take a spontaneous interest in objects, books, information, without external directions by adults or others to do so (Danner and Lonky, 1981).

External motivation techniques depend on the concept of control as the vehicle through which the child's learning is directed and takes place. The external control of the child's motivational orientation, the external directed conditions of learning, has also been called 'intentional learning' because the child is assumed to follow external, environmental directives provided from a source external to the child, such as a teacher (Klaver, 1984).

In contrast, intrinsic motivational driven learning; interest in an activity for its own worth, similar to Dweck's (1986) learning goals (see later discussion) has been found to be more personally relevant and retained by the learner in contrast to the short-term recall of material learnt under an external direction (Greenwald, 1981).

Pittman and Heller (1987) contrast classroom behaviour of children in relation to these motivational types. Children working from an internal motivational base look for activities in the classroom that are novel, challenging and based on internal (satisfaction, achievement) rewards. Children working from an external motivational perspective, look toward activities that are predictable, low level and bring external (praise, marks) forms of reward. Children are able to orientate their motivational frame towards which of these two broad categories they prefer to work with. This orientation hypothesis is supported in Pittman's development of the intrinsic - extrinsic position suggesting that a given

child plays a very active role in its decision to behave in the classroom from an intrinsic, extrinsic or amalgamated motivational position.

## 2.3. MOTIVATION: INTRINSIC

Further complex elements of motivation are emphasised when consideration is given to factors that can influence the childs internal motivational status in the classroom. A range of factors have been identified in a variety of research studies that are held to have direct, causatory effects on a child's intrinsic motivation.

These factors include;

(a) anxiety (White, 1959),

(b) anticipated reward (Lepper et al. 1973)

(c) external reward (Deci, 1971 / 1981).

Deci (1971 / 1981) in particular, indicates that rewards that are held to be contingent upon performance, have negative effects on childrens intrinsic motivations. Three particular factors that this research emphasizes as negatively affecting intrinsic motivation are teacher surveillance, deadline setting and peer pressure. Surveillance appears to have the effect of causing a decline in the childs interest in a given activity. In later post-surveillance, free choice-periods, children showed less interest in the surveillance activity than non-surveillance tasks (Lepper and Greene, 1975). It appears that 'directive' teacher behaviours create negative feelings in children toward the activities

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themselves. Surveillance appears to create a degree of anxiety for the child and hence a decline in intrinsic motivation toward that activity. Indeed, often in the classroom one observes children, cover their work with their hand when approached by a teacher to avoid the teacher seeing it.

Laying down distinct times by which children's tasks are to be completed creates a division of the day into formalized, curricular periods. These become deadlines that children have to meet and organize their day by, with little freedom for discussion. Part of such a day division includes compulsory playtimes and assemblies. Informal as well as more formal deadlines exist in classrooms, such as being called out to have work marked, which act in the same manner to create deadline type pressure on the child.

Amabile et al. (1976) point out that such deadline setting has the effect of lowering children's interests in activities on which the deadlines are imposed. Thus deadline setting appears to have a similar effect as surveillance.

The presence of others has also been identified as a factor that can affect the individual childs motivational orientation and their subsequent interest in an activity. Research suggests that poorly developed skills are hindered by peer group presence while the performance of well developed skills are enhanced (Zajonc, 1965). This series of observations would appear to link with the child's concept of self image in the classroom. The

child, not wishing to lose face in front of peers, will avoid public expression of poorly developed skills in the classroom (cf. Holt, 1964). Many teachers have experienced the silence of a room of faces when children have been taught something and then asked, "do you all understand". No one replies but later on talking to individuals, it comes to light that very few 'understood'. Teachers often conveniently assume from such silences that what has been taught has been understood.

The following processes relate to the general debate on the types of motivational processes that need consideration in relation to classroom design.

## 2.4. MOTIVATION: EXTERNAL REWARDS

An important element in classroom motivational issues is evidently the role of rewards. A range of research on the effects of various external rewards (ticks, stars, tokens) indicates that the child's motivational orientation toward a classroom task can indeed be influenced in proportion to the availability and frequency of occurrence of such rewards. Unfortunately, external rewards can lead to a decrease in the child's intrinsic motivational orientation by creating a focus on the reward itself (Amabile, 1976) and an increasing orientation to such external motivators, (Lepper et al. 1973). In contrast, learning that takes place from a more intrinsic base is more likely to lead to a greater active processing of information and subsequent interest (Greenwald, 1981). An experience in the

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author's own school is relevant here. When 'stickers' for
good work were introduced with a class of seven-year-
olds, activity choices changed to short-term, high-
return activities such as reading to the teacher and away
from long-term, high-time, investment activities such as
working with comprehension cards, which were more complex
in their demands and took longer to earn a sticker. A
review of studies into various reward strategies can be
found in Pittman and Heller (1987).

The consequences of such reward regimes are not only
short term, but can affect the childs motivational
orientation in later behaviour (McGraw, 1979). The
experience of external rewards for explicit classroom
behaviours seems to reduce the child's cognitive
repertoire as a heightened expectation is created for
the continuous possibility of environmental rewards for
behaviour. It is as if the child having experienced a
distinct external reward regime, now orientates behaviour
to locate the external reward systems available in a new
situation or classroom and then adapts to fit into the
regime.

The speed with which children can orientate
behaviour to external reward systems, was again
demonstrated to the present author in a series of Friday
morning assemblies, where children could choose if they
would like to bring work to show the rest of the school.
Normally, the children in these assemblies numbered
around 5 to 10. However one Friday the children were
given some stickers that had arrived as part of a

promotional campaign. The next Friday, over fourty children were sitting in assembly waiting to show work and collect a sticker. The children had assumed that from now on the rule was 'show a piece of work equals collect a sticker' and this subsequently led to a new form of behaviour. The external reward thus acted to develop a different perceptual-motivational framework. From then on, Condry (1977) argues that the available motivational frameworks in other situations are responded to and discriminated differently. It was certainly noticeable with these children that the quality both of verbal presentation of their work to the assembly and of the actual pieces displayed had noticeably declined under 'a sticker' condition.

## 2.5. EXTERNAL REWARDS: EFFECTS ON THE QUALITY OF AN ACTIVITY.

The complexity of motivational issues is further indicated when considering the effects of rewards on the quality of performance. Anticipated rewards and incentives can have negative consequences for the amount and quality of work produced (Lepper et al. 1973; Kruglanski et al., 1971; and Condry, 1977).

For example, Lepper's (1973) study indicates that while rate of performance is increased in an anticipated reward condition this is at the cost of quality. In order to reach the reward stage as quickly as possible, the child reduces the care and time put into an activity and 'ups' the work rate. There is also a vicarious

aspect to this: children become keenly aware if another is being allowed to do something of interest (reward) to themselves. When one child is allowed to play with Lego, it is clearly observable that this has the effect of increasing other children's speed on the initial task, in order to reach the reward activity. The classroom scene then develops into one where the increase in errors leads to 'sending back' and 'do it again' responses from the teacher, with much subsequent huffing and puffing and claims of unfairness on the part of the child concerned.

## 2.6. EXTERNAL REWARDS; EFFECTS ON THE PROCESS AND PRODUCT OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

The effects of rewards in the classroom appear to be on both the processes and the products of childrens activities. That is, rewards appear not only to affect the quality of children's classroom activities but also the initial interest the child has in a given activity. A range of studies has indicated that the child's initial interest in an activity decreases when external rewards are offered for the same activity (cf. Amabile, 1976). In our education system, there appears to be a widespread and endemic problem of how to maintain children's initial intrinsic motivation toward particular classroom activities. It scarcely needs saying that if we can provide intrinsic interest activities we create a re-orientation that affects not only the immediate motivational level but also the process and product variables just outlined. This is one of the

fundamental issues with which the research in this thesis
will be concerned.

## 2.7. LOCUS OF CONTROL IN THE CLASSROOM

One area of research into motivational processes
that further develops the concept of individuality
focuses on childrens ability to perceive the extent to
which they have control over their own behaviour in
classrooms. It is an issue that many teachers fail to
account for in classroom planning and one that relates to
the use of rewards in the classroom.

The 'locus of control' concept embodies the idea that
different children see their own and the teacher's
contributions in different proportions as determinants of
rewards received (Rotter et al., 1972). Children can be
regarded as on a continuum whose poles represent, (a)
'internals' who feel they are effective in controlling and
determining their own reinforcements, and, (b)
'externals', who believe forces beyond their control,
guide and determine their behaviour and specific events.
These external forces are seen as luck, fate or powerful
others. The position of the individual child on this
continuum is in relation to the degree that the self is
seen as a causal agent in the environment (McIntyre,
1984). The locus of control emphasizes that it is the
child's perception of control location, the perceived
'locus of control' that is important. The children's
individual perception of their influence on environmental
reinforcers is the key to the uniqueness of their

individual perceptual framework. The locus of control position emphasizes both the uniqueness of the child's perceptions and the child's dynamic role in forming these perceptions. This contrasts with the 'generalized effect' belief, namely that teachers' behaviour is on all children, a belief apparent in much of the teachers' classroom behaviour. Thus, a class is no longer viewed as a globally responding unit but as a collection of individual perceivers.

## 2.8. ORIGIN-PAWN PERCEPTIONS AND PERSONAL CAUSATION.

Three interrelated concepts merit consideration in relation to this locus of control model;

(a) Personal causation.

(b) Origin / Pawn perceptions.

(c) Perceived Competence.

The concept of personal causation was originally defined by Decharms (1968 /1972) as 'the initiation of a behaviour by an individual intended to produce a change in his or her environment'. Therefore the greater the child's perception that he or she can control the environment, the greater the perceived 'origin' role in the classroom. It has been proposed that personal causation or origin behaviours can be taught as part of the classroom curriculum. Decharms suggests four factors can be identified that may be teachable to children, if a supportive classroom environment is developed. These four factors are;

(a) the development of the ability to determine realistic

goals for oneself.

(b) the ability to recognize one's own strengths and weaknesses.

(c) the ability to learn to determine one's behaviours which will allow goals to be met.

(d) the development of an ability to give self feedback.

Many classrooms do not allow such skills to be supported or developed within their structures although Decharms (1972) study suggests some feasibility if classroom changes are made.

The positive side of developing feelings of origin in children is highlighted in Decharms' (1976) subsequent work. Children who view themselves high in an internal locus of control, are reported to perceive classroom environments and their role in them as active, responsible and instrumental in relation to their own learning. On the other hand, children who perceive a high level of external control and low personal causation in their classroom life, pawns, are reported as passive, reactive and with little sense of control of the environment.

The academic rewards of fostering origin feelings in children is reflected in observations that children given personal causation training, had their mathematics and reading skills enhanced. A significant relationship has also been observed between students perceived origin climate in the classroom and the average rate of learning. The more a teacher supported an origin type climate in the classroom, the greater the student's rate of learning (Decharms, 1972).

It has also been noted that teachers who receive personal causation training and are shown how to introduce the same strategies into the classroom, are reported by students as showing significantly different classroom behaviours from those teachers who did not receive the same training.

Children who received the personal causation training, increased their origin scores yearly and recorded increased realistic goal setting and risk taking. These findings tie in closely with Harter's (1981) work identifying intrinsic and extrinsic poles to five dimensions of classroom learning (See Chapter 2.11.). Children in a classroom that supports personal causation development, origin-type behaviours and perceptions, should develop according to Harter's intrinsic poles of learning. These include;

(a) learning motivated by curiosity and interest,

(b) incentives to work for one's own satisfaction,

(c) a preference for challenge,

(d) an ability to work for one's own satisfaction,

(e) the development of internal criteria of success.

However at present, the domination of certain teaching styles, acts to support the development in children, of Harter's extrinsic-pole type behaviours.
These include

(a) learning to please the teacher,

(b) learning to go for external rewards,

(c) a preference for easy tasks,

(d) a continuing dependency on teacher help and direction,

(e) a motivational orientation toward external criteria

   of success.

The high degree that children are sensitive in the classroom to these organizational influences, is further outlined in Harter's (1981) study.


## 2.9. MOTIVATION: PERCEIVED COMPETENCE

A concept related to that of personal causation is perceived competence. It encompasses the childs perception of self competences in various areas. Children do not feel competent in all areas of their skill development and for any teacher, it is important to identify those skills that the child does or does not feel competent in. In many classrooms little freedom is present for the child to express strengths outside very set classroom procedures, led and designed by the teacher.

Support for the view that children can make skill domain distinctions in relation to their competence, has been found in the childs differential choices in areas of, cognitive competence in the classroom, social competence with peers, physical competence in sport and general self-worth (Harter, 1982). This research draws further attention to the dynamic, perceptive, analytical abilities children are capable of using and developing in a classroom environment that supports them. It also draws attention to classroom policies that are so broad as to ignore the range of individual processes of motivation with which the child is involved. By taking a global

position these policies fail to take on board the reality of the classroom for the children in it.

## 2.10. MOTIVATION: THE BEHAVIOURIST POSITION.

The general view of motivational nature as applied in the dominant classroom model has been closely linked to the traditional Behaviourist position. Historically, teachers have held the position that what is 'taught' is than 'learned', in a direct, one-directional flow from teacher to child. Thus, teachers have commonly assumed in line with this transmitted knowledge model that the simple delivery of knowledge, be it by blackboard, talk, slide or exercise, directly creates in the receiving children the phenomenon we call 'learning'. Against this, rather little consideration has been given to the question of motivation.

In the historical development of the behaviourist perspective, Thorndike, Skinner and Hull play an important role in the establishment of behaviourist principles as dominant elements in classroom process design (Thomson, 1968).

Thorndike's development of the Law of Effect acted to foster the use of the classroom reward scheme as a tool to create and maintain motivation in children. The Law of Effect holds that an organism will acquire behaviours that lead to rewards and avoid behaviours that lead to punishment. This principle underpinned the work of Hull and was generally a major principle in behaviourist thinking into the 1950's (Thomson, 1968).

In the classroom, the Law of Effect operated to support the docility of the child in two ways. Firstly, it entailed an anti-cognitive perspective. It considered behaviour as directly associated with environmental stimuli and allowed little role for the child's thinking or internal cognitive processes as mediating factors. The teacher's behaviour and the child's response is seen as a direct product link without consideration of the child's own assimilation and response to that teacher's behaviour.

Secondly, the Law of Effect supported a view of a child-automaton who carries out the teacher's directions and is thereby rewarded by praise and avoids punishment. Clearly, concepts such as interest, boredom or other cognitive processes could not figure in such a representation of the pupil role. Instead, educational management developed extrinsic motivation practices; ticks, stars, marks and verbal praise as the basis for classroom motivational strategies.

The work of Thorndike was extended by Hull in his introduction of the concept of the intervening variable (Thomson 1968). Learning was held to comprise of the Law of Effect but to involve another element other than Thorndike's direct stimulus-response model. The concept of drive was seen as essential and as lying between the stimulus-response association, an intervening variable. This complex of stimulus-intervening variable-response was held to be the basis of habits: set ways of responding that were based on the experience of the

organism  and the readiness of its system to respond.

Skinner  developed the behavourist position further by putting forward data on the precise control of  reinforcer effects in shaping behaviour; operant  conditioning. Taking Thorndike's Law of effect, Skinner applied it to animals' operations on their environment, arguing that if an animal's behaviour led to a reward, then it would be more likely to occur again, hence positive reinforcement. Skinner's  objective was to develop a 'prospectus' list of such relationships between response and stimulus (Evans, 1980).

The important link among  Thorndike, Skinner and Hull was their use of the Law of Effect and the development of a field of research to identify the 'basic' laws of learning that were generalizable.  For developing models of educational organization, this theoretical structure was very attractive as it laid down precise, applicable, simple 'laws' of learning that could be applied in the classroom.

Skinner's contribution  can be seen in two areas of classroom practice and theory.

The way in which naturally occurring behaviours ('operants') become conditioned can be followed in a classroom example.  The teacher 'emits'  a behaviour toward the child, say, an instruction, that demands of the child, compliance and docility.  The child responds in the expected manner and is rewarded with praise, good marks or a tick.   The child has thus been rewarded  making it more likely that docile and compliant behaviour occur

again. But the teacher has herself also been rewarded by receiving from the child the expected behaviour and this acts to make it more likely that the teacher will emit that behaviour again. In other words, a mutual conditioning partnership has been set up. As Thomson (1968) indicates, Skinner gives the analogous example of the industrial manager who reinforces the work behaviour of employees via high wages and good conditions (rewards). With this analogy, it is easier to see the teacher's role in many classrooms as a similar scenario. Hull's concept of intervening variable can also be seen within the concept of 'readiness' that is used to structure certain educational experiences to marked chronological periods in the child's development. For many teachers reading is an area in which the concept of readiness finds application.

An environment that emphasises compliance and uses the Law of Effect and operant conditioning to support this behaviour style, acts to set up Gestalten (cf. Tolman, 1932) that confine the teacher-child partnership to that framework. The Gestalten of compliance focus the minds of both partners onto those forms of behaviour and perception which serve to link the elements of the Gestalten. The danger is that the Gestalten then act as perceptual blinkers and behavioural constraints to the disadvantage of alternative forms of partnership.

## 2.11. MOTIVATION: A DYNAMIC AND INDIVIDUAL ROLE FOR THE CHILD.

A general review of motivational research suggests that global concepts of classroom motivational processes are too limiting and simplistic. It appears that far from children being simple, lower-order, responders to teacher behaviours they are quite capable of moulding and controlling their own behaviours to accommodate that of the teachers if they wish (Deci et al. 1981). Moreover the same child is able to change classroom behaviour to suit the demands of different teachers. This observation will not surprise any teacher who has taken over a class for an absent colleague. Part of the child's actions in this process is to 'suss' the new rules, if any, that the new teacher plays the game called school by (Harter, 1981, Beynon and Atkinson, 1984).

The importance of research such as Harter's is that it places an emphasis on the child's active role in the interactional process. Harter suggests that motivations involved in learning are not global in nature but consist of distinct identifiable components. Harter suggests five bipolar components, one pole being intrinsically motivational in nature, the other extrinsically motivational. The five components distinguish between:
  (a) learning motivated by curiosity as against behaviour to please the teacher,
  (b) motivation to work for one's own satisfaction as opposed to working for external reward,
  (c) a preference for challenge as opposed to ease of

task,

(d) independence / teacher help

(e) an internal criteria of success / an external
    criteria of success.

Harter produces a range of supportive data for this
component position on the nature of motivation. From such
a position it would appear that the child's motivational
orientation in the classroom can not easily be viewed as a
purely generalized process. Consideration should be
given to the diverse aspects that form the general concept
of motivation and to those which are the expression of
the child playing a dynamic role.


## 2.12. MOTIVATION AND GOAL STRUCTURES

Dweck (1986) highlights child based factors that
affect a child's cognitive behaviour in the classroom and
integrate with the child's motivational processes in an
individualistic manner. She indicates that a child's
goals act to shape the cognitive style of the activities
and often affect the quality of performance. She sees
the child's achievement motivation, the motivation to
succeed, as divisible into learning goals and performance
goals.

Children dominant in the learning goals mode of
achievement, seek to increase their competence at an
activity, to understand and to master new experiences.
Such children are held to seek challenge in the classroom
and to maintain a high level of persistence in the face of
difficulties. In comparison, a second distinct group,

children high in performance goal motivational orientation, seek to gain favourable judgements from teachers and others and to avoid negative judgements. Such children are held to avoid challenges they are unsure they have the ability to meet and show low persistence in activity involvement. The dominance of one of these styles of achievement motivation will affect the child's cognitive performance and classroom behaviour in a distinct way.

Dweck's research not only indicates the need to consider differences between children's motivational perspectives but also to address the types of theories that children have about classrooms and learning. She suggests that children who perceive within their world view that intelligence is a fixed entity strive for performance goals, while those who see intelligence as a malleable entity strive for quality and competence goals in learning. Research perspectives that take a global view of children and motivation fail to address the importance of the individual child's "theory of learning" insofar as it appears to have such a significant effect on classroom emitted behaviours.

It is interesting to note that the dominance of certain classroom practices, teacher structured programming of tasks, short term activities and the use of praise, are suggested by Dweck to be reflective of behaviourist positive reinforcement ideas and the consequences teacher expectancy research (Dusek, 1985) has had for classroom processes. This is parallel to the

point made earlier in reference to the historical legacy of the behaviourist school in current classroom practices.

The individuality of the child and the importance of role in classroom interactions either with the teacher or the activities present is expanded from Dweck's dichotomy of achievement motivational types to a yet more individualistic consideration in the work of Richard Snow (1986).

## 2.13. MOTIVATION AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES.

Snow (1986) points out the failure of classroom design and management to consider the individual differences between children that are recognized and reflected in many other areas of educational organization. Areas such as reading and diagnostic testing, National Curriculum assessment and special educational needs provision, all emphasize within their application, the uniqueness of the individual to varying extents. However this individual differentiation is not carried through into the management of classroom procedures where children are treated as a homogeneous group.

Support for the differentiation perspective comes from various areas of educational psychology and psychology in general, which highlight individual differences in intellect, psycho-motor ability, general and specialized knowledge, motivation and cognitive style. All these must play a part in the integrative whole that forms the child's learning patterns and motivational

matrix. To meet this differentiation between individual children within the class group, Snow suggests the need to provide a range of educational programmes each tailored to the individual's predispositions. He points out the failure of a single educational programme style to provide criteria that meet the motivational perspective of all children within a given group. It is seen as a question of person - environment fit with emphasis on the environment fitting the person rather than the person being forced into environmental parameters. To this end Snow suggests the use of individual child profiling to identify the child's motivational and learning preferences as an aid to designing suitable educational programmes.

It could be suggested that varieties of educational programmes already exist in many classrooms in the form of group organized activities. However, grouping does not always function to develop members of different classroom groups toward common levels of achievement and motivation. Often the groups work on different activities, at different paces and with different end objectives. Instead of providing all children with a common motivational and educational experience, the group system acts to maintain differences in educational, developmental and motivational experiences among children. There is also a strong likelihood (from observing the use of groups in schools) that groups are set up as much on management as on educational grounds.

Snow's research suggests that educational programmes should be set up with two dominant processes structuring

their development: individual profiling and adaptive teaching. Adaptive teaching involves the teacher in changing her style when interacting with various individuals or groups as need be. However from both the strategic and tactical perspectives, it seems a suggestion that would be very difficult to operationalize in a class of up to thirty children with four or five heterogeneous groups. The type of organization that such an approach would require would place intolerable demands on a class teacher throughout each day.

This is the weakness of Snow's formulation: it is a theoretical position rather than one based in application.

Nevertheless, the importance of Snow's position is the emphasis placed by it on the concept of individuality and his observation that aptitudes, preferences, and I would suggest motivational matrices, should not be seen as fixed. For Snow these processes are not crystalized within a given individual but are flexible and variable in relation to present and past conditions in an individual's experiences. The fluctuating, relative, individualistic nature of motivational processes described in Snow's account, are important aspects to consider in designing educational programmes of classroom management to support the partnership between child and teacher in the classroom.

## 2.14. MOTIVATION: FAILURE OF THE DIRECTIVE ZEITGEIST.

This theme has already been extensively treated in Chapter One, so that only a touching in of certain points will be undertaken here. The essence of the failure of the directive position on classroom organization lies in its simplistic view that stimuli (teaching behaviours) create a motivational interest which leads to response (learning), a one directional flow from teacher to class. While it is true that the directive classroom dominates British primary education, many such classrooms are so limiting on children's interests that they fail to allow any other form of motivational expression other than that responsive to the teacher's behaviour. The child responds to the teacher's behaviour in the form outlined because the classroom structure allows only submissive responsive behaviours from children, the structuring frowns on any individual responses and acts to control these.

A second aspect of the failure of the directive Zeitgeist is the teacher's inability or unwillingness to perceive behaviours from children that indicate the child can be motivated by factors in learning other than the teacher's own directions. This is in fact an issue that is addressed in an empirical study in this thesis (Chapter Six).

In support of this alternative to the dominant teacher directions view, Brophy (1986) suggests there is little evidence of motivation to learn in many classrooms due to the teacher's failure to recognize the various

methods of motivational stimulation available and due in any case to a lack of teacher training in these methods. It is this type of day-after-day 'chalkface' experience in teaching that entrenches the domination of the directive classroom and the associated limiting of teacher's perceptions concerning the possibility that the child may have a significant role to play its own motivation and learning.

## 2.15. FAILURE OF THE DIRECTIVE ZEITGEIST: TRADITIONAL RESPONSES.

It is only when certain children in a class fail to learn, that any real consideration of a concept of 'individuality' is introduced. And it is introduced in a way that is ironic. Consider the 'Catch 22' nature of the following. It is held that motivation is created by teaching behaviour which acts to focus the child on tasks that lead to 'learning'. If the child fails to learn then the logical inference would be to assume that this teaching behaviour had not created the right conditions for learning. However, the Catch 22 is introduced at this point by placing the problem on the child through its 'failure' to pick up the learning as transmitted. In keeping with this self-serving logical shift a range of supporting concepts have evolved. These are in the form of labels such as 'special needs', 'developed', 'hyperactive', 'slow' or 'inattentive'. The emphasis is thus on the child's inability to fit into an implicitly assumed, successful, one-way process from teacher to

child.    Not addressed are such matters as    teachers'
own  expertise  or  effectiveness,  their    behaviour,
motivational assumptions,  the directive  nature of their
motivation  and  teaching,  the  authority  balance,  the
assumed  roles,  activity  structures  and  deficiencies    in
communication networks.

The real failure of this perspective is its failure to
recognize the advocacy of a   range of research findings
outlined  here,    that  place  emphasis  on  the  individual
child's  own  dynamic  contribution    in  the  classroom
setting.

## 2.16. OVERVIEW

The  range  of  motivational  research  outlined  has
highlighted a variety of questions that need to be asked
of   the  dominant   classroom  organizational  style    in
British primary schools.   The premise  that is prevalent
throughout  this  style,  concerning  the  dependency  of  the
child  on  teacher  direction  for  learning,  finds  limited
support within the motivational literature.   The model's
account  of    motivation  has  been  to  support  the  six
processes  outlined  earlier  which  have  led  to  its
historical domination in the classroom.  Like the concept
of negotiation, the concept of motivation, when addressed
in the broadness of its study, highlights the limitations
of  the  directive  model  to  account  for  the  active,
perceptive,  construing  role  that  children  play  in  the
classroom.    The  directive  method  in  not  addressing
these issues has not  provided an organizational framework

to allow their expression or development.    Instead it acts to support externally directed children, who develop greater dependency learning type behaviours as they move through the educational system.

The motivational literature however supports the view that children are not as   dependent as many teachers would suggest.    Although the classroom organization of such teachers is one that supports the view of passive receivers of direction and orientation, children still appear to play, within limitations,   an active role, although this is often not supported in classroom planning.    It is to the issue of the childs actual behaviour within the directive classroom, that the first applied research of this study is now addressed.

Further development of the role of various aspects of motivational processes   within the classroom context occurs in the following chapters.

# CHAPTER 3: TEACHER-CHILD PERCEPTIONS OF THE DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM: STUDIES 1 AND 2.

3.1.    INTRODUCTION.

3.2.    CURRENT RESEARCH POSITIONS.

THE TEACHER AS THE CLASSROOM LENS.

3.3.    STUDY ONE: A COMPARISON OF TEACHER - CHILD PERCEPTIONS OF THE CURRICULUM IN A DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM.

3.3.1.    Method.

3.3.2.    Procedure.

3.4.    RESULTS.

3.5.    TEACHER SCHEDULED AND DELIVERED V PUPIL EXPERIENCED  LESSONS.

3.6.    INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE CURRICULUM EXPERIENCED.

3.6.1.    Do Individual Children Within The Classroom Experience  a Different Curriculum From Their Peers ?

3.6.2.    Is a Child's Variation From The Teachers Delivered  Curriculum Constant Across The School Year ?

3.6.3    Is There  Variation Between Teacher - Child and Child - Child Curricula Across Other Subject Areas ?

3.7.    TEACHER INTERVIEWS.

3.8.    TEACHER RESULTS.

3.9.    DISCUSSION.

# CHAPTER 3.

## TEACHER-CHILD PERCEPTIONS OF THE DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM.

### 3.1. INTRODUCTION

As we saw in Chapter 1, a range of processes have acted to promote the concept and support the dominance of the directive classroom. However attention was also drawn in the last chapter to a range of motivational studies indicating that the basic premise of the directive approach is questionable. This premise is that the teacher's behaviour in this directive type of classroom directly leads to learning behaviour in the child. The flaw is the assumption that the child is a passive receiver of these orientating and teaching behaviours that are said to lead to 'learning' in the child.

The study to be reported in this chapter is concerned to see if practical support exists for a view that even within the directive classroom, children do play an active and dynamic role in the teaching-learning process.

### 3.2. CURRENT RESEARCH POSITIONS: THE TEACHER AS CLASSROOM LENS.

In addition to the motivational studies outlined in Chapter two, a variety of research has already raised questions concerning the traditional focus on teachers behaviour across available research methodologies. However various research philosophies continue to support

the directive position. Examples are Bennett's early work on teaching styles (1976), the early ORACLE project (Galton, Simon and Croll 1980) and the Inner London Education Authority 'Junior School Project (1986). In their data collection all three assume the active teacher-passive-child receiving (Ingram and Worrall, 1990). In particular the recent I.L.E.A. 'Junior School Project' (1986), used ORACLE-type classroom observation schedules, which emphasised teacher behaviour. All three studies failed to look at the behaviour of the children in any significant depth.

Research that does focus on the child is exemplified in the studies of peer co-operative learning, which uses the peer group as the lens of study (Slavin, 1987) and the individual child and learning in relation to self-concept (Slavin, 1988). While the traditional positivist position supports the view that teachers need to direct children's innate abilities (Hearnshaw, 1979), ethnographic-based studies question this (Stubbs and Delamont, 1976). These studies suggest that processes involved in pupil-teacher and pupil-pupil interactions need to be incorporated in any view of the classroom, if a realistic picture is to be drawn. By using the teacher as the lens on the classroom, much data that might have supported a more active role for children has been missed. Even further the data produced by the teacher-as-lens type study, has implicitly supported, (by

concentrating on the teacher), the dominance of the directive model and thereby the premise that childrens learning occurs through teachers behaviour.

Currently however, the directive method is still dominant, with emphasis still being placed on the one-directional interactive flow from teacher to child, a strong process-product position. Even the 1986 Education Reform Act embodies the concept that the teacher directs and operates on a class of children, leading directly to the required learning of nominated material. This assumption is very evident throughout a range of National Curriculum and in-service training documents for teachers introducing the National Curriculum to their schools in September 1989. The present writer's experiences on training days also supports this view.

A recent study that moves some way to address the child's position is that of Farquhar, Blatchford, Burke, Plewis and Tizard (1987). Farquhar et al. compared teachers' reports of their timetabled lessons against that of reports of the children's actual experiences. In the 33 infant schools studied, a marked difference was typically observed between the teacher's intended curriculum and the curriculum received by the individual child. The problem with this study, is that it used the teacher as the arbiter in data collection without comparison to child reports.

From this contemporary background, the opening study

in this chapter, looks first at the validity of the concept of a discrepancy existing between teacher and child perceptions in what is taught and experienced in the directive classroom.

## 3.3. STUDY ONE: A COMPARISON OF TEACHER-CHILD PERCEPTIONS OF THE CURRICULUM IN A DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM.

### 3.3.1. Method.

The class consisted of six boys and six girls aged 9 to 10 years, third-year juniors in a London primary school. The class was selected because their teacher was a good example of the formal, directive teaching style, very close to Bennett's (1976) 'Style 12'. The characteristics of this teaching style are listed by Bennett as: a non-integrated approach to the curriculum, separate subject lessons, a central blackboard, a general curb on childrens movement and talking and highly directive in all activities.

The identification of this teacher and his classroom as fitting the directive model closely was based on two days observation by the present writer, combined with the teacher's own description of his style and the corroboration of colleagues in the school who were familiar with the teacher's classroom approach.

## 3.3.2. Procedure

(a) Data were collected daily over two five-week periods. One period was at the beginning and one at the end of the first term of the school year.

(b) The teacher was asked to provide a timetable showing the planned curriculum for the data collection period. This proved to be exactly the same for both five-week periods.

(c) The children were each given a grid record, which was kept by each child, listing curriculum activities during each morning and afternoon session.

(d) A similar grid record was kept by the teacher, again listing the curriculum areas that had been covered that morning and afternoon.

(e) A validity spot check of the curricular activities in which the child was in fact involved, was carried out during the morning and afternoon session by an observer. These validity checks were carried out across all 12 children every day, morning and afternoon, each sweep taking about half an hour.

(f) Every evening the various data were collated and comparative profiles progressively assembled for the two five- week periods.

**TABLE 3.1. COMPARISION BETWEEN CURRICULUM AS TAUGHT AND CURRICULUM AS EXPERIENCED BY THE CLASS AS A WHOLE. (First versus the last five weeks of Autumn term.)**

| | No. of lessons per week as scheduled and taught. | | Mean no. of lessons per week as recorded by whole class. | | Mean teacher -class diff. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First Five Weeks | Last Five Weeks | First Five Weeks | Last Five Weeks | First Five Weeks | Last Five Weeks |
| Mathematics | 5 | 5 | 5.63 | 4.70 | +0.63 | -0.30 |
| Reading | 5 | 5 | 4.05 | 3.85 | -0.95 | -1.15 |
| English | 4 | 4 | 1.96 | 0.98 | -2.04 | -3.02 |
| Art / Craft | 4 | 4 | 2.08 | 0.65 | -1.92 | -3.35 |
| Project | 2 | 2 | 1.75 | 1.37 | -0.25 | -0.64 |
| Music | 2 | 2 | 1.58 | 1.33 | -0.42 | -0.67 |

## 3.4. RESULTS

Table 3.1 summarises the general data for the study. The first column shows the curriculum subject taught. Originally two further columns were intended to show the 'planned' and 'as taught' timetable delivered to the class by the teacher. However, the first result was that over the two five-week periods, the 'scheduled' and 'as taught' number of lessons for the teacher were identical, hence the single column.

The curricular balance in the table, indicates a fairly traditional classroom, with emphasis on the '3Rs'. The 3Rs in fact accounted for 14 out of the 22 lessons scheduled and delivered per week in this classroom .

## 3.5. TEACHER SCHEDULED AND DELIVERED V PUPIL EXPERIENCED LESSONS.

Comparing across columns indicates that what the class as a whole recorded as their actual activities were different from the teacher's record. In some subject's (e.g. mathematics) this difference was only slight while in other subject areas (e.g. English, Art and Craft) the difference was quite marked. In all other areas than mathematics, the variation was in the direction of the teacher's record overestimating the number of lessons the child recorded.

The possibility that children are unreliable recorders can be dismissed as the validity spot checks supported the accuracy of the children's records.

A second feature of Table 3.1, is that between the first and last five-week blocks, columns 5 and 6 of figures, there is a widening discrepancy between the teacher's delivered curriculum and the children's experience. Overall this consists of both a decrease in the number of lessons recorded by the children and an increasing movement away from the teacher's number of delivered lessons with time. These data therefore indicate slippage between the teachers intended and delivered curriculum and the children's experienced curriculum. With time, this slippage gained pace with yet further separation from the intended curriculum.

## 3.6. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE CURRICULUM EXPERIENCED

### 3.6.1. Do Individual Children Within the Classroom Experience a Different Curriculum From Their Peers ?

TABLE 3.2. BREAKDOWN OF EACH CHILD'S CURRICULAR EXPERIENCE FOR THE CASE OF MATHEMATICS AND ENGLISH (n=12).

| | Total Maths Periods as taught | Maths Periods Experienced by Each Child (C) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 | C5 | C6 | C7 | C8 | C9 | C10 | C11 | C12 | Total |
| First 5 weeks | 25 | 28 | 40 | 36 | 39 | 34 | 26 | 24 | 26 | 26 | 22 | 18 | 19 | 338 |
| Last 5 weeks | 25 | 38 | 23 | 26 | 17 | 19 | 23 | 35 | 22 | 21 | 23 | 19 | 16 | 282 |
| Change over term | 0 | +10 | -17 | -10 | -22 | -15 | -03 | +11 | -04 | -05 | +01 | +01 | -03 | |

| | Total English Periods as taught | English Periods Experienced by Each Child(C) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 | C5 | C6 | C7 | C8 | C9 | C10 | C11 | C12 | Total |
| First 5 weeks | 20 | 14 | 18 | 15 | 04 | 12 | 10 | 06 | 10 | 09 | 04 | 11 | 05 | 118 |
| Last 5 weeks | 20 | 03 | 17 | 02 | 00 | 15 | 02 | 01 | 02 | 04 | 03 | 01 | 09 | 59 |
| Change over term | 0 | -11 | -01 | -13 | -04 | +03 | -08 | -07 | -08 | -05 | -01 | -10 | +04 | |

To look at this question it is necessary to break the preceding data down to the individual child level. This analysis is applied in Table 3.2, taking the curricular areas of mathematics and English.

Table 3.2. indicates that over the complete ten-week

period and within each five-week block, there is considerable between-pupil variation in experienced curriculum. This is combined with considerable variation from the teacher's delivered curriculum of 25 units of maths and 20 units of English per five-week block.

For mathematics in the first five-week block, the range of periods is from 18 to 40 periods. The second five-week block indicates a similar range from 16 to 38.

Figure 3.1. looks at the same range data on a week-by-week basis. In Week One, for instance, while the teacher recorded 5 maths lessons delivered, the highest recorded by any child was seven lessons, and the lowest, three. A similar pattern cuts across each 5-week block and the complete ten week period.

The teacher-assumed number of English lessons over the first five-week period was 20 (4 per week), but as recorded there was a range across the twelve children from 4 to 18 (Table 3.2.). For the last 5-week period, the teacher's record still showed 20 total, while the children's actual experience now recorded a range of 1 to 17 periods. The English data therefore follow a similar pattern to the maths data.

What should be of particular concern here, is that while some children indeed recorded far fewer lessons experienced than the teacher delivered in their English curriculum, others recorded zero English lessons for 8 out of ten weeks (Figure 3.1.). It appears that the teacher

**FIGURE 3.1. HIGHEST AND LOWEST NUMBER OF MATHEMATICS LESSONS EXPERIENCED PER WEEK FOR INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN AGAINST TEACHER'S DELIVERED LESSONS**

```
Lessons
   11
   10        *           *                    *
    9           *           *
    8              *           *        *           *
    7     *                                      *     *
    6
    5  ─────────────────────────────────────────────── teacher
    4     *     *                                        record
    3     *        *  *                    *
    2                                   *
    1                 *        *                 *  *
    0
        1     2     3     4     5        10    11    12    13    14
                    W   E   E   K   S
```
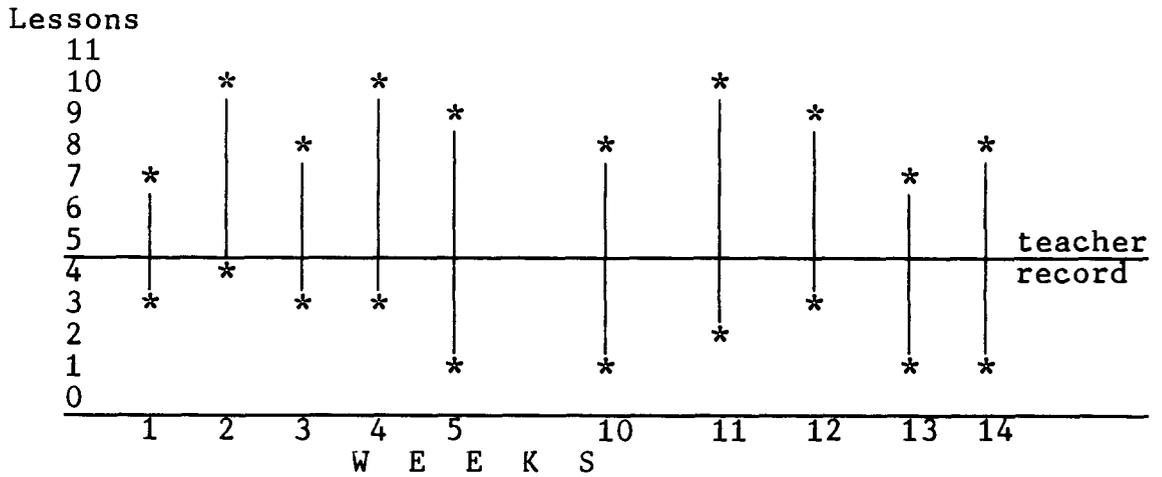
**HIGHEST AND LOWEST NUMBER OF ENGLISH LESSONS EXPERIENCED PER WEEK FOR INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN AGAINST TEACHER'S DELIVERED LESSONS**

```
 lessons
   11
   10
    9
    8
    7
    6                 *     *
    5        *              *
    4     *        *                       *        *        *
    3  ────────────────────────────────────────*──────────── Teacher
    2                                                         record
    1     *     *
    0              *     *     *        *     *     *     *     *
        1     2     3     4     5        10    11    12    13    14
                    W   E   E   K   S
```

107
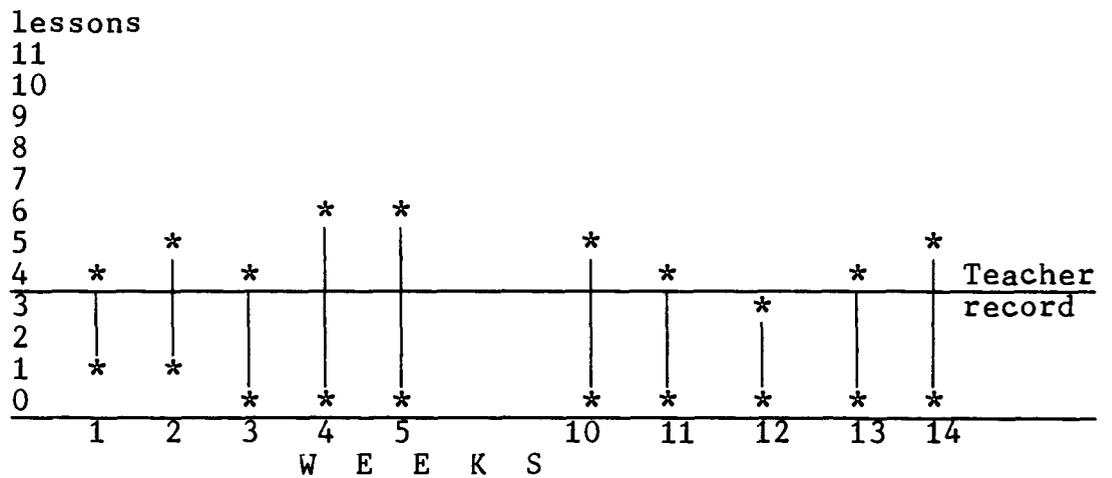
is unaware that some children are experiencing no English curriculum in his class since he records that they are experiencing 4 a week.

These data indicate that different children experience different curriculums at the individual level although they share the same teacher, classroom and number of lessons.

### 3.6.2. Is a Child's Variation From the Teacher's Delivered Curriculum Constant Across the School Year ?

While the data indicates that children experience different curricula within the same class, it also indicates that the direction of this difference fluctuates both between children and for a given individual. Looking at the case of mathematics (Table 3.2.) for some children this inconsistency is considerable: children 1 and 7 show large increases while children 2, 4 and 5 show large decreases.

### 3.6.3 Is There Variation Between Teacher-Child and Child-Child Curricula Across Other Subject Areas ?

Table 3.1. reveals gross parallel kinds of discrepancies when the data for other curricular areas are compared. All the curricular areas record constant movement away from the teacher's delivered curriculum.

Within this movement individual child variation can be noted.

## 3.7. TEACHER INTERVIEWS

In connection with the variation between the teacher's 'delivered' curriculum and that experienced by the children it is of interest to bring forward at this point some teacher data from Study Two. Included in the five teachers interviewed (see 3.12) was the class teacher of the class which generated the foregoing data.

The five teachers were asked questions which related to their general classroom management and the relationship between their timetabled lessons and to the actual activities of the children in their classrooms. The questions were;

(a) Would you label your classroom as directive, autonomous or as somewhere between these two styles ?

(b) Would you say that your paper timetable (shown to teacher) closely represents, moderately represents or does not represent:

 (1) the lessons and curriculum areas taught at the given times across the week ?

 (ii) the activities of pupils at these times ?

 (iii) pupils' classroom activities over the term to date ?

 (iv) pupils' classroom activities for the foreseeable future ?

## 3.8. TEACHER RESULTS

Results proved to be fairly uniform across all five teachers. To the question on classroom style of management, all five agreed that they were directive in style. They agreed also that they organized the activities of pupils to fit closely to the paper timetable.

To the question of the representativeness of the paper timetable, all five again agreed that it closely represented their teaching week and that of the pupils' actual activities at the given times.

In relation to the timetable's representativeness of the term so far, three teachers felt it was a close representation and one a moderate representation. This latter teacher however suggested a self-correcting mechanism pointing out that although absences and withdrawal for other lessons occasionally affected it, "in the long run it sorts it self out".

On the question of the future all five agreed that the paper timetable represented their future intentions for their class.

The data indicate that these teachers felt the paper timetable reflected well both their intentions, their actions and the curriculum experienced by children in their classroom.

## 3.9. DISCUSSION

This study followed a single class of twelve children for two five-week blocks. The data collected indicated both a poor fit and increasing slippage between the teacher's delivered curriculum and that experienced by the children in the class. This was evidenced in several ways.

(a) except for mathematics, the children were doing less of everything than the teacher supposed,

(b) this mismatch between teacher and child curriculum increased with time.

(c) in the two curricular areas here given particular attention, maths and English, there were large between-pupil variations in experienced curriculum,

(d) patterns for individual pupils across the two five-week periods, showed wide variations.

These data are not consistent with the directive premise that teacher's classroom teaching behaviours directly correspond to the children's experience and therefore learning behaviours. Rather, this finding supports the view that a perceptual gap exists between what teachers intend to teach, what they actually do teach and what they perceive as being taught (Galton, 1987a).

It could of course be suggested that the present data are questionable in terms of reliability, as only twelve children and one teacher were used. However, the findings of Farquhar et al (1987), who examined 33 schools suggest that this type of teacher - child discrepancy is

widespread. Moreover when teachers in the Farquhar et als. study recognized that they were failing to cover their intended curriculum, the problem was placed with the child. It was suggested that the child's entry skills or home background created learning problems, that hindered the intended curriculum delivery. This type of shift is the hallmark of the directive model and acts to draw diagnosis away from possible faults in the teacher delivery system itself.

Given the foundation provided by Study One, it seemed desirable to examine through a larger sample what specific processes within the directive classroom were leading to the slippage between the teacher's delivered, and the child's experienced curriculum. In particular, emphasis needed to be paid to the individual nature of this process for each child, in view of the wide variation found across children.

## 3.10. STUDY TWO: TEACHER - CHILD CURRICULAR MISMATCH : CHILDREN'S STRATEGIES AND RESPONSES TO THE DELIVERED CURRICULUM OF THE DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM.

This two phase study examines the directive classroom at the level of the individual child and of that child's experiences of the curriculum. It explores the views and feelings of a larger sample of children on the differences identified in Study One between the delivered and experienced curriculum. It looks, in particular, at the strategies the children use to maintain some form of contact with the curriculum as delivered by the teacher.

## 3.11. METHOD

### PUPIL INTERVIEWS

In order to develop a set of interview questions, open- ended discussions were held with 25, 7 - 11 year old children chosen at random from directive classrooms in a single school. The 25 children were quite separate from the large sample group used in the next Phase II, and in fact were not used elsewhere in this thesis. The theme was the classroom curriculum and problems they might have with it. The children indicated that the pace, the complexity of lessons, the overload-underload of activities and demands and their responses to these, were significant parts of their experience of the classroom curriculum. It also became clear from these open-ended discussions that emotional response played an

important role, and so questions related to the child's feelings about being behind or in front of the rest of the class were included for Phase II. Questions were also developed relating to the child's strategies of coping with curriculum pace. It was clear that the pace of the classroom curriculum and the childrens responses to it, were major issues for them.

Phase (II): Using the developed questions, 53 different children aged between 7 and 11 were interviewed. These children were from four classroom regimes identified as fitting closely to the directive classroom criteria (Bennett 1976, Style 12). The children were interviewed individually in their classrooms, and interviews took place informally within the normal classroom routine. The present investigator carried out the interviews at times that the children were used to his being in the classroom during their normal school day. The children were assured that the information they gave during interview was private and would not be given to their class teacher. The interviews took altogether four weeks to administer.

## 3.12. TEACHER INTERVIEWS

The four teachers of the 53 sample children, along with one other teacher present in the school who used the directive style, were asked questions which related to their general classroom management and the relationship

between their timetabled lessons and the actual activities of the children in their classrooms. These data have already been reported in connection with Study One.

### 3.13. CHILDREN'S DATA.

Since the rationale of this study, was to use not the teacher but the individual child as the lens on to curriculum experiences. The results are structured in terms of the questions and answers from the children's interviews.

### 3.13.1. Pace of Curriculum

**Do you find keeping up with your lessons very easy, very hard or just right ?**

All 53 children in each class, without hesitation placed themselves in the 'very hard' or 'very easy' group. None of the children felt that the pace in their classroom was 'just right'. Because children thus represented such distinct response groups in terms of their perception of the pace of the classroom curriculum, distinct labels could be applied as group descriptors.

The children who labelled themselves as having an easy time in respect to curricular pace were called 'Frontrunners' and those who felt the pace was too much, 'Backmarkers'. Frontrunners saw themselves as pulling the pace along, often remarking on their frustration of having to wait for others in the class and Backmarkers

felt that they always lagged behind the delivered curriculum, often commenting on their problems with the pace.

Table 3.3. shows the distribution of these two groups across the different age groups in the sample. While there is considerable variation in the relevant distributions between classes, the majority of children (41 = 77%) perceived themselves as Backmarkers, or as generally behind in their lessons.

When asked about why they felt they were behind, the children typically responded with statements of the kind; "teacher...rubs the work off the board before I can do it." "He / She explains things too fast" or "He / She just carries on talking without waiting".

The remaining 23% who saw themselves as generally being ahead of the class, frontrunners, used statements of the type; "The work is too easy" or "I've already done these things before" or "I already know how to do things"

## 3.13.2. General strategies

" Would you tell your teacher if you were falling behind, getting too much in front, or would you just carry on" ?

The basis for this question was that in the validity checks during observations in Study One, it was noticed that, typically, children who had failed to finish a piece of work before some form of break, returned to the room

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**TABLE 3.3.   PREFERENCES FOR SELF- OR TEACHER DEPENDENT STRATEGIES FOR MAINTAINING CURRICULUM CONTACT, AS REPORTED BY 'BACKMARKERS' AND 'FRONTRUNNERS'.**

| Class | Backmarkers (n = 41) | | Frontrunners (n = 12) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Self Dependent | Teacher Dependent | Self Dependent | Teacher Dependent |
| 10 - 11 yrs (n = 14) | 8 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 9 - 10 yrs (n = 17) | 17 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 - 9 yrs (n = 13) | 9 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 7 - 8 yrs (n = 9) | 7 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | 41 | 0 | 1 | 11 |

after break and began to carry on with that activity. Often this was despite teacher's instructions to begin a different activity. If this were a general tendency, then it would lead to 'weaker' children experiencing fewer curricular units than pupils who kept up with teacher's directions.

The children's answers to this question indicated that the 41 children who saw themselves as backmarkers (unable to keep up) all used some strategy of their own to handle the pace problem. Against this, only one frontrunner used a strategy of his own to handle the curricular pace 'problem' (Table 3.3.).

In these four directive classrooms, where teachers claimed a great deal of direction and management of childrens curricular experiences, backmarkers in particular were directing their own strategies and playing a dynamic role, independent of teacher direction, in structuring and handling their own experiences of the delivered curriculum. The teachers appeared to be unaware of these processes as evidenced by the teacher interview data highlighting their view that the paper timetable was representative of the children's curricular interaction (see 3.8).

### 3.13.3. Specific Strategies.

**If you were doing English / maths and your teacher said change to maths / English but you hadn't finished, what would you do ?**

What was interesting here was the sheer range of strategies that children introduced.

Table 3.4. shows the range used by the group of backmarkers. Note that the total number of strategies used by the children is some three times greater than the number of children: this is because children typically outlined several different strategies.

The strategies were also categorized as passive or active. A passive strategy was one that involved the child in little action e.g. ' allow the backlog to grow', as opposed to a strategy involving the child in some direct action e.g. "I'd take the work home".

Table 3.4. shows this contrast in category. As the table indicates, backmarkers preferred overall passive rather than active strategies. Altogether, these passive strategies accounted for 92 or 68% of those outlined by backmarkers. For example, all 41 backmarkers allowed the lesson backlog to build up over a day and 40 reported also allowing this accumulation to carry over days (Column 1 and 2). Another fairly common strategy recorded by 11 children, was to simply leave work unfinished.

Active strategies included attempts to speed up the work rate in order to reduce backlog demands (nine

**TABLE 3.4. BREAKDOWN OF COPING STRATEGIES USED BY BACKMARKERS AND FRONTRUNNERS TO MAINTAIN CURRICULUM CONTACT (Back. = backmarkers, Front. = Frontrunners)**

|     |                                              | Back. (n=41) | Front. (n=12) |
| --- | -------------------------------------------- | ------------ | ------------- |
| P1  | Allow backlog to cumulate over the day       | 41           |               |
| P2  | Allow cumulation over several days           | 40           |               |
| P3  | Just leave the work unfinishd                | 11           |               |
| P4  | Look at timetable/lang. card/worksheet       |              | 5             |
| A1  | Try best to keep up generally                | 2            |               |
| A2  | Increase speed of working                    | 9            |               |
| A3  | Ask for help from other children             | 15           |               |
| A4  | Work during the free period                  | 7            |               |
| A5  | Work during play break                       | 1            |               |
| A6  | Take the work home                           | 8            |               |
| A7  | Do more of same activity                     |              | 9             |
| A8  | Practice multiplication tables               |              | 6             |
| A9  | Do some reading                              |              | 5             |
| A10 | Miscellaneous (e.g. do sums/write/Lego)      |              | 3             |

A indicates active strategy; P indicates passive strategy.

children) or simply trying to do your best (two children).
Other active strategies included working through free-
choice periods (7) and in some cases taking work home (8).

It is interesting to note the effect of institutional
constraints, on negotiation on the children's possible
decisions about active coping. Several children mentioned
that working through the play or dinner time was a
strategy but this was limited as a practical idea as it
was difficult because there was no teacher to 'look after
you.' One child commented in respect to this issue of
supervision that "wet plays are good because you can stay
in and catch up with your work."

Table 3.4 indicates that frontrunners used 5 broad
strategies that were quite different from those used by
backmarkers. This is possibly due to the demands from the
classroom delivered curriculum being different on the two
groups.

The most common strategy for frontrunners was to
carry on with the activity they had already finished.
This was exemplified by the statement that "I'd finished
the classwork so my teacher told me turn over and do the
next page". It is interesting to note that the two
following most common strategies fit extremely closely
with the common image of the traditional directive
classroom model. These were the 'strategy' of either
practising tables or taking up some reading, two very
traditional curricular activities. Following these, a

variety of strategies are used by only one or two children. It may be noted that although the frontrunners' strategies fall mainly under the heading of 'active', they really seem to consist of fillers, in the sense that they are used to fill in time until the next lesson is due or with the rest of the class have finished the activity- although the backmarker data suggests this latter state is often not reached. It does seem that the filler strategies are more teacher suggested and taken up by frontrunners as opposed to the 'creative', self-developed strategies of the backmarkers (Table 3.3.).

### 3.13.4. Affective Consequences:

**"How do you feel when you finish early / can't finish?"**

This particular question looked at the affective responses of the children in relation to the classroom pace. The contrasting feelings of frontrunners and backmarkers with regard to being out of step with the delivered lessons are outlined in Table 3.5.

The main distinction between the two groups of children, is the extent of negative feelings as a response to their position in relation to the curricular pace. While the frontrunners report never feeling negative about finishing early, the backmarkers recorded negative feelings as normal.

Frontrunners' statements about their feelings in

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**TABLE 3.5.    REPORTED FEELINGS OF BACKMARKERS (B) AND FRONTRUNNERS (F) CONSEQUENT ON MISMATCH WITH TEACHER-DIRECTED TIMETABLE**

| Class | Negative Feelings about Self | | Positive Feelings about Self | | No Marked Feelings | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | F | B | F | B | F |
| 10 - 11 yrs (n = 14) | 7 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1* | 1 |
| 9 - 10 yrs (n = 17) | 13 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 8 - 9 yrs (n = 13) | 9 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 - 8 yrs (n = 9) | 5 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 |

* Child's comment projected blame on to teacher

classrooms where they felt comfortable and able to excel, included "I feel good" "It's nice" "I feel I'm better than the rest". These children obviously felt extremely positive about their abilities to finish classwork quickly and ahead of others.

Backmarkers on the other hand, felt generally negative about their 'lagging' behind, reflected in statements of the sort "I'm useless" "I feel thick" "I don't feel good".

It is interesting to note that three backmarkers in one class felt positive about their position. They used statements of the kind: "I feel okay", "I feel good", "cos I do my best"

The role of the teacher in creating the curricular pace mismatch, was drawn on by only one child with the statement that "He gives us work that's too hard". It thus appears that the children also, have been affected by the shift of removing the responsibility for failure from the teacher-directive process on to the child. (See Chapter 1).

## 3.14. DISCUSSION

Discrepancy Between Intended and Experienced Curriculum.

### 3.14.1. Is There Support For Study One's Evidence For Mismatch Existing Between The Teacher's Intended and Delivered Curriculum and The Children's Experienced Curriculum in The Directive Classroom ?

While the directive teachers all supported the global view of the continuity between what they intended to teach and what they did teach, as exemplified in their acceptance of the paper timetables as a valid reflection of their teaching content, this was at variance with the children's reported experiences. This supports the findings of Study One.

### 3.14.2. Teacher Misperception:

Is There Evidence That a Perceptual Gap Was Present on The Part of The Teacher, Between The Intended and Delivered Curriculum and His or Her View of The Children's Experiences ?

The persistent 'global' view of the teachers, in respect of the current validity and future reliability of the paper timetables did not fit the children's reported experiences. However the teachers felt that the

timetables were a fair reflection, indicating the presence of a perceptual gap. Part of this process seems to be in the failure of children to draw attention of the teacher to their problems with keeping up with the pace of the delivered curriculum. No backmarker reported approaching the teacher for help as a strategy preferring instead to rely on non-teacher orientated strategies to solve pace problems. In fact this group who could have drawn the teacher's attention to pace difficulties, thereby overcoming the teacher's perceptual gap, claimed that it would have been a waste of time for a variety of reasons. The classroom consequence was a silent front of coping, which ironically could well act to support the teacher's view of the validity of the delivered curriculum as representative of children's experiences, and thereby even maintain the perceptual gap. In sum, the teachers, partly because of the nature of the children's adaptive strategies or more precisely their non-use of a 'teacher informing strategy,' failed to recognize the gap and were unaware of the children's need to cope with the pace of the delivered curriculum.

### 3.14.3. Child: Active or Passive ?

Do The Data Support an Active, Dynamic Role or a Passive, Respondent Role For Children in The Directive Classrooms ?

Table 3.4. indicates that the majority of children, the backmarkers, played a very active role in their handling of the classroom curriculum. This in a sense was forced on them by default, due to their unwillingness to draw the teacher's attention to the problems the delivered curriculum was producing. The majority of these backmarkers had become self dependent in their development of classroom strategies and in a wry sense were receiving an education in autonomous learning. The curricular pace was forcing than to plan, implement and give self feedback on coping with a range of external demands in relation to their own ability potential.

It is interesting here to note that there appears a further distinction between the demands and experiences of an active or passive role as chosen by backmarkers and front runners. Only one child out of 12 frontrunners recorded a preference for teacher-independent coping strategies (Table 3.3.). The other 11 frontrunners recorded teacher-dependent strategies for handling the curricular pace mismatch. Against this, the total sample of 41 backmarkers all recorded teacher-independent strategies. It therefore seems that while backmarkers

were learning to depend on themselves in terms of handling the environment and its demands, the frontrunners were learning to maintain dependence on the teacher for provision of environmental handling strategies. Accordingly, and in opposition to what common sense would suggest, it was the children having problems with keeping up with the classroom pace, who were receiving an educational experience based on autonomy while those best suited to handle the curricular demands, received an educational experience based on dependence.

### 3.14.4. Individual Differences in Experienced Curricula. Do Children in The Same Directive Classroom Experience Different Classroom Curricula as Suggested by The Farquhar et al. (1987) Study ?

The distinction between the behaviour and experiences of backmarkers and frontmarkers immediately underpins the point from Study One that the children in directive classrooms have distinctly different curricular experiences. A finer distinction between the curricular experiences of the children is indicated in Table 3.4. which shows the range of strategies available to cope with pace. From a range of some ten active and passive strategies, it became clear that different children used different strategies to handle the curricular demands placed on them. It also became clear that the children

used various combinations of these available strategies, often uniquely so, as if individual children had distinct styles of strategy combination and use. Accordingly, the individual child in the way he or she manipulates the curricular demands by the application of various strategies produces a distinct and individual curricular experience. Children who used the passive strategy of simply leaving work unfinished (n = 11) could be expected to differ in curricular experiences from those who used the cooperative strategy of asking other children to help (15).

Further, eight children who used the strategy of taking work home to finish, often reported receiving the help of the family while the children (9) who covered the curriculum in the classroom by using the strategy of increasing speed would not receive this family help. This kind of scenario suggests that classroom coping is bound up with the family attitudes as well as strict personality differences.

### 3.14.5. Affective Consequences of Directive Classrooms: Are There Any Affective Consequences on Children in Directive Classrooms Related to The Delivered Curriculum?

It appears that an important influence on children's feelings in the directive classroom is the presence or absence of a 'backlog' of curricular demands. Backmarkers experience a constant build up of backlogged activities and, as Table 3.4. indicates, they all report carrying this backlog over the day or even, over several days. The cumulative effect of this process is that demands are set on the children that they cannot meet because of the limited time available. This backlog appears to be active within the 'hidden curriculum' of the directive classroom and have the effect of placing demands and strain on the children to the extent that real feelings of a negative self image and helplessness are reported. Table 3.5. shows that such negative feelings are reported by 34 of the 41 backmarkers. As the pace of the backmarkers coping slows and the backlog increases then feelings of hopelessness begin to develop.

The real quality of these negative feelings can be gauged by extrapolating the individual differences shown in Table 3.2. over one year: some backmarkers would have had only half the mathematics experience of some of their fellow pupils. It is these types of differences of which

the children appear to be aware combined with the increasing backlog of work, that seems to affect academic self-image so strongly.

Frontrunners on the other hand, report no feelings of negativity about their relation with the delivered curriculum. As Table 3.5. indicates 11 of the 12 frontrunners felt very positive about their classroom role. This positive self image was reflected in statements of the sort that when finishing before others the frontrunners felt " Good" "Better than the others", compared to backmarker statements of "I feel thick" "useless" "No good".

The identification of these negative feelings within this type of classroom does not mean to say that such feelings could not be found in children from other types of classroom. In the case of the negotiating classroom however a major objective is to bring such feelings out for open expression. Through such openness, it then moves to develop strategies and skills to handle such feelings. The major difference between the two types of classroom design, directive and negotiative, is that in the directive classroom no formalized vehicle for their expression is present and it is this that makes their presence so unhealthy. The delivered curriculum of the directive classroom appears to create distinct affective responses to its demands and children attempt to cope with these in a very distinct way.

### 3.14.6. Children's View of Responsibilities.

### How Do The Children Allocate The Responsibility

### For The Situation They Are In ?

In Chapter 1, attention was drawn to the 'sleight of mind' in the directive model's relationship with children's failure to learn. The point was made that on those occasions when children fail to learn the material delivered, the teacher, instead of questioning the delivery system, places heavy responsibility on the child. The child is fitted into a range of existing 'explanations' that have developed with the method itself to defend against self-examination of the method's basic premises. These 'explanations' include child centred labelling such as 'the child has special needs', 'from a disturbed background' or 'has behavioural problems'.

Table 3.5. shows that of all the negative and positive feelings reported by the 53 children in the study, only one child suggested that the responsibility for the creation of these feelings of inadequacy / success lay with the teacher. All the other children took on very child-centred positions in reporting their feelings about the curricular demands. As do the teachers, the children look toward themselves for the failures to learn or keep up with the pace. It appears then that the children have also been socialized into adopting this sleight of

mind in their own thinking.

### 3.14.7. The Teacher-Child Complicity of Silence. Why is it That The Teacher and The Child Never Really Appear to Acknowledge to Each Other The Mismatch Between The Teachers Demands and Children's Actions ?

In addition to the factors already outlined, there is another factor, linked closely to the hidden curriculum and one that acts to maintain lack of communication. It is a type of 'conspiracy of silence'. The teacher monitors the lesson yet observations in this study suggest that this monitoring has little more than a self-fulfilling function about it. The teacher checks what the child is doing and if it something other than the directed activity, asks the child why. Children have been observed to answer with a statement of the sort, "I'm just finishing / trying to finish". This is taken by the teacher as acceptable, because the child, is at least in the teacher's eyes, involved in a legitimate, earlier task and moreover not 'stuck'.

It thus appears that the strategies children use, especially the backmarkers, lead to stylised transactions which become a kind of currency for dealings between child and teacher, a currency whose value is understood by both.

When the reality of the curricular mismatch could be addressed, both fall into a type of interaction that shifts attention from the no doubt uncomfortable mismatch problem to a coping or management frame.

### 3.14.8. The Backmarker - Frontrunner Distinction.

Caution is needed against directly associating frontrunner - backmarker status with actual ability. The data indicates that high ability children can also be bored backmarkers. Secondly, a child perceiving himself as a frontrunner may not fit observational facts-as occurred for two cases in this study. Of course, this apparent mismatch between ability and self - perception may be no more than overcompensation and therefore one more kind of coping strategy available to backmarkers.

### 3.14.9. The Validity Of The Present Data.
### Could The Discrepancies Outlined Have Arisen Artificially ?

In Study Two, it is possible that the sharply dichotomous frontrunner - backmarker distinction arose because the children picked up some kind of cue in the questions. However no cue was obvious and there was no hypothesis that this would be the result of the questions.

## 3.15. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESULTS FOR THE DIRECTIVE MODEL AND THE CONCEPT OF THE DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM.

The directive classroom method outlined in earlier chapters is based on the quasi-behaviourist premise that what the teacher teaches the child learns: the transmitted model of knowledge. It holds closely to the view that there is a direct one-way causal link between teacher and child. This has led to the general implication of the process-product approach namely, that all children receive the same curricula experience within a directive classroom (Bennett 1976; Galton et al. 1980).

The data from these two studies show that this is not the case. Further, the data question the traditional definition of the directive classroom. Far from the children receiving a similar curricular experience, they receive very different both academic and affective experiences based mainly on the types of coping strategy they use to handle the directed curriculum.

**How has the directive model become so dominant in educational literature ?**

Part of this process has already been outlined in earlier chapters. The main distinction between the form of the traditional directive model and its supporting data and these studies, is the dependence of the former on a literature that is based on 'the teacher as lens' research methodologies.

The differences found here between teacher and child data warns against over dependence on pictures of classroom reality derived from collations of teachers views. A positive example, Galtons more recent work is in this spirit of a more child-centred approach (Galton, 1987a).

It is suggested that the common picture of the child and the teacher favoured by the directive model, as sustained in the literature and as believed by many practising teachers, is not a valid construction of the reality of primary classroom processes. The directive model seems on inspection to have the ontology of myth rather than of reality.

The important point for this thesis is that children do appear to be playing very active, negotiating roles between teacher demands and personal curricular experiences even within the bastion of the 'directive classroom'. Teachers appear to be involved in processes, such as silent complicity other than simply the models curricula delivery aspect. These and related behaviours might be brought out into the open, in a classroom that supports their expression, so that their potential can be fully realised. Such a more child-centred classroom organization structure might be that of The Negotiating Classroom.

# CHAPTER 4:  THE NATURE OF NEGOTIATION.

4.1.      DEFINITIONS: DOMAINS OF NEGOTIATION

4.1.1.    The Business Domain

4.1.2.    Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Domain

4.1.3.    The Sociolinguistic Domain

4.1.4.    The Play Domain

4.2.      INSTITUTIONALIZED KNOWLEDGE

4.3.      INSTITUTIONAL ROLE.

4.3.1.    The Contribution of Goffman

4.4.      TEACHER BEHAVIOUR.

4.5.      IN-CLASSROOM STUDIES.

4.6.      LATENT AND MANIFEST PROCESSES.

4.7.      THE INDIVIDUAL PERSPECTIVE.

4.8.      CONTEXTUAL PRESS.

4.9.      AS COPING.

4.10.     COHORT PRODUCTION.

4.11.     POWER BALANCES.

4.12.     SUMMARY.

# CHAPTER 4:   THE NATURE OF NEGOTIATION.

## 4.1. DEFINITIONS: DOMAINS OF NEGOTIATION

Consider the following brief encounters;

1) A driver parks in a pay-and-display car park and enters the shops, on returning a traffic warden is placing a ticket on the car window.

Driver: "Excuse me but I only nipped in for a moment to see if my wife needed a lift."

Traffic Warden: "Have you a display ticket, sir?"

Driver: "Well no.....but I was only gone two minutes"

Warden fixes ticket to car window.

2) A child enters a classroom on a Monday morning.

Teacher: "Sit down, open your language books and copy down the words on the board......, sit down (raised voice)....come on we haven't got all day......don't forget the date."

Child: "Sir.......     Sir......."

Teacher: " I said open your book and copy the work on the board."

After various scraping of chairs, bag searching, pencil sharpening, the child begins to follow the instructions.

3) At a staff meeting on the National Curriculum the staff of a primary school are given a set of mathematics record-keeping forms, intended to link in with the school mathematics scheme.

Headteacher: "These record forms are to be kept on each child in your class or group and passed on to the next teacher. They represent the minimum records on mathematics

for the children to be kept by us <u>all</u>. They should be available for inspection at all times."

Teacher: "What about the current records we keep?"

Headteacher: "These records are the official school records and must be kept by all of us, any others, you may want to keep as well, represent a useful extension but are not to replace these."

Whatever negotiation maybe (Strauss, 1978, McNeil 1981), it is traditionally assumed not to be present in these examples. However, there is confusion about what negotiation <u>is</u>. Confusion starts from a lack of definitional clarity.

Negotiation can be viewed as;

1) Conference, talks, parley, pow-wow, palaver, debate, exchange of views (Roget's Thesaurus 1979). Chambers (1975) edition does not use the term as a noun but sub-orders it under the verb 'negotiate':

Negotiate; to traffic, to bargain, to confer for the purpose of mutual arrangement, to cope successfully (Chambers, 1975).

To co-operate, to make terms, to bargain (Roget's Thesaurus, 1979)

To bargain, contact, arrange, construct, agreement, compact, understanding, adjustment, co-ordinate (Strauss, 1978).

It thus appears that a range of terms and definitions have generally been used in this area, some of which are related across definitions and others unique. This muddying of the linguistic and conceptual waters can be

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observed    more generally throughout the language and
concepts of education    and educational psychology as
practised.    It is valuable to spend time on this exercise
in view of the central role of the idea of a negotiative
classroom relationship in this thesis.

'Negotiation' is currently used in five major areas of
study within which it represents a major concept;

1. Business/industrial/political psychology.

2. Interpersonal conflict resolution.

3. The study of language development and second language
   speakers.

4. Role theory and institutional psychology.

5. Classroom interaction.

While these domains share some ground in the use of
the concept,  it is also useful  to look at the variations
of use among  them.  Consideration of such variations will
act  as  an  indicator  of  the  processes  of  concept
development and application.

### 4.1.1.  The Business Domain

Studies  in  this  domain    include  political  and
industrial  applications  and  originate  their  view  of
negotiation  as a process that is used to bring about a
resolution of differences.  Negotiation  is conceptualized
as  an  identifiable  vehicle  with  set  elements  to  be
manipulated, in a similar manner to playing chess where
again    a  finite  number  of  elements  and  moves  /
countermoves exist. The player is seen as being able to be
trained to improve  performance.  The players themselves,

be they individuals, groups or nations are of no overriding importance, what is of importance is the moves, their quality and the product of these moves, or the product of negotiation.

The conceptualization of business negotiation sees the person successful in the art as gaining more from the process than the opposite negotiator (be it a better price, higher quality, more arms reduction, whatever) while creating the illusion of the 'fair deal' all round (Haggitt, 1977).

Communication plays a paramount role in business negotiation. Training in communication skills and strategies to a pragmatic end forms the major focus. Part of the business model's use of communication is a constant referral to the pre-negotiation ideal outcome and the minimal preferred outcome for the negotiator. This continual referring back to objectives and an explicit framework of process development emphasises more clearly that the definition of negotiation in this domain is based in pragmatism with objectives set beforehand.

This conceptualization of 'negotiation' can also be seen in the educational literature, such as in Wood's (1978) use of the term 'open negotiation'. Woods developed the concept during a participant observational study of a secondary modern school. Open negotiation views teachers as attempting to maximize pupils efforts, and pupils as attempting to minimize them. As with Haggitt's (1977) view, Woods sees this process as being played out along set and practised strategies and elements

with a great deal of effort being applied by both parties
in the study of their opposite number, teacher of pupils
and pupils of teacher, before, during and after the
negotiations. The final aim for both parties is to gain
the greater advantage in the objective continuum.
Throughout Wood's discussion we see emphasis placed on the
pragmatic, practised, preset, 'objective' nature of the
business definition of negotiation. For Woods, open
negotiation is viewed as the teacher offering to do much
of the classroom work as long as the pupil remains silent
and listens. The pupils are constantly reminded of this
deal by the teacher. We see here the balancing between
the two parties' objectives, with maintenance of the
'square deal' for both sides. The business parallel is
also present in Woods emphasis on communication. He
views the arrival by teacher and pupils at a core of
meanings recognized by all in the classroom interchange
as a vital part of the process.

## 4.1.2. Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Domain

The concept of negotiation in conflict resolution
studies unlike that of business studies starts from the
premise that differences between negotiators are to be
explicitly identified at the start of the process. This
is an important contrast as it goes on to influence the
nature of the process and role of the parties. In the
business domain, skills of manipulation were paramount
during the ongoing process, while in the conflict
resolution domain, honest communication, compromise and

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open expression are emphasized (Roderick, 1987).

The study of conflict resolution and the use of negotiation models actually began within the business domain with the publication in 1924 of Mary Follett's 'Creative Experience', the aim of which was to aid the business world in dealing more effectively with interpersonal conflicts in the work place. The emphasis was then on negotiation as a process to meet the underlying needs or interests of individuals openly. It was not seen as a business-skills based process one of whose main objectives would be to create the illusion of the square deal.

Schools in the United States have been involved in developing negotiation between children along Follett's lines. Various training programmes have been set up to develop these more open social skills of negotiation with children to help tackle conflict situations. The main emphasis in most of these programmes is to develop skills of an empathetic nature (Rogers and Coulson, 1969) which will allow the individuals involved to see the other's point of view. The skills emphasised are active listening and direct communication, and these point up the objective of empathetic rather than manipulative interactions as found in the business world.

## 4.1.3. The Sociolinguistic Domain

The main emphasis in the use of the concept of negotiation in studies of language, semantics and second language acquisition is developmental. The idea is that

children learn to negotiate from birth. Thus negotiation is acquired and not formally taught as a skill as would be business or conflict resolution models.

This sociolinguistic model of negotiation holds that from birth the child interacts with the caregiver. The focus is then on how with each interaction, particularly linguistic or sound based, the caregiver accepts each initiation by the child and develops and extends it. This process is seen as one of systematic 'negotiating' between the child and caretaker throughout the early years and on into later life (Young, 1983). The key ideas in this perspective on negotiation are evidently not those of formal skills training or gamesmanship or even explicit recognition of each party's position as outlined in earlier models. Rather they are the ideas of an implicit, personal social interaction, obviously developmental in nature, and based in unconscious as well as conscious interactions between caretaker and child. It is also implicitly assumed that all human beings have experience from birth of these forms of negotiation.

The emphasis on the element of interaction is also seen as vital by supporters of this perspective in the study of the development of linguistic meaning (Wells, 1979). An important part of this interactive process can be observed in studies of telegraphic speech; the shared language structures that develop between mother and child as they interact (Brown, 1973). Similar importance to interactive meaning development between two people is held by researchers such as Wells (1979) who see the same

premise applicable to the development of meaning in second language learning. This premise holds that meaning is not only based on but derives from interactive negotiation. Meaning 'is' part of the negotiation process and negotiation 'is' part of meaning development, providing a degree of intricacy that can not be separated under models of negotiation such as that of Wells (1979).

Another tenet of this linguistic perspective develops out of the view that meaning is a key part of negotiation, and that negotiation involves the move toward a mutual system of understanding and meaning. This process can be exemplified in the learning of a second language. When the child emits a word or phrase or guesses a response to a cue, the teacher is said to respond by leading the child through a defined and structured network of negotiations towards an agreed or 'true' meaning. The child then uses this to work through and reach an agreed meaning in the way which is best suited to the given child.

This working through to an agreed meaning suggests a further tenet of this sociolinguistic perspective, that of a dynamic test-adapt-retest progression. It also places a greater emphasis on the individuality of negotiation in contrast with the business use which is structured, finite and games theory related. The adoption of this sociolinguistic meaning of negotiation in general educational practice, would allow syllabus planners to be less concerned with structuring the way in which

children experience the contents of a given scheme and
more with developing the interactive nature of materials.

### 4.1.4. The Play Domain

The use of the concept of negotiation in play research
is similar but not identical to its use in the language
acquisition model. Both paradigms place a key emphasis on
the developmental nature of play negotiation. Thus, Goncu
(1987), views social pretend play as a process of
negotiation involving children's attempts to reach a
shared meaning for the structure and maintenance of play
activities. An important element in this play
negotiation, and one that extends the sociolinguistic
interpretation, is the view that the quality of the
negotiations changes as the context and the form of the
child's play develops. Different elements that make up
play negotiation are held to develop at different points
and at different rates. The individual child enters the
situation with a personal foundation of negotiating
knowledge and experience, and from this moves through
various phases of play to a shared foundation with others.
Individuality is important: movement to a shared
negotiating knowledge may vary across different children
interacting with others during play.

Inherent in this perspective, then, are two emphases
also found in the second-language domain's use of the
negotiation concept: an emphasis on developmental nature
and an emphasis on movement through social interactions
to a position of shared meaning. However the play domain

places a heavier emphasis on the individuality of this development between a given individual and various others. In Goncu's (1987) model of social play development four phases are held to form the bases of interactions of social play: becoming a member of the group, making a transition into the pretend mode with others, planning and maintaining social pretend play, and terminating pretend play. The types of skill necessary for these phases of negotiative development are held to develop with experience, as in the sociolinguistic notion of negotiating in second language learning. Moreover, these skills are held to be heavily dependent upon the development of shared representations and forms of communication.

Support for this play perspective on the nature of negotiation can be found in research into day care for children and studies of children's play interactions (Munagian, 1980). Toddlers in day care centres have been observed by researchers to practise the art of negotiation in play with peers, and attempts by care givers to develop the individual childs negotiation skills have also been observed (Munagian, 1980).

McDonald (1989) has pointed out how her role as a nursery assistant in a school nursery is heavily involved with developing toddler's 'negotiative skills' such as sharing, turn taking and bargaining. McDonald emphasises the individuality of the process, pointing out that different children are at different positions in their development of these skills. She does however take the

model a step further by introducing the idea of temporal fluctuation. Often when working with a 3/4 year old, the negotiating skills that the child uses one day are not used on other occasions although they are still of course latent in the childs negotiating repertoire. This within-child variation principle is not brought out in the negotiation domains earlier outlined. Rather, they tacitly assume that as long as factors in situations are held steady, then the same type of negotiative behaviour can be expected.

## 4.2. INSTITUTIONALIZED KNOWLEDGE.

Of the various forms of knowledge, school knowledge in particular is 'socially constructed' in the sense that it is explicitly dealt with in a social setting, the classroom, and is held to be valid via a representative of society, the teacher.

The teacher attempts via a range of processes to convince children of the validity of this classroom knowledge, a process which itself is heavily dependent on the consensual nature of the group and the use of negotiation to this end.

In this process, negotiation is seen as a movement toward a shared, accepted reality, a process that is dynamic, developmental, individualized and not necessary manifest (Hannibuss, 1987).

As with the domains of language acquisition and social play, the application of the concept develops from the principles of:

1) developmental change,

2) active individual participation, not  passive

   responding,

3) a dynamic process of interaction,

4) socially based process.

Particularly relevant to the concept and its use in studies of knowledge development is this  emphasis on the social basis of negotiated knowledge.

Furthermore  knowledge  negotiation  and  business negotiation have certain similarities.  First, the teacher is often aware of the position to which he / she is using negotiation in a manipulatory sense to move on the child's knowledge.  There is often in the teacher's mind an end objective, explicit in nature, perhaps some  parcel of facts  the child should be able to repeat, perhaps the development of a skill, or often simply a basic  docility in the classroom (McNeil, 1981).  To this end, negotiation thus takes on a highly structured nature, with finite moves, expectations and set responses.

It is at this point that we see a much broader use of the negotiation concept  as it begins to be linked to concepts  of  institutional  knowledge  and  to  the infrastructure of institutions that mould this knowledge. This moulding process is itself  strongly influenced,  as is the 'authority' of the  knowledge,  by the types of structures and people that make up the given institution. Thus, each institution, by accepting greater validity for some  types  of  knowledge  or  experience  over  others, directly influences the nature and form of any negotiative

processes that can exist within that institution. This influence of 'institutional press' on the nature of negotiation, the form it takes and its recognizable elements can be found in studies such as those by Hincks (1986), Ingram and Worrall (1987) and McNeil (1981).

Hincks' study of Countesthorpe College particularly indicates how an institutional press that is openly supportive of the role of negotiation in an educational institution, directly affects the form and nature that negotiation takes. Countesthorpe College is run on an explicit model of negotiation built on five basic principles:

1) Equality of parties.

2) The validity of the individual's interests.

3) That verbal communication is paramount and forms a basis to the negotiative process.

4) That planning, objectifying and feedback form an intricate part of the process.

5) That self direction is preferable.

Heavy emphasis is placed on the facilitator role that the teacher must adopt. The teacher must work within a model of negotiation that sees the process as a fine kaleidoscope of the five principles that identify the policy / influence / values of the institution.

In comparison, many primary schools are run on a model of institutional role that explicitly or implicitly creates a very different institutional press and hence a very

different context for any negotiation processes present. McNeil (1981) indicates how the dominance of a management model of curriculum theory, research and curriculum development and evaluation has pervaded American schools since the 1920's, thereby emphasising a 'knowledge product' ethos. This movement has placed main emphasis on instructional techniques and rather little on the role of the pupil: the pupil is seen as a passive member of the institution. Therefore unlike the institutional structure of Hincks' Countesthorpe that supported a form of active, individual based negotiation as vital to the development of students, the structure of many primary classrooms is dominated by an institutional policy predicting a very different model of 'negotiation'.

In such classrooms, any concept of negotiation must fit into a teacher-dominated model, based in target management, latent bargaining and, above all, in measurable knowledge production. In this model, or really parody of negotiation, the values of personal interest, opinion and knowledge are not present; they are replaced by tenets of direction, manipulation, and non-humanistic values of the kind found in business negotiation. These values are held to function most effectively toward the primary aim of the institution, the transmission of consensual knowledge. McNeil's 1981 study suggests that for playing the role of silent, attentive, passive pupils, children are offered pre-packaged units of consensual knowledge to be noted and memorized. They are not expected to expend too much

energy on reading, researching or classroom work, as long as they remain passive and play the expected docile, institutional role. This form of <u>covert</u> negotiation develops a false consensus on both the part of the teacher and the pupil. While both are aware of the private knowledge they hold about issues relevant to information being transmitted in the classroom, this knowledge has little validity in a public arena where only consensual knowledge is recognized. Both teacher and pupil experience a split and the development of a false consciousness in relation to the two distinct forms of knowledge being transmitted. This distinction between negotiation at the public level and the nature of private knowledge, that is, the possibility of a dual element working within a negotiative process and the further distinction between explicit and implicit negotiations point to very important features not found in other domains of application. Note that this idea of false consensus as discussed here is not conceptually far removed from the 'silent conspiracy' between teacher and child discussed in the previous chapter.

It is also worthwhile noting that the concepts of institutionalized knowledge and of expert knowledge as they inhere in our educational institutions and in the day-to-day teacher's role, themselves limit the nature of the negotiative process that can take place.

## 4.3. INSTITUTIONAL ROLE.

Studies which place heavy emphasis on role structure in institutions like schools, and on the structural nature of these role positions allow little room for a conceptualization of negotiation or even of individuality. Studies such as that of Bowles and Gintis (1976) and their use of the concept of economic determinism and Bernstein's (1977) use of the cultural determinist perspective place such heavy emphasis on the constraints of the child's role position in the classroom or family, that children are implicitly assumed to be passive 'receivers' of their role. Their role position is held to be so structured and defined that negotiation must be almost totally absent as a viable concept. Notions of self-direction or of individual responsibility are also non-existent.

From Bowle's et al. (1976) position the school has replaced the family and the church as the major socialising influence, and education has developed to become the major socializing process of the young. Influences such as institutional position, discipline structures and training in acceptance of authority outside of the family, are such strong role frames on the pupil, that negotiation as a concept is not addressed.

Support for a determinist position in other areas of educational research can be found in studies such as that of Barker Lunn (1970) whose survey of 2,500 Junior school teachers using a questionnaire methodology, reported the dominance of a classroom environment which was teacher

directive in nature and focussing on mathematics and English. The expectation of these teachers toward their pupils was reported as being one of the teacher as the director of the class and transmitter of factual knowledge, monitoring silent seat work and marking books produced by solitary workers. This type of study, questionnaire based and teacher centred, of course implicitly assumed that teacher's responses to questionnaires were valid measures of classroom life and that children are indeed passive receivers of classroom processes (cf. Chapter 3 which offered evidence that this is not the case).

### 4.3.1. The Contribution of Goffman

A variation of the determinist perspective on institutional role, and one which does now address this issue of negotiation can be found in the work of Goffman (1968). He outlines the highly structural nature of institutional roles and role positions and their influence on the individual in settings such as prisons, mental hospitals and schools. Goffman does not 'pacify' the role holder to the extent found in Gintis, Bernstein or Barker Lunn. Rather he addresses the issue of negotiation via what he calls 'secondary adjustments'. These secondary adjustments are the habitual arrangements that an individual within an institutional role slot uses, to 'get around' the expectations of that role. Examples in schools include teachers who do not use school-based schemes of work, pupils who put forward the illusion of

involvement only when teacher is around, and school keepers who extend their lunch hour from eleven to three. The usefulness of a concept such as secondary adjustment is that it widens the domain of structural and cultural determinism and the use of role theory by allowing the individual an active part. This is created by allowing a far more dynamic and active effect on role by the individual that occupies a role slot within an institution like school. He is no longer the passive receiver of structural, cultural and role influences.

In extending the concept, negotiation now has a place in institutional role theory, the nature of which is based on the principles of it being:

1. Individualistic

2. A dynamic process

3. Based in strategic actions

4. An ongoing, developmental process

5. Based in social exchange and interactions

Goffman also introduces issues that include a wider consideration of negotiative processes. People are not seen as simply fitting into a role, they interpret it, change it and actively play it with individual style. Because of Goffman's emphasis on such principles, consideration may be given to ideas such as role boundaries, how these work and how negotiation is used to change them. Types of behaviour that cross Goffman's 'legitimate' role boundaries would include the teacher who gives private lessons in lunch breaks. The idea of secondary adjustment shows how the legitimate boundaries

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of an institutional role, as defined by the organization, can thus be extended into the illegitimate by the actions of role holders. Goffman's work has the effect of widening the perspective placed on negotiation and introduces the need to consider situations and contexts and their influence on the content of any negotiation. Consideration of negotiation without these elements would be tantamount to considering negotiation in a social vacuum.

The concept of secondary adjustment also reminds us of the need to consider the very nature and the principle of individuality in negotiation. The response of the child to its structural role in school is not the simple reaction to a stimulus but is a very individual response to role pressures. The individuality of this responding is based on a unique constellation of plans and strategies on the child's part and this in time brings personal values and characteristics into negotiation. It suggests that individuals will not share such a common perspective of response to context demands. The introduction of an individuality principle into role enactment now raises issues of how individual teachers and children perceive role, with its structures and restraints - a far more phenomenological position. A teacher looking for promotion will be sensitive to the promotional aspects in the school context. The teacher who wants to lower her stress levels, will be sensitive to aspects that reduce demand and develop regimented processes. Each teacher's perspective is unique to her and often not a perceptual

framework held by others.

So the teacher who puts promotional aspects to the fore, changes through her actions the ongoing context. Unlike the structural and cultural determinist positions, role is not isolated from the individual occupier and therefore there exists a relationship between the occupier's past, present and future negotiations as ongoing, dynamic occupier of that position. This emphasises the developmental aspect of negotiative nature.

Negotiation as a continuous testing and redefining of role boundaries also links with conceptualizations of negotiation found in George Kelly's (1955) idea of implicit interactional elements in negotiation, and in Strauss's (1978) 'Silent bargaining'. Within the use of the secondary adjustment concept it seems probable that individuals could 'agree silently' on forms of behaviour that stretch the institutional limits : to all purposes a silent bargain. This phenomenon can indeed be seen in any school: a group of children who spend five minutes longer returning to class after play than normal, or in teachers who continue sitting in the staffroom after the whistle has gone. No explicit planning or discussion has taken place but a group behaviour occurs and tests the institutional role boundaries.

In summary Goffman's work extends the limitations of the structural and cultural determinists view of negotiation and allows other elements to be recognized.

These are:

1. The individual's theories and strategies of
   negotiation.

2. Variation in strategies and tactics used as part of
   negotiation.

3. The significance of institutional boundaries in
   negotiation

4. The limitations of social, institutional and role
   structures on negotiative form.

5. The influences of individual and institutional
   perspectives.

6. The individual's past negotiative and role experiences
   as influencing the nature of negotiation.

7. The function of silence or implicitness in negotiation.


From this view of institutional infrastructure
effects, the model of negotiation is widened far more
broadly than other frames we have been discussing.
Negotiation now takes in elements beyond the immediate
situation of the individual, beyond the life experiences
and training that individual has received and to some
extent beyond the persons that individual interacts
with. Here is a model of negotiation that takes in the
effects of the very culture the person is in and of the
institutions that represent that culture as key factors.
Such a perspective is far from the micro-analysis of the
concept found in business or social play applications of
negotiation. It is much closer to the broader perspective
of the social reproduction theorists (Bernstein, 1977)

who view the control of knowledge as the bases for
cultural reproduction, especially through the institutions
of society.

## 4.4. TEACHER BEHAVIOUR.

The breadth of this use of negotiation as a concept
and work such as that of social reproduction theorists,
has led to the highlighting of another element which may
be present in a model of negotiation. However it does not
arise directly from work on such a broad social
perspective but from studies of teacher behaviour in
classrooms and as a criticism for accepting the social
reproductivist point of view too readily. A number of
researchers have indicated the existence of a distinct
difference between what teachers set out to teach in the
classroom, (the knowledge they aim to impart) and what
they actually do teach and impart when the time arises
(Ingram and Worrall, 1990; Farquhar et al 1987; Bennett
et al. 1984). The significance of this observation in a
negotiation context is that it suggests that a teacher's
- or an institution's-perception of what knowledge they
are imparting may not be what is actually transmitted or
received by the child. It suggests a distinction between
an intended and an actual, or theoretical and applied
use of a model of negotiation. Both Farquhar et. al.
(1987) and Ingram and Worrall (1990) indicate that
teachers are not aware of the children's curricular
experiences to the extent that they would claim to be.

Further data supporting this distinction can be found

in Hincks' study of Countesthorpe (1986) and McNeil's study of classroom knowledge (1981). Countesthorpe had adopted an explicit negotiation model, a model based on the validity of the individual's perspective, interests, equality and the right to self direction in learning. However, the very nature of the societal press on the institution and the logistics of running an organization within the structure of a local education authority, created differences between this intended model and actual model of negotiation in situ. This distinction is strongly indicated in Hincks's paper (1986) where he talks about an institution at an abstract level creating knowledge based on progressive principles but at the same time incorporating contradictory principles. These might include: students in 'tutorial' groups of up to 30, compulsory subject lessons, the need to prepare for and sit public examinations, difficulties of actually running a record keeping system based on teacher-student discussion and problems of carrying out negotiations in groups of 30 students to one teacher.

## 4.5. IN CLASSROOM STUDIES.

In education in general, little room has been allowed for conceptualization of negotiation in the teaching process. White and Pring's "Implementing the 14 to 18 Curriculum" (1983) point out it is a process 'unknown' to secondary teachers. This has been historically so due to the domination of the directive teaching method.

In reviews of primary education and practice, a similar position has been observed, again due to the ascendancy of the directive method of teaching in primary classrooms (Barker Lunn, 1970; Bennett, 1976 / 1984; Desforges and Cockburn, 1987). The failure of these studies to find any evidence of negotiative processes may well be lue to theoretical perspectives that placed limits on the types of data they looked for and gathered. Barker Lunn (1970) and Bennett (1976) depended heavily on teacher questionnaires relating to specific practice rather than observation of teacher-child interaction. The problem could therefore have been not that negotiation was absent from these research classrooms but that it was not sought, while data supporting a passive child role and teacher directed environment was.

More interactionist researchers have however found negotiation processes in children's behaviour in classrooms, playgrounds and natural settings, Krappmann et al. (1987), Rich (1985), McNeil (1981), Woods (1981).

Krappmann et al. (1987) carried out a classroom observational study of 10-12 year olds and categorized 200 interactions as negotiation based. For Krappmann, negotiative actions include;

1. Individual differences in interactive strategies.
2. A domain effect (different varieties of strategies are used to deal with different types of problems).
3. A dynamic role by the person.
4. An interactive basis between individuals.
5. A basis in communication between parties.

6. An emotional element.

7. An attempt to influence the behaviour and negotiative style of others (strategies of manipulation and coercion, offer, reply and reasoning).

8. Evidence that a relationship may well exist between strategy style and  age / experience and the individual's style of reasoning.

9. Evidence that a social effect may also be present whereby  friends use styles of negotiation similar to themselves and different from those of  non-friends.


## 4.6. LATENT AND MANIFEST PROCESSES.

An idea  not suggested in Krappmann's study is the possibility of latent (unstated, unconscious)  as well as manifest elements within classroom interactions.   The presence in classroom interactions of so many types of cue falling under the broad headings of verbal and non-verbal behaviour, does suggest that  negotiation  involves an element of  constant  searching  on  the  part  of  the individual for signals of mood, meaning, aims and so on in others (Green and Weade,   1985).   The negotiator realizes the need to recognize cues that form part of the overt intentional or self presentation behaviour of others  and those that form part of the covert unaware behaviours; such as body language, eye to eye contact.  This would be in part,  developmental as the negotiator becomes more experienced in recognition of such cues.

Children learn quickly the idiosyncrasies of their teachers.   The  writer   remembers   a  class  assembly

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organized by a group of nine-year-olds who very
selectively worked through every member of a school
staff mimicking each one painfully but honestly
including intonation of voice and habitual phrases, body
position habits, displacement habits such as hair stroking
and beard scratching. This implicit / explicit element
of negotiation has also been recognized by McNeil (1987)
in the types of classroom knowledge used and expressed by
teachers and children in classroom interactions.

## 4.7. THE INDIVIDUAL PERSPECTIVE.

The concept of the individual perspective within
negotiation has been supported in classroom studies
identifying the types of behaviours children and teachers
use to cope with classroom life. The "Boys in White"
study by Becker et al. (1961) emphasised the necessity to
look at an institution and classroom behaviour through the
eyes of the person under study. This approach based in
symbolic interactionism indicated how the classroom that
the teacher, child or researcher sees, may not only be
different for each but how with one teacher and twenty
seven children, it could well be 'twenty eight
classrooms' that needed observing. Principles that
would also be part of the symbolic interactionalist's view
as to the nature of negotiation include a role for
individual consciousness and the individual's analytical
style of others values, attitudes and expectations as part
of interactive negotiations. A type of 'sussing out' of
the other person and where they are 'coming from'. This

uniqueness of the individual's perspective is a paramount
principle in the symbolic interactionalist's perception
of negotiation, e.g. Becker et al. (1961).

Becker also emphasises the influence of age,
friends, past experiences, institutional context and
structure as well as the individual's own objectives i.e.
learning the teacher rather than learning the syllabus.
Societal press is also identified as an influence
especially insofar as in its wider sense it represents
the attitudes the individual has developed from the past
experiences within the family, from the media and from
other educational and societal institutions.


## 4.8. CONTEXTUAL PRESS.

The concept of societal press is reduced
particularly in the interactionalist studies of classrooms
to the idea of contextual press and its role in
negotiation. Contextual press represents the effects that
the immediate environment has on the nature of
negotiation. Teachers and to some extent children make
decisions externally to the classroom as to their aims,
objectives and the procedures that lessons will take, and
often change these within the ongoing processes of the
classroom. A child who arranges for his small group of
friends working on a painting to take as long as possible
to avoid the next activity of story writing, changes this
when the class are told that on finishing the activity
they would play rounders.

The strategic level decisions are very different

from the tactical level decisions that have to be made in the flux of the classroom (Bellack, 1966). Galton (1987a) suggests that this press of the classroom leads to what he calls a conversion process: the negotiation process is converted from overt to covert in order to create some balance between the teacher's authority and the pupils' autonomy. Thus we have here two important concepts: that negotiation could include a process of 'conversion' in which contextual, institutional and societal press could create change in individual's negotiative strategies and plans, and the idea that negotiation has both a strategic and a tactical level element.

## 4.9. NEGOTIATION AS COPING.

The concept of strategy style as linked to that of individuality is also developed in some classroom based-research. Galton's (1987a) paper suggests three distinct strategy styles used by children to cope in secondary classrooms. Eighty per cent of children observed were found to adopt in mathematics lessons a strategy called by Galton 'easy riding'. This involved the child in giving the appearance of effortful working while in fact doing so as slowly as possible. A classroom context that involved a great deal of individualized activity led to fifty per cent of pupils adopting a 'intermittent worker' strategy, working only when the teachers attention was on them. A third strategy type was named 'the hard grinders', as displayed by children who worked hard to finish quickly.

The importance of these observations is the support they give to the view that individuality, style and strategy all need to be considered in relation to negotiation style. Support for the involvement of a strategy repertoire concept comes from Galton's (1987b) observation that eighty per cent of pupils actively adjusted their behaviour to the style of the class teacher.

Two further concepts linked to negotiative nature and studies of coping in the classroom that need consideration are cohort production and power shifts.

## 4.10. COHORT PRODUCTION.

Cohort production is a strategy used by pupils to achieve successful interactions with teachers (Mehen, 1974). This often arises when individual children in a group are asked direct questions by the teacher. Other children are often aware if the child asked, can or can not answer the question and if the child cannot, will quickly intercede with the answer. The child unable to answer plays a part in the productive nature of the cohort by giving a recognizable sign of not knowing, such as a definite body and verbal movement of hesitation. The usefulness of this idea is its suggestion that negotiation can have as part of its makeup a group factor or a carryover effect in which one party can 'symbiotically' carry out the negotiative process for another. Symbiotic negotiation can be commonly observed in the high number of cohort productions that occur in classrooms organized on a negotiative basis.

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## 4.11. POWER BALANCES.

The concept of powershifts as a part of negotiation arises in response to the view of determinists and some researchers based in the process-product tradition that power in the classroom lies with the teacher (Barker Lunn, 1970). This view however fails to recognize the fluctuations that occur in power or control between the teacher and the pupils. The view again depends on the premise of the child as a passive receiver. Against this, interactive perspectives place considerable importance on the concept of power shifts. The concept is exemplified in the observations that pupils unhappy with implementation of new classroom regimes or practices will actively pursue strategies to counter the new practices (Woods, 1981). The pupils create a shift of power in the situation by using their behaviour as a lever to create re-negotiation of the new practices. When compromise has occurred the power is returned to the teacher in the form of 'good', submissive behaviour to the teacher's directions. This process of power shift was noted by Woods (1981) in a centre for truants where the pupils demanded of the teacher chalk and talk and a highly structured form of teaching structure so that that they could write neatly in their books (Grundsell, 1978). Pupils and teachers through continual, reciprocal interaction of their relationship in the classroom context are undergoing adjustments which have important effects on the constant flow of power and its direction.

Researchers such as Reynolds (1976) see the power of

the pupil based not only in the form in which they can use their behaviours in but also in their sheer weight of numbers in relation to the single teacher. Both factors work to create a compromise in the classroom between the teacher's aims and those of the children.

The idea of power shifts as part of negotiation, also illustrates the need to address issues of reciprocity and creativity in negotiation. The power shift concept makes one reflect on the constant back and forth movement of ideas and actions occurring in negotiation and of its essential reciprocity. Models from this perspective then support the view that at the heart of the negotiation lies a process based on the principles of construction and creativity, with a constant reciprocity and power shifting between parties.


## 4.12. SUMMARY.

This review has identified a number of principles and characteristics which can be seen as essential hallmarks of negotiation and as such represent a tentative move towards a definition. These key characteristics are interesting to read and are accordingly 'catalogued' here to provide no more than an impressionistic overview and without any implication of relative importance.

negotiation involves process, a progressive movement

...dynamism ...interaction; socially and materially

...structured interactions ...pre-interactive planning

...developmental ...developmental nature dependent upon

individuals present ...individuals negotiative history
...knowledge creation ...knowledge use ...consensual
...sequential / non-sequential ...temporal fluctuations
...trial and error ...adaptive ...qualitative
...contextual ...social / cultural ...institutional press
base ...contextual press base ...strategies
institutionally or non-institutionally based ...measurable
...duality ...conditioning ...role forming ...role related
...false consciousness ...theoretical ...secondary
adjustments ...boundaries ...legitimacy ...illegitimacy
...individual perceptions ...testing ...relationship of
different strategies to different domains ...stylistic
...repertoire of style ...repertoire of strategies ...peer
styles ...searching ...age ...sex ...strategic and
tactical levels ...media ...cohort production ...creative
...symbiotic ...power shifts ...present throughout life
...ongoing assessments ...feedback ...objective continuum
...compromising ...hierarchical ...self centred
...personal needs and interests ...responsive
...initiatory ...productive ...can involve
individuals,groups,institutions,nations ...equality / non-
equality of parties ...validity within context,institution
and society ...self directive / non self directive
...humanitarian / non-humanitarian ...communicative
...open direct communication ...non open, direct
communication ...involves verbal and / or non-verbal
communication ...core universe of meaning ...semantics and
negotiation indivisible ...empathetic ...attitudinal
...referable ...explicit frameworks ...explicit and

implicit ...covert and overt ...conversive ...pragmatic
...multi-faceted ...a resolution of differences ...choice
of options ...choice of behaviours
...strategies ...repertoire ...finite constellations of
strategies and behaviours ...teachable;trainable skills
...learnable ...behavioural change ...illusional
...manipulatory ...conscious and/or unconscious ...shared
consciousness ...movement towards a shared consciousness.

# CHAPTER 5

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# CHAPTER 5

## THE NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM

### 5.1 THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM CONCEPT.

Much of the conceptual background underlying the design of the negotiating classroom has been outlined in chapters 1 to 4. This has included an account of the dominance of the directive philosophy, its historical background and factors hindering consideration of alternative concepts of classroom organization.

Of particular influence in the development of the negotiative concept applied here, have been several recent studies including the Inner London Education Authority's 'Junior School Project' (1986).

In this survey of 2,000 children in 50 London primary schools, a range of organizational strategies were outlined together with their effects on children's learning. The report indicated that classrooms where teachers first discussed a plan of work and then encouraged children to share responsibility for that plan, appeared to be the most effective in providing wider intellectual opportunities and challenge. Indicators of this included a higher quality of communication, greater individual encouragement and a generally more positive classroom environment. These data suggested that if such characteristics could be highlighted in the structuring of classroom processes then much might be gained. It emphasized a classroom structure involving group

planning, discussion and encouragement of the child.

The North American literature emphasizes consideration of a concept closely related to the idea that negotiation is partly about each person involved, working from a greater feeling of control, self-determination. Ryan, Connell and Deci (1985) indicate that intrinsic motivation is supported and developed by children experiencing a greater sense of autonomy in the classroom. Ryan and Grolnick (1986) developed this point to indicate that it was the child's perceptions of autonomy that are important in relation to their role in the classroom if perceived competence and intrinsic motivation were to be developed.

The advantages of a classroom that is structured for these types of feelings and experiences lay in greater task involvement, increased learning, the development of a sense of responsibility and better school attendance (Deci, 1972). The structural organization of such a classroom should include then; group planning, discussion, a greater child focussed locus of control and a real emphasis on the development in the children, of feelings of personal causation through responsibility for ones own activities.

## 5.2. GENERAL FEATURES OF CLASSROOM DESIGN RELATED TO CHILD SELF - DETERMINATION.

Any general account of the nature of classroom self - determination by children must recognize a range of organizational strategies that can be used to teach children to develop feelings of personal causation. An

attempt to identify such strategies has been undertaken by Decharms (1972), and the proposed set is worth presenting at length.

Recommendations include;

(a) that the child should become aware (not told) of its own strengths and weaknesses. This could be implemented in the classroom by developing a structure that would allow the child to both succeed and fail at activities. It is important that this be followed by a discussion period to highlight what led to these success or failures and consider strategies to improve on them. These strategies can be put into action and judged in turn. It is important that children learn that strengths and weaknesses are not absolute concepts but fluctuate in relation to a range of variables, which include planning, implementation, resources, effort and interest.

(b) that discussion play a far more important role than is traditionally accepted by teachers. The child should learn the skills to discuss with the teacher in partnership the possible activities, planning of them and drawing up of reasonable objectives. It is important that the classroom ethos support such discussion sessions and that the teacher actively move, as a major part of her role, to develop such discussion skills in the child.

(c) the teacher's role needs to undergo change from the traditional director of activities to one of a negotiating partner and resource. The child needs to develop the perspective of the teacher as such a partner, available for tapping into when necessary. This could be for discussion on planning, advice or help. The child should be seen as removing some of the responsibility from the teacher within a relationship based on a negotiated partnership, developing toward increasing self determination for the child.

A major part of this process needs the teacher to re-orient her role and develop the ability to stand back from directing the child, concentrating rather on developing a relationship where both partners support each other in developing a negotiated relationship. It will be difficult for the teacher to bring about such a re-orientation, insofar as it is counter to the traditional directive role into which she has been trained and socialized. It is vital that the child also learns to see and use the teacher as a partner, recognizing the new role for both of them.

An extension of these ideas of structural reorganization can be found in Deci and Ryan (1980), who propose a range of complementary strategies to those of Decharms. These include;

(i) the encouragement of children to go for challenging experiences rather than the avoidance of challenges which the directive classroom relationship supports (equivalent to Dweck's (1986) performance goal and learning goal

distinction). It is important that children should experience the need for effort to reach set objectives as well as failure to reach them on occasion. Indeed, part of the structure of the classroom partnership should be to teach children strategies for handling failure and for raising attempts at the same activity in the future.

(ii) the fostering of curiosity and a desire to develop mastery over activities and skills, rather than, apprehension and inhibition about new activities not 'validated' by the teacher. The organizational structure of the classroom would have to recognize the 'institutional press' on the childs choices insofar as the school system would demand that the activities would still need to operate within general school policy, as well as health and safety restraints. While this institutional constraint may limit the child's choices and experience, he or she must learn that life in general consists of actions within a socially-agreed structure within which behaviour choices must be planned. However, within the redesigned classroom it would be reasonable for the child to consider strategies for external change e.g. discussing with the headteacher possible changes and the defining of valid or acceptable school activities.

(iii) the responsibility of taking on and extending elected activities. This should include the development of internal criteria for success in these activities. By designing a new classroom organizational structure around

the premises outlined, the environment created should act
to support the child's desire to set his own goals. This
self goal setting should be supportive to task
continuation and persistence as against the shallow
interest often found in directed activities.


## 5.3. THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE NEGOTIATED PARTNERSHIP AS APPLIED IN THE DESIGN OF THE NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM.

From the review of the literature outlined above and
the writer's own teaching experience, the closest design
of classroom organizational structure to fit and reflect
the criteria of the review, would be one based on a
general mode of negotiation.

However the concept of negotiation is extremely wide
and in places seemingly contradictory. It is therefore
necessary to outline a working definition that can be
applied to classroom design. To this end, this study of
designing and implementing a classroom based on
negotiating principles, applies the following parameters
as part of a working definition of the term. These
principles as offered by the writer are the foundation
elements for a negotiated partnership between child and
teacher;


(i) Dynamism.

A negotiated partnership has a interactive basis
which is on going and involves all partners in a active
role.

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(ii) Equality.

A negotiated partnership involves a move towards the nearest position of equality within institutional and wider limitations. The teacher should create as strong an ethos of equality in discussion and planning as is possible.

(iii) Co-operation.

The negotiating partners should co-operate with each other as much as possible in a move toward a shared perspective within the classroom.

(iv) Communication.

The partner's should share a common language of communication. The teacher and child should relate within a common communication system that supports shared meaning. The move taking place between the partners should be seen as toward a common communication system supporting movement toward common aim, objective's and classroom ethos.

(v) Skills

The partnership should consist of a range of skills that include communication, agreeing objectives, planning, application and feedback. Agreeing objectives will involve both partner's developing goals that are obtainable and agreed by both. This is exemplified by the case of the child and teacher who agreed that a model of the river Nile would be started and brought to the next

feedback session.  Both had a clearly agreed goal to work towards.  Planning skills involve discussion of the type of materials, structure and medium in which  the model would be developed.  The application of an agreed plan and objectives involves the partners agreeing where and how the activity will be applied.  Will the child work in a group or alone; which area of the classroom will be used ? Feedback involves the child and the teacher giving honest comments to each other on various aspects of the activity to date; problems, quality, meeting of objectives.  These skills need to be developed and practised.  In addition, the classroom organization needs to reflect structures that support the development of these skills.

(vi) Empathy.

Recognition of each other's respective interests, position, skills and goals needs to be developed.  Part of the skill of negotiation is the ability to put oneself in the partner's  role, to see the 'classroom world'  through that person's  eyes.  One of the most important elements in the development of the empathic position is the ability to really listen to the other person.  As such the classroom structure needs to support the development of active listening strategies in both the child and the teacher.

(vii) Developmental.

The skills that make up a negotiated partnership are often present in the teacher and child but only in a

rudimentary form.   The classroom organization must recognize this and facilitate the developmental nature of such skills.   It is also important that the teacher recognize that different skills within the partnership will  develop at varying rates, and as such, some will develop more fully than others over time.

(viii) Validity.

A shift in thinking is necessary for the teacher to recognize that the child's opinions, interests and aims, are as valid within the partnership and in the learning process as are the teacher's.  A child's interest in making a Mosque is as valid as a teacher's professional interest in that child writing a story.  This is perhaps the most difficult aspect  of negotiation for the teacher to accept and work toward.

## 5.4.  LIMITATIONS ON THE NEGOTIATED PARTNERSHIP OF CHILD AND TEACHER

### 5.4.1.  Social and Institutional Factors

The use of the negotiated partnership concept must recognize the limitations placed on it, by the institution and society, and as such reflect this in its application in  the  classroom.   Children  should  move  towards recognizing  and  working  within  these  limitations  while teachers should attempt to widen these boundaries as much as possible.  The aim should be that the boundaries on the partnership  should be as flexible as possible.

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### 5.4.2   Final Objective

The partnership development should contain an element of finite development.   The use of negotiation as a move toward self-determination in learning should be seen as a stepping stone in the process.   The aim of the process should be to make negotiative processes eventually almost redundant.   To move the child to a position of self-dependence, self-determination and responsibility that has little need for the teacher's active involvement in the relationship.

### 5.4.3. Affective Elements

Negotiation as a process involving dynamic individuals involves the emotions.   It is important to recognize that not all children will respond to the negotiative ethos and its demands in the same way.   It is quite possible that individual children and individual teachers may view the concept of a negotiated partnership as very different. Thus,   one partner may see as a vehicle towards self-determination, autotomous choice,   while the other sees negotiation   as   a   vehicle   through   which   to   receive direction.

### 5.4.4.   Individuality

Different children and teachers will be at different positions in their personal historical experience   of development of negotiating   skills.   Children who are socially withdrawn or speak English as a second language would be two distinct   groups.   As such the classroom

organization needs to recognize this.

### 5.4.5. Strategies

Negotiation involves access to and use of, a range of strategies. The children and teacher need to move towards developing a range of such strategies to choose from.

These factors are those that are given priority in the application of a working definition of negotiation in the classrooms design and as such are reflected in various design factors.

## 5.5. SPECIFIC DESIGN FEATURES OF THE NEGOTIATIVE CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION.

From the research outlined and the definitional properties of the applied concept of negotiation, the classroom for the present research programme incorporated five distinct features;

### 5.5.1. Physical Layout

A definite physical or spatial layout needs to be created, in terms of locations of classroom hardware, resource areas and work areas, with which the child can become familiar. Specifically this will consist of five resource areas which are linked to maths, language, art and three dimensional activities, science and music. At the outset children can be made familiar with this layout of resources and given freedom of choice as to which equipment to use in chosen activities. Examples of the types of equipment that should be available in these

resource areas include: simple microscopes, computers, musical instruments, tape recorders and a variety of paper, pens and other consumables. These should all be freely accessible without teacher direction.

### 5.5.2. Structure Of The Day

The day is structured to provide a framework within which the negotiated partnership and the organization of negotiated activities can take place. This daily framework consists of;

A group meeting at the start of the morning period in which the whole class meets to discuss, one at a time or in small groups, the types of activities they would like to carry out that morning. This meeting consists of negotiation between the child and the teacher with other children looking on. The negotiations consist of identifying possible activities of interest to the child, planing their implementation and resource needs, an area of work and possible time factors (see iii below).

Approximately twenty minutes before lunch the group reconvenes, bringing individual activities back to the group. The discussion in this period acts mainly as a feedback session identifying progress, the success of the morning sessions plans, what has been produced, enjoyment and quality. Any member of the group is eligible to join in this discussion or pass comment. Discussion of incomplete activities and future plans are an important part of this session.

The afternoon session begins with a similar, reorient

ation meeting after the lunch break, from which the children go off to carry out their negotiated activities. The end of the afternoon finishes with a feedback session of about twenty minutes before the children go home.

The conceptualization behind the structuring of the day is that the children and teacher now share a definite daily framework, within which activities are organized, and with distinct periods that support planning and feedback skill development.

### 5.5.3. The Negotiation Period

As noted earlier, all activity periods begin with a twenty-thirty minute discussion, which leads each child explicitly negotiating the activity for that period, as well as an indication of the kind of development and time period they envisage the negotiated activity taking. This period then forms a more formal component of the partnership which is developing between teacher and child. Possible activities may range from agreed continuation of what the child was doing last time, to ideas stemming from something in the news or from an idea another child may have put forward. A vital part of this period must be for the teacher to aim at developing the children's communication, planning and self feedback skills in relation to their use of active negotiation. The negotiation interactions must be seen as the available vehicle both to this end and to the shared relationship between child and teacher.

### 5.5.4. The Teacher's Role In The Negotiation Period

The teachers role during the negotiation periods needs to be framed within certain criteria. These relate to the resource feasibility of the child's suggested activity and to what might be called its educational validity. For example a child wishing to under take an activity that requires resources not available at that time, say planting seeds, would demand of the teacher a discussant role of possible strategies to overcome the problem. A child wishing to carry out design-technology experiments involving building and flying various designs of plane off the school roof would demand of the teacher a veto of immediacy on such an activity and a planning session to develop alternatives.

An important part of the teacher's role is to maintain ongoing records of the child's past activities, so that a negotiated profile can be built for each child.

The importance of such a profile is its provision of an exact record of the child's personal curriculum to date, any areas not often chosen or chosen to a great extent. This record can then be used by child and teacher as part of the negotiative process to discuss past and future personal curricular experiences, as well as strengths and weaknesses.

Within the discussion point the teacher should aim to discuss with the child the nominated activity, its quality, quantity and time factors. It is important that the teacher be aware of the difference between a deadline imposed by an external demand on the child and a

'deadline' that is self- imposed by the child.  If the teacher takes the attitude that 'it must be finished by playtime' then pressure is bought on the child to work fast, thereby  inviting low intrinsic motivation,  poorer quality of work, frustration and even in some instances fear of failure (cf. Lepper and Greene, 1975).  This deadline approach also acts to undermine any developing feeling of equality in the partnership.

On the other hand, if the teacher ensures that her role is one of co-discussant and planner, then the child should be less susceptible to such pressures.  This lifting of external demands on the child can be supported by the teacher's emphasizing that re-negotiation of allocated time is possible if the child has underestimated the demand of the activity.  The agreed criteria should be treated not as 'set in concrete' but as fluid arrangements that are open to re-negotiation. If underestimation  of time or resources has taken place then the teacher needs to draw this to the attention of the group and use it as another learning tool for discussion, in the move toward the development of forward-planning skills.  From supporting such experiences in the negotiating period, the teacher aids the child's development of not only elementary forward planning skills but also resource estimation  and ongoing feedback skills - all key components of self-responsibility in learning.

### 5.5.5. Teacher's Role During The Children's Activity Periods

While the children are involved with their negotiated activities, the teacher moves around the class, being generally available when needed. It is important that the children do not perceive this movement as surveillance, an aspect that can be overcome by waiting as much as possible for children to initiate interaction. The teacher's aim should be to replace content-free criticism or praise by relevant feedback so as to enhance the child's task involvement and skill shaping, at the same time strengthening the child-teacher relationship based on shared responsibility.

It is important that the teacher look for the real types of meaning within children's interactions with her during this activity period, empathy must be foremost. For instance, if the child approaches with a direct question of the sort; "Shall I try now or go on to something else ?", the teacher must sense if the real message behind this concerns doubts about ability, avoidance of some activity or a genuine dilemma. The teacher must constantly attempt to develop interactions away from demands on herself to give directions on resource use, planning etc. rather than partnered discussion. In this way, the teacher should begin to act more as a consultative partner, supporting enquiry in a non-directive fashion and encouraging children's independent control and responsibility for the task of the moment.

## 5.6. CONCERNS AND MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT NEGOTIATING CLASSROOMS.

This section deals with the consideration of some wider issues connected with the implementation of a negotiating classroom. It addresses in the form of question and answer, some of the major queries that have been put forward by different people over the last four years. The replies are based on field notes and personal experiences in running these classrooms and partly on data collected through various projects.

### 5.6.1. Can Young Children Genuinely Negotiate ?

This type of question, usually put forward by colleagues in schools where such classrooms have been set up, focuses on the question of young children's sheer ability either to comprehend and / or carry out negotiative behaviour. It is a question often asked from a pessimistic attitude and often reflects the teacher's own model of the child as a dependent learner.

Part of the history of such questions appears to relate in teachers' minds to a confusion between the concept of autonomy and that of negotiation. Many colleagues equated the negotiating classroom with the concept of 'one of those 'progressive' ideas or classrooms'. Built into this idea of progressive education was the rider that it meant freedom for the child to do as he pleases. In London, where these

'experimental' classrooms were once established, many
colleagues still carry anxious memories of events such as
the William Tyndale affair, occuring in the early '70's,
where children were apparently given total free choice of
curricular activity, and usually opted for the lowest
common denominator activities (Auld, 1976). It is this
type of stereotyping that a classroom design attempting to
give children a greater locus of control in curricular
activities, has to overcome.

Unlike the William Tyndale use of the concept of
'autonomy' and that subsequently developed in colleagues'
minds, the negotiating classroom demands of the child
responsibility within shared boundaries and a shared
partnership. It is made absolutely clear to the children
that they are in the classroom to learn and it is their
responsibility to do this to their best ability. Neither
the children nor the teacher are 'free'. They must carry
out their business within the structure of the classroom,
their negotiated relationship and the institutional and
social press.

Within this structure, various groups of children
from as young as 4 to 11 years of age have shown
negotiation skills and an ability to recognize and work
within the classroom structures. Children aged 11 can
obviously manage a more sophistocated form of negotiation
than a child of 4 but all display ability to develop
negotiating skills. Within these abilities, individual

differences are present, and different children need to be fostered in their skill development at different rates. But the rudimentary abilities of being able to put forward ideas, discuss them and implement plans have been found present in all children that have passed through the experimental classrooms. In general terms, the child's ability to negotiate his own or her idea is five times more common than default to the teacher (see children's negotiation strategies Chapter 3).

Children, as young as four, do have the beginning of distinct negotiation styles of the kind as outlined earlier. The idea of negotiation style will be developed in the present Chapter. For the momment we may note that this includes the immediate suggestion of activity ideas, listening to other's ideas and picking up on them or first waiting for teacher initiation. The importance of the process of a child allowing the teacher or others to initiate or negotiate activities for them is reflected in the movement toward developing negotiation skills. Each child must feel secure as these develop and the use of others as negotiators plays an important part in providing this security and a form of observational learning for the child in the development in negotiation skills. Therefore the actual process of getting to an agreed plan of action can involve a variety of paths which include, self-negotiation throughout, allowing others to negotiate for you or asking to join in with an

individual or group who have already carried out negotiation. These approaches and inclinations are not constant across days but show variation. On one day a child may play a dependent role allowing others to carry out the majority of a negotiation but on another day will initiate and carry out the negotiation. The important point within this variation is that all the children have indicated the ability to negotiate in one form or another.

### 5.6.2. Don't They Just Want To Do Art Or Something Easy All Day ?

This is another very common query from colleagues when the principles of the classroom design have been outlined. Again it reflects heavily the Tyndale / directive mythology. Three points are missed when this type of question is asked-and several implicit assumptions are being made.

Firstly, children like adults get bored easily. This type of consideration is not always entertained by adults. It is recognized in their behaviour toward children and exemplified in responses such as 'You must do it because its good for you'. 'You must finish the exercise / work card, if you want to learn to spell'. In fact throughout the classrooms that were set up for the present research, no child ever spent longer than the first week doing one activity - and that activity was mathematics. It is interesting to note that A.S.Neil

(1960) in his report on Summerhill found that this lowest common denominator response which he called the 'doldrums' stage in one case lasted fifteen years. The individual in all the time he spent at Summerhill showed no interest in attending any lesson or classroom. In the negotiating classroom with children aged from 7-11 years, it has never been observed to last longer than fifteen hours. While the doldrums concept is useful as a descriptor for some children's behaviour at times,it is rarely applied.

The second assumption behind this type of question is that it ignores the structure of the classroom and its processes. The classroom has a very public structure, there are certain times of the day when certain things must happen. There are morning and afternoon negotiating periods and feedback periods, personal curricular records to fill in twice a day. The most powerful factor in the structure of the day that acts against any doldrums are possibly the morning and afternoon feedback sessions. Here the children have at least to show the other children their morning's activity, even if they do not want to talk about it. This acts to highlight for the child that there is a responsibility to the group in terms of honouring the negotiation previously carried out.

Thirdly this type of question assumes the child has no interest in learning but is dependent on being made and told what to learn. As argued in Chapter 2 children, like

all higher mammals, have an innate curiosity that finds expression in learning. While this intrinsic interest may find little expression in the directive classroom regime, the experience of negotiation is such that children frequently ask to stay in at playtimes or to take work home, and generally show deep involvement in their activities. It is interesting in this respect to note the response of visitors who invariably remark on the range, depth and commitment of activities present.

In the climate of the negotiating classroom, a sense of internal reward develops from planning and activating one's own curricular activities and in showing one's work to others, which in turn acts to support the child's interests in learning.

### 5.6.3. Surely Children As Young As Seven Need Teacher Direction And Praise ?

The question of children's need for teacher direction has already been responded to in the discussion on the child's ability to negotiate. Essentially it appears to be more of a matter of tradition, the teacher's own need to direct and feel in 'control' than the child's need for direction. In respect of the need for teacher-derived motivators such as praise, several points need to be addressed.

The aim of the negotiating classroom is to function on a model of children's own internal motivation and not

from the use of external praise to motivate learning behaviours. Deci and Ryan (1980) found that the most common form of classroom reward used by teachers was verbal reward, something very prevalent in the directive classroom. Verbal reward has been recorded as having two contradictory effects on motivation. Thus, on some occasions it acts to heighten intrinsic motivation and on others to lower it, this effect being dependent upon the context of use and the child towards whom it is directed.

The aim of the negotiating classroom is to use praise when necessary, as a tool toward complete child independence in terms of self motivation. To this end, it is used only in a task specific sense, congratulating a child on the development of an activity and tieing it to an open ended question relating to continuation of that activity. The question of praise that teachers put forward as a 'need' the child has, does not necessarily have the positive nature implied. The negotiating classroom activates praise, only in a very task specific sense, as a tool toward internal criteria of success developing in children. The success of this strategy can be seen in children's demands to be allowed to work play and lunch times on activities. This reflects the growing sense of reward from commitment and success in carrying out internally motivated and planned activities and judging them from internal criteria.

### 5.6.4. What Does The Teacher Do If She's No Longer Teaching ?

The teacher's role is often queried, with an occasional rider to the effect that it appears the teacher is now just a sort of child minder or supervisor.

The teacher still has a very definite role in the classroom, but it is a role based on different principles.

The teacher does not forsake her role of responsibility (as the question implies) but moves from a directive role to one of providing guided choice within a framework that her actions then aim to support. The teacher thus supports and maintains the organization of the day as outlined in the design of the classroom and views herself as a partner and resource to the child.

The negotiating teacher now sees herself as a partner providing the necessary guidance to move children towards increasing self determination. She facilitates this movement by showing the child the types of choice, resources and strategies available to move toward actualizing self-determined activities. An important part of this facilitation role is to teach the child the skills of communication, planning and internalization of locus of control that lead to this state of self-determination. In some ways the teacher's role is more determined in the negotiating classroom than in the directed, as there is always present a structure of organization of which everyone is aware of.

Unlike the directive classroom where the child's main engagement with the classroom structure is in following directions, the negotiative classroom has planning sessions, feedback sessions and demands in terms of resource management and daily personal records. The further fact that 'our classroom' structure is made public to and discussed by all members requires of the teacher, a far more conscious role within the framework, than generally occurs within a directive philosophy.

### 5.6.5. This Type Of Classroom Is For The More Able Children; What About Children Who Can't Cope With It ?

Again reflected in this type of question are the premises of the directive model. The implicit assumption is that if direction is removed from children and they are not treated as dependent learners then they will 'go under'; they will fail to cope. There are many points to make in response to this position, not least that the number of children identified as special needs (Section 11), under-achieving children in the classrooms across the country at present, reflects an inability of these children to 'cope' with the type of educational experiences they are presently receiving, although their very context of directivism would argue its ability to support children and allow them to 'cope'.

The main foundation of the negotiative model is communication, and as such is heavily based in language. Therefore it might be expected that if a group of children were to 'fail' in this type of framework it would be those children with little English. However the experience of running these classrooms in areas of London with a majority of children who use English as a second language, has made apparent that non-verbal communication can readily compensate for verbal limitations. While the use of non-verbal repertoire is inevitably limiting in terms of flexibility and does change the kind of negotiation that can take place, the child is still able to express interest and wishes. This usually happens in two ways, either by the child bringing to the meeting the equipment that goes with the activity, or indicating that they would like to work with a group on an activity that has been observed undergoing negotiation by the group members. These are rudimentary forms of negotiation but are initalizing from self-deterministic decisions by the child.

The child is supported through a variety of processes including working with peers, in a favoured grouping as it is self opted, on an activity the child feels safe with and in a small group situation, where English will be used and developed naturally. Initially there is a problem as the negotiation form is that of a type of de-fault negotiation with others carrying out the actual processes.

However, the child moves rapidly from such a default postion to developing negotiation skills  as  active language use is supported so much by the process. In fact specialist language teachers who work with these children express  surprise  at  the  speed  of  their  language development.

The idea of  failure to cope has more to do with the teacher who finds it difficult to perceive how such a child  could function within a negotiating classroom.  The real irony is that  within all  the schools where the negotiating classroom has been set up, it has turned out that they have been used as 'receiving centres' for children    who were 'not coping'  in their directive classrooms.  Such noncoping was typically evidenced by misbehaviour  or  lack  of  production.   Thus,   the negotiating classroom was being used as a facility by other staff to help  with their  problems.  As an example from the most recent negotiating classroom,  7-year-olds often worked with 9-,10-and 11-year-olds from other classrooms, and without any problems.


### 5.6.6. What Do The Parents Think About Their Children Doing  What They Like ?

The issue of children 'doing what they like' has already been addressed.  As to the concerns of parents, to what extent do they feel  anxiety when the children return home and say they have been 'choosing' what they

wanted to do ? Of course, as most of the parent's experiences of classrooms come from their own school days and the majority of those were directive, concern is understandable.

In the present writer's experience, the majority of parental concern has not been addressed directly to the class teacher but to colleagues in the same school. Because the concerns of parents reach the negotiating classroom only via the grapevine, this indicates early in the application of the model a need to inform parents of its aims.

Parents have started to be informed of the aims and design of the classroom through open access days. These days have an advantage over parents evenings (also tried), in that parents can see the classroom in action and even join in with their child. Several indicators to the success of this strategy exist, the most direct being parents' comments on how impressed they were concerning children's involvement and quality of work. Other indicators have been children's reports back about parent comments and requests to take activities home for the parents to help. Numerous parents have also asked if they could come into class and offer activities to the children. To date, and with the children's permission, parents have run workshops on woodwork, jigsaw making, cookery and photography. Several parents also come in to offer reading support to those children who have requested

it. In short, attitudes of parents as well as of colleagues, towards negotiative classroom design, are significantly dependent on experiencing it.

### 5.6.7. What About The Teaching Of Basics And The General Quality Of Childrens Work ?

One of the most common criticisms of classrooms that do not fit the traditional directive format, is that they allow children to produce low quality work and fail to teach 'basics' (basics being in the traditional model, the 3 Rs). Implicit in this position, is again the assumption that the traditional classroom design produces this 'quality' and successfully develops children's 'basics'.

The lack of support for this assumption has already been discussed. It also needs to be said again that the basics of the traditional position are not those of the negotiative position. For the negotiating classroom, the actual content of the child's educational experiences in terms of mathematical or English knowledge, comes second to the kinds of skills that the model is concerned with developing in the child. The development of the model assumes that the content in the traditional sense, is an occurring consequence of laying down and supporting the skills of self-determination. By developing the 'basics' of a sense of control over classroom events (internal locus of control), expression of intrinsic motivations,

skills of planning, activating and feeding back on activity success and failure; the skills that are part of this model of self-determination, the child's learning of traditional basics is stronger and of more importance to the child than in other classroom designs.

For the negotiative model to maintain its position of strength in the face of the 'standards' debate, it has had to address itself to concerns that are not part of its desired agenda. One of these is testing. The role of testing in the negotiating classroom has only two functions: one, as a diagnostic tool to design an individual programme to help a child who wants to develop specific skills, usually reading, and two, as part of an individual record-keeping profile. The first is only at the child's own request and the second is used in a very informal, practically-based style. Test scores are not used as a comparative index. However because of the anxiety of heads and staff in schools where negotiative classrooms have been set up, the traditional model of testing has had to be implemented to allay these anxieties. One fortunate consequence is that it has allowed comparison with other classes of the same age being educated under the directive model.

The two sources of data have indicated that in terms of the areas of mathematical and language development, both types of classroom produce children with fairly similar knowledge, as measured on progress in mathematics

schemes and scores on reading / comprehension tests.

For mathematics schemes children from the negotiating classroom have in general, covered what is expected of them for their age group in the scheme and are not noticeably different from children from directive classrooms. Teachers who have later taken these children into their classes often comment on their interest in mathematics.

Language tests also indicate no significant difference between the two groups of children on standardised tests or in the need for school-based, special needs provision. What is of interest here, is the effect that not being made to read, as in the directive classroom, has on children's reading development as measured on standardized tests.

Figure 5.1. is a graph from a current group of children (1989), aged 7-8 years, showing reading development in the present experimental classroom. It is from the school's normal test of reading comprehension used in a number of London primary schools (the Gap test). The graph represents a floating base line from which is plotted the child's increase or decrease in reading comprehension age since entering the class six months prior. The children entered this class from three highly directive classrooms. Each child was 'zeroed' at the reading comprehension score attained on their first day. The child's plot then represents improvement (+) or

FIGURE 5.1. CHILDRENS CHANGE IN READING COMPREHENSION AGE
BETWEEN ENTERING AND AFTER SIX MONTHS IN THE NEGOTIATING
CLASSROOM ( + / - figures equal to change since last test
difference allowed for, n = 18.)

```
increase |
in       |
months   |
      16-|                          *
      15-|                          *
      14-|                          *
      13-|                          *
      12-|                          *
      11-|                          *
      10-|                          *
  +    9-|                          *
       8-|                          *
       7-|                          *
       6-|          *               *       *
       5-|          *               *       *
       4-|          *           *   *       *                              *
       3-|          *   *       *   *       *                              *
       2-|          *   *       *   *       *                              *
       1-| *   *   *   *        *   *       *           *            *     *
       0-|----------------*--------------------*--------*------------------------
  d    1-|              *   *       *                           *        *
  e    2-|              *   *                                   *
  c    3-|                  *                                   *
  r    4-|                  *                                   *
  e    5-|                                                      *
  a  _ 6-|                                                      *
  s    7-|                                                      *
  e    8-|                                                      *
       9-|
         ------------------------------------------------------------- ---------
          1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  10  11  12  13  14  15 *   16  17  18
          C  H  I  L  D  R  E  N  >   >   >   >   >   >
```
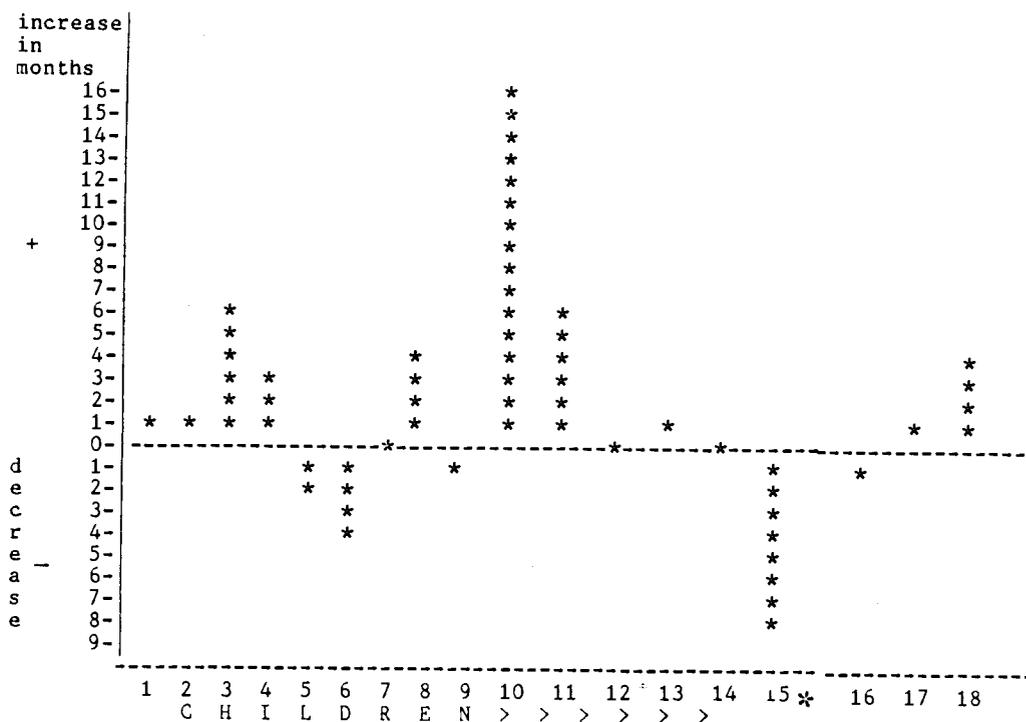
* Child in Pakistan for fourteen weeks of six month development
period.

deteriation (-) in months from the original score.  For example, if the child scored two months ahead of its chronological age on entering the negotiating classroom and when retested after 6 months, scored as three months ahead of its chronological age, this is plotted as + one month on the graph.

It should be pointed out before presenting the results, that although they could be explained in terms of simple cognitive gain and ideally a control class based on directive methods should have been used in comparision, teachers who had worked with the class in the past, commented favourably on their interest and development in reading.

The data indicate three main points.  Firstly, more children increased their reading comprehension age in the six months of the negotiating classroom relative to their entry position, than stayed equal to or declined.  In total eleven children gained, three maintained their position and five declined.

Secondly, in total months gained or lost across the whole class, 44 months were gained, 16 months lost, an overall gain of 28 months on the children's relative positions on entry.

Thirdly, looking at specific children who lost ground, four of the five lost only one to four months.  The child who lost eight months spent fourteen weeks of the six-month period between tests in Pakistan, a variable that

needs obvious consideration when viewing this loss.

So standardized tests such as the Gap Test indicate that overall, children do not appear to suffer in their development of reading, even though reading is not compulsory in the negotiative classroom, as it is in most directive regimes.

These type of data act to reflect the question back to the directive teacher, to ask why their method is failing to maintain this quality and standard of development, as based on their own measures ?


## 5.6.8. What Are The Negative Considerations Of The Negotiated Method?

The major hurdle that the method must address is the need to implement a school-wide programme based on these principles. At present children feed in for one year from mainly directive classrooms and then after one year, return to them. There is therefore a lack of continuity of experience. However, there is some diffusion effect in that colleagues pick up techniques to use in their own classrooms and develop a greater awareness of allowing children a greater sense of responsibility - but this diffusion benefit is limited.

Thirdly, there is limited opportunity to allow colleagues to see the method in action due to organizational and institutional time pressure. This has meant in turn that there has been limited opportunity for

feedback and discussion with colleagues on their views as to the strengths and weaknesses of the method.

# CHAPTER 6:

# THE NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM

AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF CHILDRENS BEHAVIOURS IN A NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM:  STUDIES 3 - 6.

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6.2.    STUDY 3 - 4:

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6.2.2.  Procedure.

6.4.    THE CHILD-TEACHERS ROLE RELATING TO THE INITIATION OF NEGOTIATION.

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6.8.    INDIVIDUAL CHILD ANALYSIS.

6.9.    TURN TAKING IN NEGOTIATION.

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NEGOTIATION.

a) PERSONAL KNOWLEDGE:

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c) SOCIOMETRY:

d) QUESTIONING STRATEGIES:

e) ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK MARKERS:

f) PLANNING SKILLS:

g) DIVISION OF LABOUR:

h) REORIENTATION STATEMENTS:

i) OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING:

j) PEER SUPPORT AND TEACHING:

k) DEVELOPMENTAL PLANNING:

l) AFFECTIVE COMPONENT:

m) RESOCIALIZATION:

n) INTRINSIC MOTIVATION:

**CHAPTER 6:**

**THE NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM**


**AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOURS IN A NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM: STUDIES 3 - 6.**


6.1. BACKGROUND: In Chapter Five the theoretical framework for a negotiating classroom was presented. Before proceeding to substantial empirical work it is desirable to flesh out this theoretical framework with three 'snapshot' studies. These are intended as small scale illustrations of a negotiating classroom at work.


(a) In Study Three we examine evidence for three different negotiation styles, looking at a single class over three sessions.


(b) In Study Four, we look at the same class over two further sessions and consider:

(i) whether negotiation has an effect

(ii) what are the parameters of negotiation, in terms of the number of words used by teacher and child and turn taking patterns and the kinds of questions used.


(c) In Study Five, we examine the same small-sample group, over three sessions, considering a variety of sociometric data:

(i) the make-up of post-negotiation activity groups,

(ii) the make-up groups by curricular area,

(ii) individual children's organizational approaches and leadership.

(d)  In Study Six, we present further snapshot data in the form of transcriptions of negotiations that actually occurred in a single session.  These transcripts are presented with an introduction and parallel commentary by the researcher, and represent a detailed account to bring home the working reality of a negotiating classroom.

## 6.2.  STUDY 3 - 4:

This study looks at the behaviour of children aged 7-8 years of age.  It particularly focuses on children's behaviours in response to the negotiating classroom and their ability to develop their own curricula experiences.

### 6.2.1. Subjects.

From a negotiating classroom which ran  over a school year, data was collected in the second term  from a group of 15 - 20 children. The figure fluctuated over sessions due to absences and withdrawals.

### 6.2.2. Procedure.

Data collection took place over five randomly selected periods of negotiation consisting of three morning and two afternoon sessions.  Each negotiation session consisted of 20-30 minutes of teacher-class interaction, negotiating the activities the children would be involved in post-negotiation.

a)   Each of the five negotiation sessions followed either morning assembly or a lunch break, three of the sessions were post-assembly, two post-lunch.   All five sessions were randomly chosen and took place in the second term of a three-term year for these children in their first negotiating classroom.

b) Each session consisted of the children meeting as a group with the present writer in an area of the classroom specially  arranged for these negotiating sessions, and consisting  of a circle of chairs.

c)   The structure of the surrounding classroom was based on the five resource area model outlined in Chapter 5.

d)   During the sessions a range of data was collected, falling into two broad areas:

(i) Transacted  data, concerned with the nature of the in-situ process of negotiation and its interactive nature, between the child and the teacher and  the child and its peers during pre-, inter- and post-negotiation periods.

(ii)  Sociometric type data,  focussing  on the  pattern of social grouping that children chose (i.e. alone /pairs) and their activity choice.   Also addressed were matters of  leadership /  followship,  the  child's   role  in negotiation and pre-, post-negotiation behaviours.

e)    Data collection was in the form of tape recordings
and on-the-spot notes.   Activity and social / working
group choices were recorded on special record sheets after
each negotiation session.

## 6.3.  TRANSACTION BEHAVIOURS

This section presents the analysis of data relating
to the insitu processes during the morning and afternoon
negotiation sessions.

## 6.4.  THE CHILD-TEACHER ROLE RELATING TO THE INITIATION OF NEGOTIATION.

These data concern whether negotiation was self
initiated, other child initiated or teacher initiated.
From a total of 39 separate initiations for 15 children,
the following scores were recorded (Figure 6.1.):

Self-initiated negotiations 24,

Other-initiated negotiations 10,

Teacher-initiated negotiations 5,

Children preferred to begin negotiations with the
teacher themselves by introducing their own ideas,
followed by allowing others to initiate for them.   The
least preferred option was to allow the teacher to

FIGURE 6.1. TEACHER - CHILD ROLES IN THE INITIATION OF
NEGOTIATION.
Data are for 15 Children over three mornings =(45
negotiations, less 6 absences during the three
mornings) = 39 negotiations.
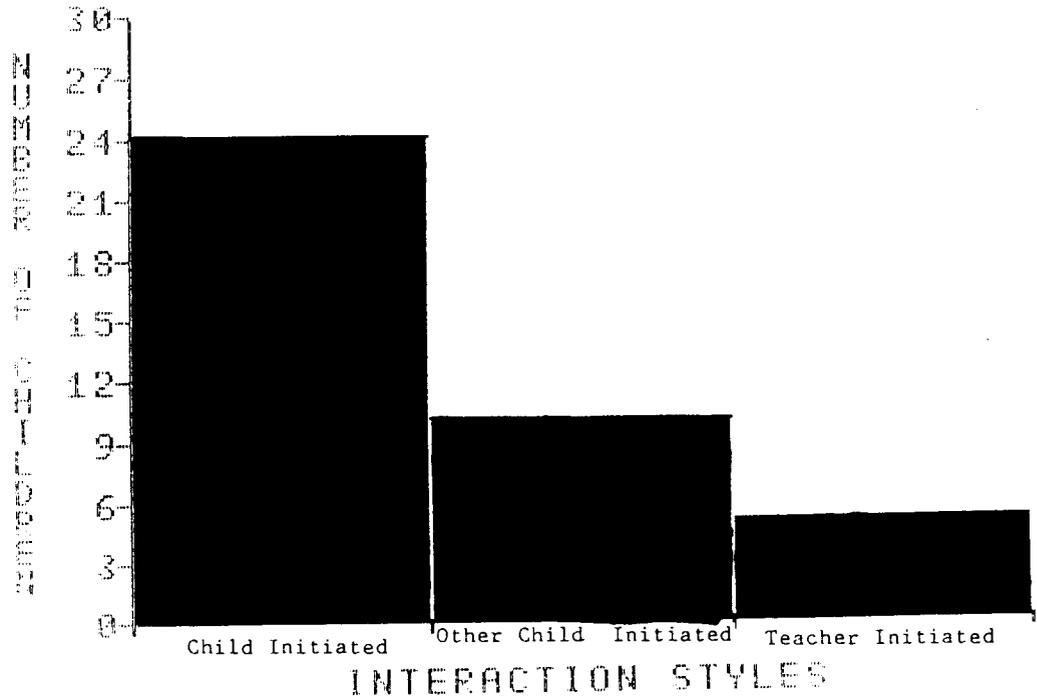


INTERACTION STYLES

| Key: T=teacher, | Child | Session | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| C=child, | | | | | |
| O=other child, | 1 | | T | C | A |
| A=absent | 2 | | O | O | C |
| | 3 | | T | C | A |
| | 4 | | T | C | C |
| | 5 | | C | C | A |
| | 6 | | C | O | C |
| | 7 | | O | O | A |
| | 8 | | C | C | C |
| | 9 | | C | C | A |
| | 10 | | T | C | T |
| | 11 | | O | O | O |
| | 12 | | O | A | C |
| | 13 | | C | C | C |
| | 14 | | C | C | O |
| | 15 | | C | C | C |

TOTALS:

Child Initiated Interactions:              24

Other Child  Initiated Interactions:  10

Teacher Initiated Interactions:          5

initiate negotiations for them; which occurred in only 5 of the 39 interactions.

These data are consistent with the view that children intrinsically know their own interests in the classroom environment and are able to put forward constructive ideas for classroom based activities.

### 6.4.1. Afternoon Data

These data differ from the morning data in that it was collected over two sessions of negotiation instead of three. Two sessions were used because of school organizational limitations. Twenty-one children were involved due to an increase in class roll and full attendance during these sessions.

The data were collected from transcriptions of tape recordings made at the afternoon sessions. It would have been extremely difficult to use a tape recorder in the morning sessions due to the constant ebb and flow of children, parents and notices during this period.

No choice data are given for the morning sessions as the design of the study was to look at different elements of negotiation in the morning and afternoon sessions. There was no suggestion from experience that the sessions differed in the type of data they would produce. The afternoon data related to pre-negotiation choice and post-negotiation activity to be compared and examined for the effect of the negotiations on pre - post negotiation choices.

## 6.5. PRE-NEGOTIATION ACTIVITY CHOICES.

Table 6.1. column 1, indicates children's pre-negotiation choices of activities as nominated by them at the start of the negotiation process with their teacher.

**Table 6.1: PRE - POST NEGOTIATION ACTIVITY CHOICE SHIFTS** (two sessions,n=21) Key: M=music, M-L=maths-logical, L=Language, S-M-S= Sensory-Motor-Spatial

| Activity | Number of children's Pre-negotiation choices | Post-negotiation choices M | M-L | L | S-M-S | % Shift |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sensory-Motor-Spatial | 9 (42%) | 0 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 33% |
| Music | 5 (23%) | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 80% |
| Language | 4 (19%) | 0 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 25% |
| Maths-Logical | 3 (14%) | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 33% |
| SUM | | 1 | 7 | 4 | 9 | |

TOTAL SHIFT FROM PRE- NEGOTATIVE CHOICE TO POST-NEGOTIATIVE ACTIVITY ACROSS ALL CURRICULLA AREAS = 42%

From a total of 21 choices over two sessions of negotiation, (12 and 9 children across two afternoons), the most chosen activities were Art / Woodwork type activities, (spatial, sensory-motor), making up 9 = (42%) of choices.

These were followed by music choices making up 5 (23%) of pre-negotiative choices, language activities, 4 (19%), and mathematics-logical, 3 (14%).

We therefore observe that before the actual negotiations take place between teacher and child, that

children show a heavy emphasis on Art, woodwork type activities and least interest in science, maths, computing activities. Musical activities appear much higher than might normally be expected.

## 6.6. PRE-NEGOTIATION CHOICES AND POST-NEGOTIATION SHIFT

The four panels of Figure 6.2. show the pre-negotiation choices for each curricular area together with choice shifts consequent on negotiation (as indicated by arrowheads). Thus, nine children choose art / woodwork / crafts prior to negotiation with the teacher; following negotiation, six stayed with this choice, two moved to mathematics and one to language.

As Table 6.1. prehaps makes clearer, the raw number of children opting for S-M-S remains unchanged after negotiation at 9, but this is incidental and even misleading. As Table 6.1. makes clear, for S-M-S and indeed for all curricular areas they are not the _same_ children opting pre and post for a given activity. Altogether some 42% of pre-negotiation choices undergo change, from which we may infer that negotiation with the teacher has a strong formative influence on final choice.

## 6.7. ANALYSIS OF VERBAL INTERACTIVE DATA BETWEEN TEACHER AND CHILDREN DURING NEGOTIATION

The data outlined in this section analyses the nature of the verbal communications between the teacher and child during negotiation. It was collected on tape during the two afternoon sessions. The analysis covers two distinct

FIGURE 6.2. PRE - POST NEGOTIATION ACTIVITY CHOICE SHIFTS (two sessions,n=21) Key: M=music, M-L=maths-logical, L=Language, S-M-S= Sensory-Motor-Spatial

SENSORY - MOTOR - SPATIAL

MUSIC

LANGUAGE

MATHEMATICS - LOGICAL

areas;

(i) In-situ negotiation: Number of words used, turns taken.

(ii) In-situ negotiation: Number and type of questions used.


**6.7.1. NUMBER OF WORDS USED, NUMBER OF TURNS TAKEN.**

The data are analysed at the group and the individual levels.


a) GROUP LEVEL ANALYSIS:

The mean and range values of words used by the teacher and the children are shown in Table 6.2. These data are analysed by session to allow clear comparison.


**Table 6.2: WORDS USED BY TEACHER AND CHILDREN DURING NEGOTIATIONS** (two afternoon session, A and B)

| Session | Mean Number of Words Used | | | Range | |
|---------|---------|---------|-------|----------|---------|
| | Children. | Teacher. | Diff. | Children | Teacher |
| A(n=13) | 27 | 42 | 15 | 97 | 116 |
| B(n=9) | 15 | 57 | 42 | 35 | 81 |

Session A

Table 6.2. shows that the teacher in this session

222

recorded a mean of 42 words per negotiation an average of 15 more words during the negotiation period with the children than they did. This is equivalent to the teacher speaking approximately one-third more than the children during negotiations. The teacher for each negotiation used a mean of 42 words compared to the child's mean of 27 words. This should not of course be seen as one third more in general teacher-child interactions as some children required less discussive interaction than others, such as those who at the time were teacher dependent for ideas. Variation at the individual negotaition level can be viewed in Table 6.3 which outlines each individual transaction between teacher and child.

The range values indicate wide individual variation between children in their word use and a similar variation in the teachers interaction with different children, range 116.

Session B

In comparison with Session A, this session showed a greater difference between teacher and child words of approximately two-thirds, with the teacher using 42 more words on average than the children during negotiations. (This is equivalent to a session difference of approximately one third more words used by the teacher than the children in Session A as compared to Session B). The teacher used in each negotiation a mean of 57 words compared to the child's mean of 15 words.

Range values between children and teacher in word

Table 6.3. NUMBER OF WORDS USED BY EACH CHILD AND THE TEACHER IN EACH NEGOTIATIVE INTERACTION (incuding sum and mean values, n=22, same children in two sessions).

| | Session A | | | | Session B | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Child | Child | Teacher | Difference | Child | Child | Teacher | Difference |
| 1 | 96 | 123 | +27 | 14 | 21 | 56 | +35 |
| 2 | 8 | 11 | +3 | 15 | 32 | 93 | +61 |
| 3 | 30 | 65 | +35 | 16 | 28 | 40 | +12 |
| 4 | 98 | 85 | -13 | 17 | 1 | 35 | +34 |
| 5 | 37 | 7 | -30 | 18 | 19 | 42 | +23 |
| 6 | 10 | 37 | +27 | 19 | 4 | 16 | +12 |
| 7 | 2 | 18 | +16 | 20 | 36 | 74 | +38 |
| 8 | 29 | 32 | +3 | 21 | 2 | 60 | +58 |
| 9 | 4 | 9 | +5 | 22 | 20 | 97 | +77 |
| 10 | 14 | 55 | +41 | | | | |
| 11 | 20 | 16 | -4 | | | | |
| 12 | 3 | 46 | +43 | | | | |
| 13 | 1 | 44 | +43 | | | | |
| sum | 352 | 548 | +196 | sum | 142 | 513 | +371 |
| mean | 27 | 42 | | mean | 15 | 57 | |

usage is wider in this session than in Session A with the teacher recording a larger range of 81 compared to the children's 35.

In very general terms, the teacher in this sample, spoke twice as much as the child during a negotiation interaction.

## 6.8. INDIVIDUAL CHILD ANALYSIS

Looking towards the individual level of word usage, Figure 6.3. and Table 6.3. indicate the spread of words at the individual level. Figure 6.3.indicates a wide variation between the teacher-child and child-child word totals during the two negotiations session's.

The meanfigures of Table 6.2. mask the individual variations present. These can be viewed more clearly if the ranges for the teacher and child word usage are compared and displayed as a histogram in Figure 6.3. The recorded range for the children's word usage during negotiations is extremely wide, ninety-seven, and even larger for the teacher, with a range of one-hundred-and-sixteen. This spread can be seen more clearly in the histogram. Thus, across both sessions two children used only one word in their 'negotiation' while the teacher never used less than 7 words. The distribution of child word counts (c) is skewed towards the lower end, while teacher word counts (T) are skewed to the higher ranges particularly in Session B. It indicates that the individual child's word usage ranges from one word to a maximum of ninety eight, obviously a very wide difference

FIGURE 6.3. NUMBER OF WORDS USED BY INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN AND
TEACHER IN EACH NEGOTIATION (session (a), n= 13)

```
Number of    3-|
times a child   |
or teacher   2-|
used given      |
number of    1-|  c c c c        t c t c t    c t t c  t   c   c c t  t   c t    t   t   t   t   t   t   c c  t t
words in a      |  c c c c        t c t c t    c t t c  t   c   c c t  t   c t    t   t   t   t   t   t   c c  t t
Negotiation  0--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
                  1 2 3 4  5  6  7 8 9 10 11  14 16 18  20 21 28 29 30 32 35 36 37 40 42 44 46 50 55 56 60 65 74 85 93 96 97 98 123
                  N u m b e r   o f   W o r d s  >>>>        N u m b e r   o f   W o r d s  >>>>
```

NUMBER OF WORDS USED BY INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN AND
TEACHER IN EACH NEGOTIATION (session (b), n= 9)

```
Number of    3-|
times a child   |
or teacher   2-|
used given      |
number of    1-|  c c  c            t     c c c   c c t c   c t c   t t  t t  t t  t t  t t
words in a      |  c c  c            t     c c c   c c c c   c c c   t t  t t  t t  t t  t t
Negotiation  0--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
                  1 2 3 4  5  6  7 8 9 10 11  14 16 18 19 20 21 28 30 32 35 36 37 40 42 44 46 50 55 56 60 74 85 93 96 97 98 123
                  N u m b e r   o f   W o r d s  >>>>        N u m b e r   o f   W o r d s  >>>>
```

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between children in their conversational interaction with the teacher during negotiation. The teacher had a spread of seven to one hundred and twenty three words, again a wide variation in the length of conversation the teacher had with different children during negotiation.

To get a clearer view of actual individual negotiation word differences, Table 6.3. shows a breakdown of the word totals used by the child and teacher in each transaction. Two important observations here are that the teacher can be seen to use far more words across interactions than the child, and, secondly, that between Sessions A and B, there is a distinct difference in the length of conversations between teacher and child.

To summarise, the data indicates that the teacher talked more than the children they are negotiating with, to the extent of a difference of up to twice as much.

## 6.9. TURN TAKING IN NEGOTIATION

It is useful to consider turn taking in negotiation as an indicator of possible patterns of interaction present between teacher and child.

**a) Class Analysis:**

No large teacher-child differences were recorded in turn taking (Figure 6.4.).

**FIGURE 6.4. TURNS TAKEN IN NEGOTIATION INTERACTIONS BY CHILDREN AND TEACHER, SUM 170. (Two sessions)**
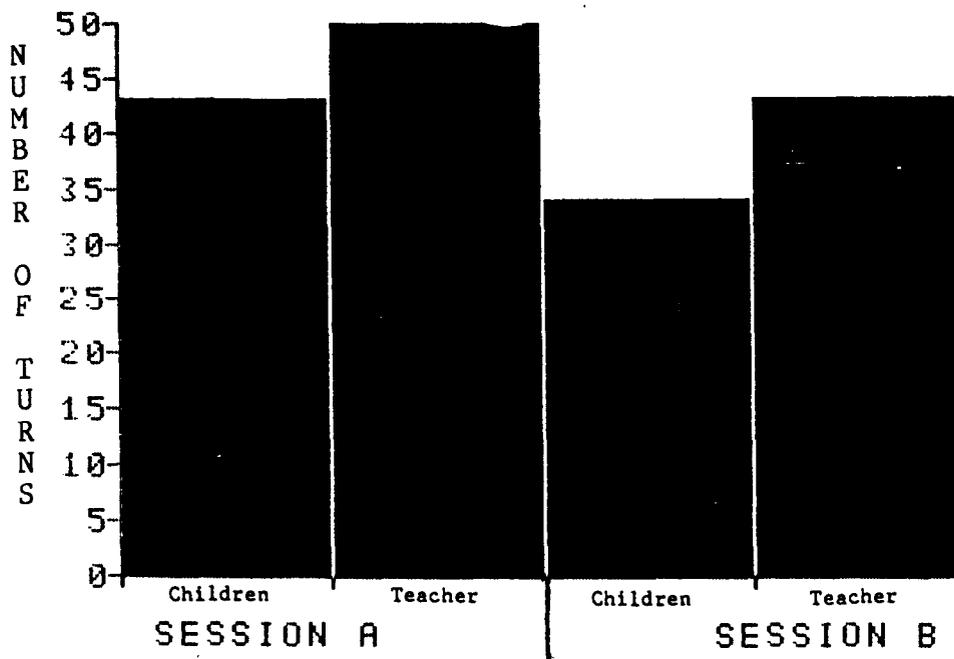
Looking at these results for each session individually Table 6.4., the means are very close, with the children recording a mean turn taking of 3.3 for Session A and 3.8 for Session B in comparison to the teachers 3.7 and 4.7 respectively.

**Table (6.4.): NUMBER OF TURNS TAKEN IN NEGOTIATION INTERACTIONS BY CHILDREN AND TEACHER (two sessions).**

|  | Children | Teacher | Difference |
|---|---|---|---|
| Session A (n=13) |  |  |  |
| Mean | 3.3 (rounded) | 3.8 (rounded) |  |
| Sum | 43 | 50 | 7 |
| Session B (n=9) |  |  |  |
| Mean | 3.7 (rounded) | 4.7 (rounded) |  |
| Sum | 34 | 43 | 9 |
| Total Sum across Sessions | 77 | 93 | 16 |

**b) Individual Analysis:**

A more detailed breakdown of the process of turn taking can be seen in Figure (6.5.) and Table (6.5.). It can be seen that,

(a) Most negotiations involved less than five turns per child or teacher. For the majority (16) of the sample, it was less than four turns per child.

**FIGURE 6.5.** **NUMBER OF TURNS BY CHILDREN AND TEACHER DURING NEGOTIATIONS (Two afternoon sessions).**
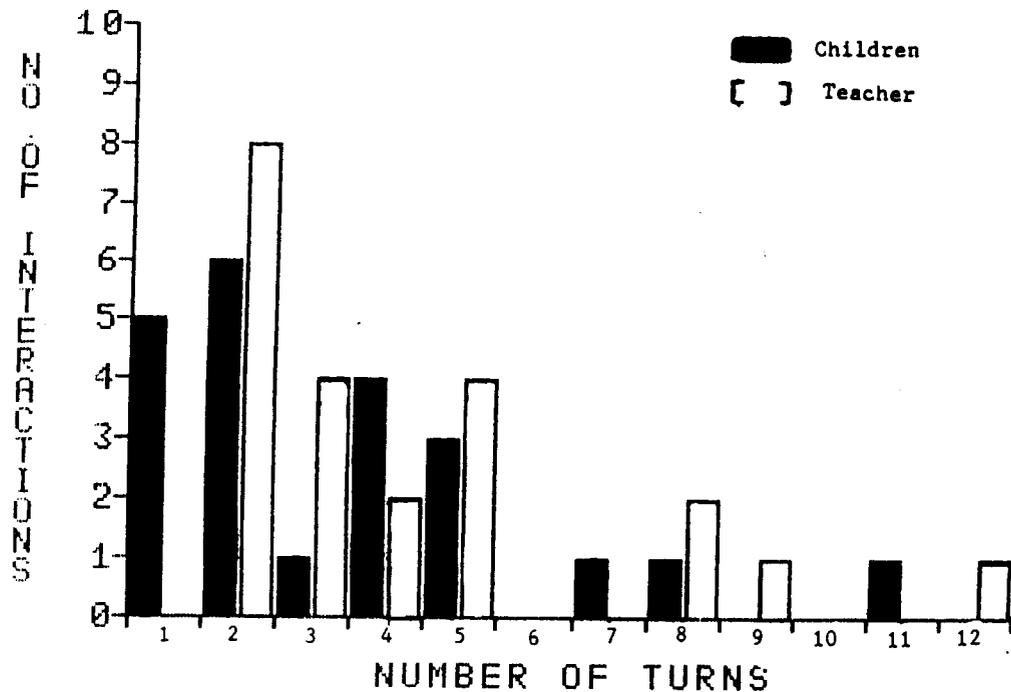


(b) In fifty per cent of individual negotiation interactions, the child had one or two turns in contrast to the teachers two or three.

**Table (6.5.): NUMBER OF TURNS TAKEN BY CHILDREN AND TEACHER DURING NEGOTIATIONS (two afternoon sessions combined).**

Number of turns taken in each negotiation

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Children | 5 | 6 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Teacher | 0 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

(c) The distinct dominance of the teacher in terms of the number of turns taken in negotiation with individual children is clear: only one child recorded more turns at speaking than the teacher. In six other transactions, the child recorded the same number of turns as the teacher, while teacher dominanted in fifteen interactions ( Appendix 2 gives more details ).

## 6.10. IN-SITU NEGOTIATION: NUMBER AND TYPE OF QUESTIONS USED.

This section focuses on  child and teacher use of open and closed questions during negotiation.  Open questions are those that do not have or demand a single reply and are open to a more discussion  type of reply. Closed questions are those that have or demand a single reply usually of a directive nature.

Figure 6.6. shows the overall  data relating  to the total number of open and closed questions used in the negotiation periods.  The  data reflect the following points;

(a) During negotiative interaction with the teacher, children  used only one type of question  across all interactions-the closed type.

(b) The total number of closed questions the children used across the two negotiation sessions was  twenty six, fourteen in Session A  and twelve in Session B, a mean of 1.2 closed questions for each child.

(c)  In  contrast  the  teacher's  questioning  strategy consisted of fifteen open and fifty one closed questions,

**FIGURE 6.6.**    **NUMBER OF OPEN AND CLOSED ENDED QUESTIONS USED BY CHILDREN AND TEACHER DURING NEGOTIATION INTERACTIONS (Two Sessions Combined)**
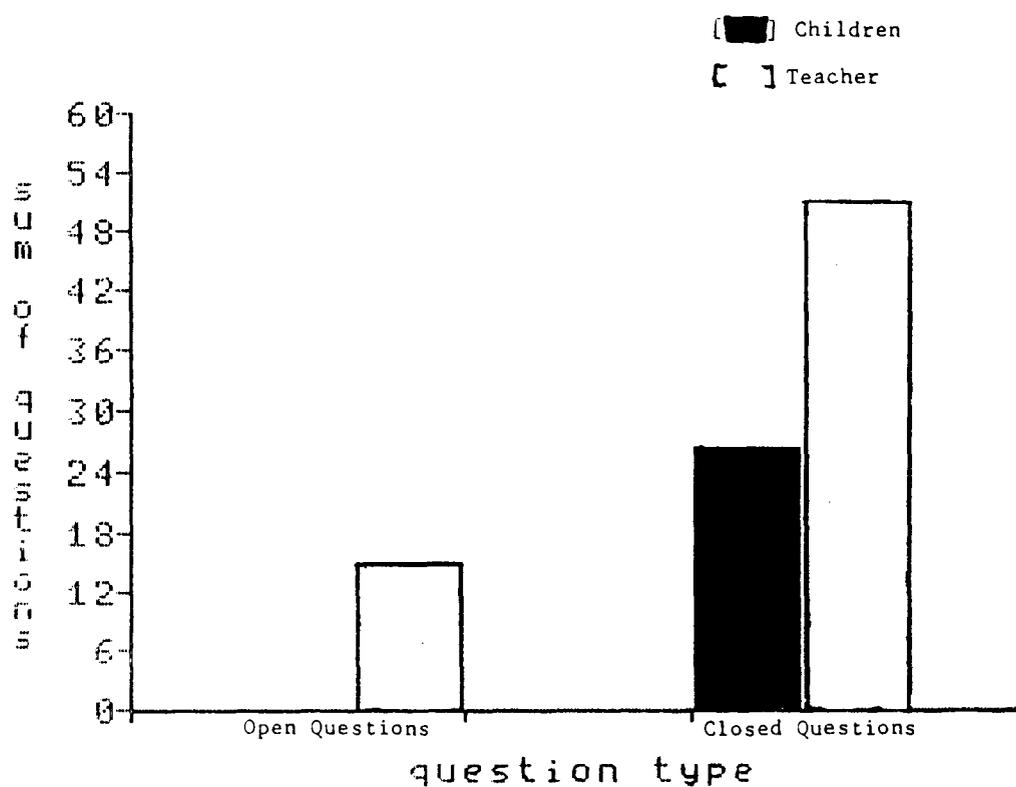


|              |                  | Session A | Session B | Sum | Mean |
|--------------|------------------|-----------|-----------|-----|------|
| Children     | Open Questions   | 0         | 0         | 0   | 0    |
|              | Closed Questions | 14        | 12        | 26  | 1.2 (rounded) |
| Teacher      | Open Questions   | 8         | 7         | 15  | .68  |
|              | Closed Questions | 28        | 23        | 51  | 2.3  |

a ratio of approximately two thirds closed to one third open. The teacher recorded .68 open questions and 2.3 closed questions per negotiation.

It thus appears that during negotiations children do not use open-ended questions of the sort "What shall I do now ?" but prefer closed questions that demand a direct answer. The teacher however fluctuated in the types of questions used during negotiations though still leaning towards the use of closed questions. Most generally, it was the teacher who dominated the use of questions in the negotiation periods.

## 6.10.1. Variation Among Individual Childrens Questioning Strategies And Experience Of Teachers Questions.

In respect to individual children, the teacher responded differently in respect of the number of questions different children were asked during negotiation transactions. This is indicated by the range of ten recorded by the teacher in respect to the spread in the number of questions he asked different children. The range consists of four occasions when the teacher asked no questions to a single occasion when ten questions were recorded (Figure 6.7.).

In comparison, the range for the children's number of questions was three, with children using from zero to three questions during negotiative interactions (Appendix 3 has further information).

In general terms the data indicates that the teacher in the negotiating classroom although attempting to move

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FIGURE 6.7. NUMBER OF CLOSED ENDED QUESTIONS USED BY
CHILDREN AND TEACHER ACROSS NEGOTIATIONS
(Two sessions combined)
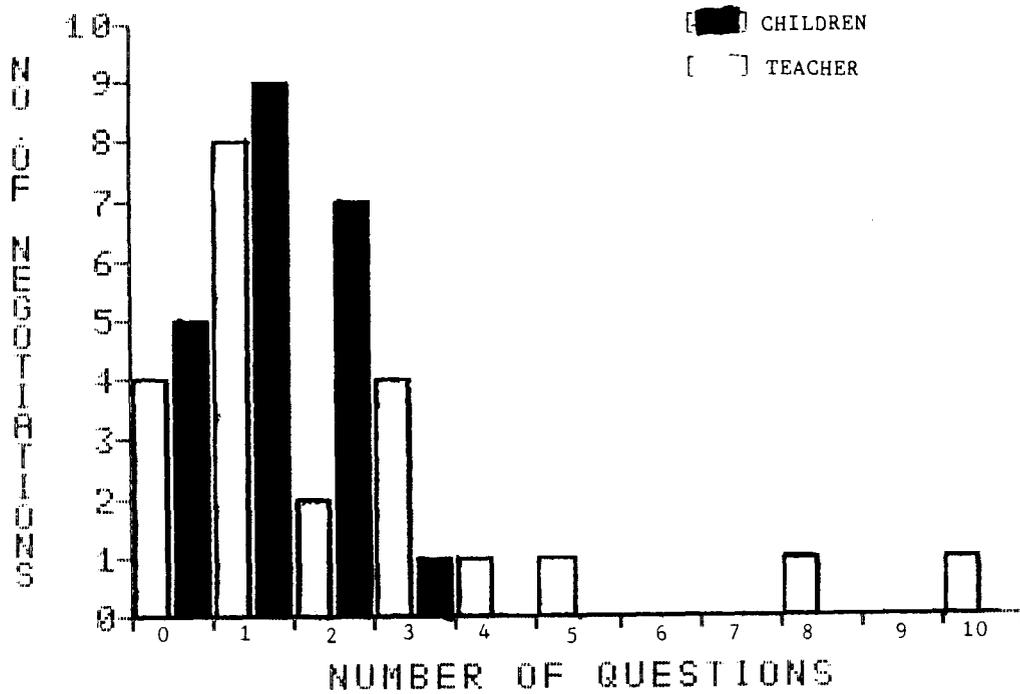


Total Number of Questions Used

|  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| Teacher: Number Of Negotiations | 4 | 8 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Children: Number Of Negotiations | 5 | 9 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Differences | -1 | -1 | -5 | +3 | +1 | +1 | 0 | 0 | +1 | 0 | +1 |

Ranges  Children 3
        Teacher  10

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toward a self-determinist position with the children, still dominates the majority of transactions in terms of the logistics of the interactions. The results do however indicate that wide individual differences are present amoung the children in their use of the various process elements discussed and these reflect individual children's ability to use and move toward such self-deterministic skills in negotiative transactions.

## 6.11. DISCUSSION

These studies using data from 5 separate classroom sessions with children aged 7 to 8 years have led to a number of observations, in relation to the implementation of a negotiating classroom.

### 6.11.1. Curricular Observations
**Prepondency of Maths-Logical Activities**

The majority of negotiated choices fell into two main curricular areas; Maths-Logical (Science, Maths, Computing) and Sensory-Motor-Spatial (Art, Woodwork, Dance).

Across the four classrooms studied, allowing for individual variation as indicated in the five detailed sessions outlined above, the most popular area of curricular activity was Mathematics-Logical with a bias toward mathematics activities. This preference has been marked even though the classroom offered history, geography, art, science and other curricular activity resourcing.

## 6.11.2. Expression Of Children's Self-Organizing Skills

The children's behaviours in this study have elaborated a point increasingly made in the child specific motivational research literature outlined earlier in Chapter 2 to the effect that children are able to put forward constructive curricular ideas. In the present studies, the children were able to create their own curricular worlds. They showed the ability to use these ideas in the debating, planning atmosphere of negotiation and in the structuring of their own curricular experiences.

In the curricular worlds they created, a major factor was that of interest rather than role, resource presence or peer pressure. Few children required prompting with ideas. They were spontaneously able to propose their own curricular activities and were able to use basic skills in developing, planning and activating them. Study 2 showed the children could adopt an internal locus of control, even though the extent varied in its development individually. While these skills varied individually, not one child was recorded as being always dependent on the teacher or on other children for curricular suggestions.

## 6.11.3. Negotiation Observations

The data indicated 5 points in relation to the process of negotiation during the planning sessions;

## a) STYLES OF NEGOTIATION

While all children showed ability to negotiate, albeit with individual differences in skill development, three distinct styles of negotiation were nevertheless observed.

Figure 6.8. gives a breakdown of the figures for the different styles of negotiation. Note that from a total of 17 children, two were dropped from data analysis due to absence from one or more sessions.

FIGURE 6.8. NUMBER OF CHILDREN USING A DISTINCT NEGOTIATION INITIATION STYLE ACROSS ALL THREE SESSIONS (mornings n=15)



STYLES OF NEGOTIATION INITIATION
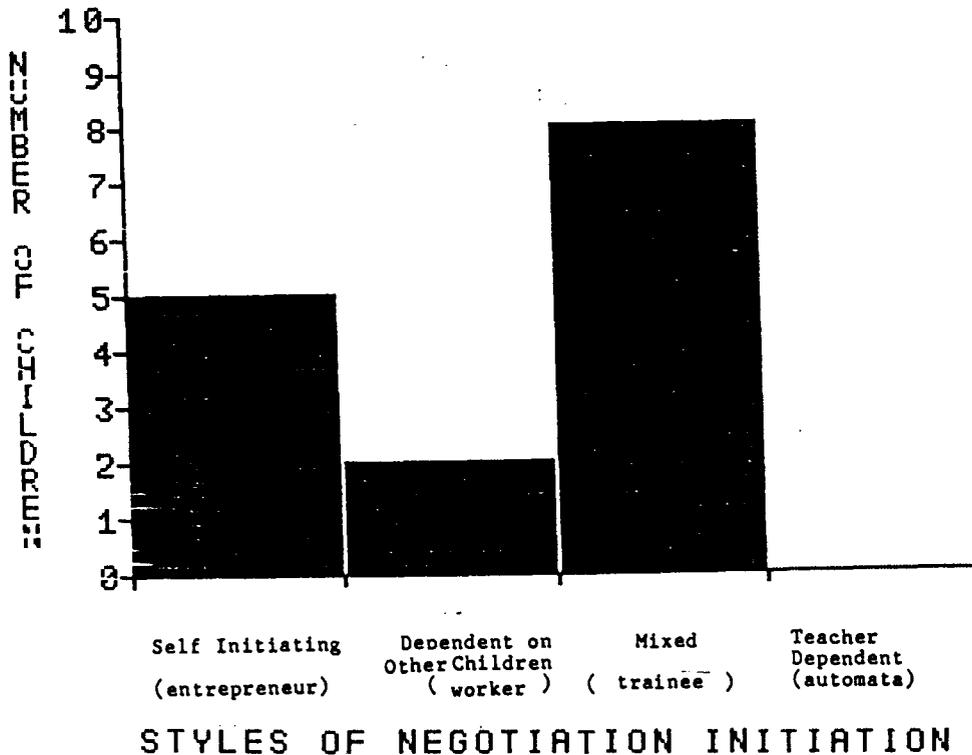
The remaining 15 sorted into five entrepreneurs, who used a totally self-dependent style of initiation on all occasions, eight trainees who varied between an

entrepreneur and worker role and two workers, who showed
exclusive dependency on others. Thus the most common
category were children who varied their style of
initiation, the trainees, on some occasions immediately
informing the teacher of what they would like to do (an
entrepreneurial role), on others allowing other children
to initiate an idea and on others, allowing the teacher to
initiate the negotiation (a worker role). The least
popular method was the Worker's role: allowing others to
initiate for you. It is interesting to note that all
children in the sample were able to initiate and negotiate
with the teacher at least at one point in the sampling
period, emphasizing the ability of children to take a
dynamic, constructive role.

The detailed nature of the styles comprised of:


## a) ENTREPRENEURS

Children who always initiated negotiations with the
teacher themselves. These children were termed
entrepreneurs as they always had an activity idea they
would like to carry out, and were able to organize their
own strategies. In true entrepreneurial spirit they
developed, carried out and reviewed their own activities
while also organizing others - Workers.


## b) TRAINEES

Children who on various occasions initiated their own
negotiations and on other occasions allowed others to do
so for them. These children were named trainees as they

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periodically followed the ideas of others and allowed themselves to be organized, learning as it were to carry out negotiations and activities in a trainee role to the entrepreneurs. On other occasions they would take on an entrepreneurial style themselves. This group were slowly moving toward an increased entrepreneurial role in the negotiated partnership.

## c) WORKERS

Children who were mainly dependent upon other children to initiate negotiations with the teacher. These children were named simply workers as they carried out instructions and followed the ideas and / or directions of entrepreneurs and trainees. They were never observed to initiate an idea for an activity.

## d) AUTOMATA

It should be noted from the data that no child recorded a possible fourth style, total teacher dependency for the initiation of negotiations. Such children had they been present would have been named automata.

It is interesting to consider the relationship between the data on turn taking, words and questioning and the negotiation strategies of entrepreneur, trainee and worker as outlined earlier. Observations in the classroom indicate that it is the entrepreneur and trainee strategies that dominate the number of turns, words and questions used in negotiation. Children when using the

worker strategy play very little part in the application of words, questions or turn taking in negotiation transactions.

### b) THE CONSEQUENCES OF NEGOTIATION

One major point emerging related to the effects of negotiation processes on children's prior curricular choices. The process had a marked effect, often leading to a change from the original suggestion. Important causes of this change appeared to be (i) other children's input to the discussion, and (ii) teacher initiated discussion ariasing from the individual child's curricula record or suggestion.

### c) TEACHER'S ROLE AND TEACHER'S TALK

The teacher's role has been outlined as one of facilitation, shaping and as a resource for the child's intrinsic interest and activity planning. The way that negotiations developed in this study, the teacher spoke on average twice as much as the seven-year-old. It is tempting to argue generally that the teacher needs to take on less of a verbal role. However, individual variation in this negotiation talk also needs to be noted: some children did not speak half as much as the teacher while others spoke far more. It is evidently important that the teacher observe which children require more support in the area of expression.

## d) TURN TAKING IN NEGOTIATION

A 'turn' was when child or teacher held the floor while the person they were negotiating with listened. The data from turn-taking indicate that most negotiations were fairly short, mainly consisting of five or fewer turns, between three or four turns by the child, and one more by the teacher. Two dominant factors leading to this brevity appear to be the number of children waiting to negotiate with the teacher creating a 'feeling' of pressure of time and secondly, the forward planning that some children had put into their idea prior to negotiation led to an ease of transaction.

## e) QUESTIONING STRATEGIES

Two types of questions were noted during negotiations: open and closed, with children showing exclusive dependence on the closed type. The problem with closed questions is that they trigger directive answers and as such need to be discouraged if children are to take on greater self determination for their learning. The teacher needs to teach the children open question strategies as part of the general skills development of negotiation.

The teacher fluctuated between open and closed question use but still leaned heavily toward a closed style. This also needs to be addressed as it indicates too great a directive role by the teacher. With time, as the children's own question and discussion skills develop,

the teacher needs to modify this leaning so as to
support a move toward skills of discussive competence.


## 6.12. STUDY FIVE:

## SOCIOMETRIC FINDINGS


These data cover the following areas:

(i)    Make-up of post-negotiation activity groups.

(ii)   Make-up of groups by curricular area.

(iii)  Activity choice and relation to classroom work area.

(iv)   The individual child's organizational approach to
       his or her activity.

(vii)  Leadership styles and grouping.


## 6.13.    RESULTS

### 6.13.1. Number of individuals / groups organized by
           children to work on activities.

As Figure 6.9.   indicates the most commonly opted
style of organization was to work alone on the negotiated
activity.

FIGURE 6.9.    NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS / GROUPS ORGANIZED BY
               CHILDREN TO WORK ON ACTIVITIES POST NEGOTIATION
               (3 MORNING SESSIONS)



ACTIVITY ORGANIZATIONAL STYLES

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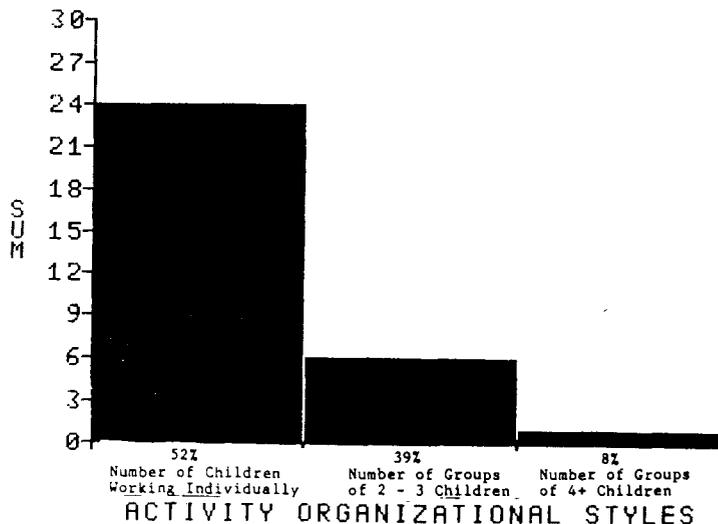
Over the 3 sessions, the 15 children made 41 negotiated options of which 24 ( 52% ) were to work alone.

The next preferred organizational style was to work in a group of two to three, opted for on six occasions ( 39% of total choices ).

The least preferred organizational strategy was to work in a large group of four or more members. This was chosen on only one occasion (equivalent to 'four choices' or 8% of sample). It appears that when children are given the freedom to choose there is a heavy preference for working on an activity alone.


## 6.13.2. Number Of Individuals / Groups Organized To Work On Activities By Curricular Area.

We now look at the same data broken down by curriculum area.

Figure 6.10. indicates that the most common pairing was working individually on a maths-science-computing activity. Eleven children (26%) opted for this match. The next most popular was working individually on a sensory motor - spatial activity such as woodwork, art or dance, or of working in a group of two or three on the same activities. Both attracted six (14%) of children each (see Table 6.5.).

Next in the hierarchy of choice were children wishing to work individually on a language activity and children wishing to work on a maths - logical activity in a group of 2 - 3 children (12%).
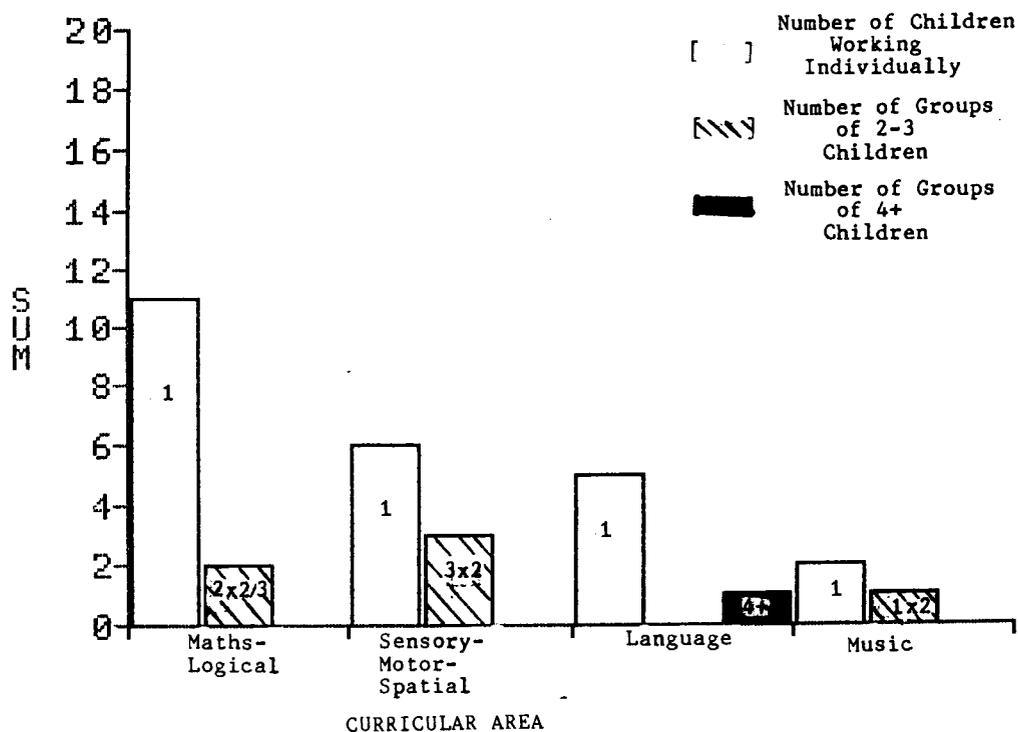
TABLE 6.6. NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS / GROUPS ORGANIZED BY CHILDREN TO WORK ON ACTIVITIES BY CURRICULAR AREA.

| | Number of Children Working Individually | Number of Groups of 2-3 Children | Number of Groups of 4+ Children | Sum % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Maths-Logical | 11 (26%) | 2x2/3 (12%) | 0 (0%) | 38% |
| Sensory-Motor-Spatial | 6 (14%) | 3x2 (14%) | 0 (0%) | 28% |
| Language | 5 (12%) | 0 (0%) | 1x4 (8%) | 20% |
| Music | 2 (4%) | 1x2 (4%) | 0 (0%) | 8% |
| SUM % | 56% | 30% | 8% | 94% (rounded) |

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Large group activities appeared unpopular, with only one such activity being recorded, in the curricular area of language.

We see then a choice pattern dominated by working alone especially on maths / logical activities.

### 6.13.3. Activities Chosen In Relation To Work Area In The Classroom.

Does the room layout affect the child's choice of work area. Specifically, is, say, mathematics carried out by children in the area designed for mathematics type activity resourcing ?

The data in Figure 6.11., Table 6.7. indicate that from a possible total of 30 congruent matches between the children's negotiated activity and the related resource area in the classroom, 73% of individuals and groups chose to work in areas matched to their activity. Expressed conversely, approximately 26% of the class, chose an incongruent resource area to carry activities out in relation to their opted activity. It appears then that the resource area structure of the classroom influenced children's choice of work area. This is partly and unsurprisingly due to the presence of resources in these areas. It also appears that the types of resources freely available and on view in the classroom have an influence on the types of activity choice the children make.

FIGURE 6.11. ACTIVITIES CHOSEN IN RELATION TO WORK AREA
IN CLASSROOM, (Congruent-Incongruent
matches, 3 morning sessions combined)
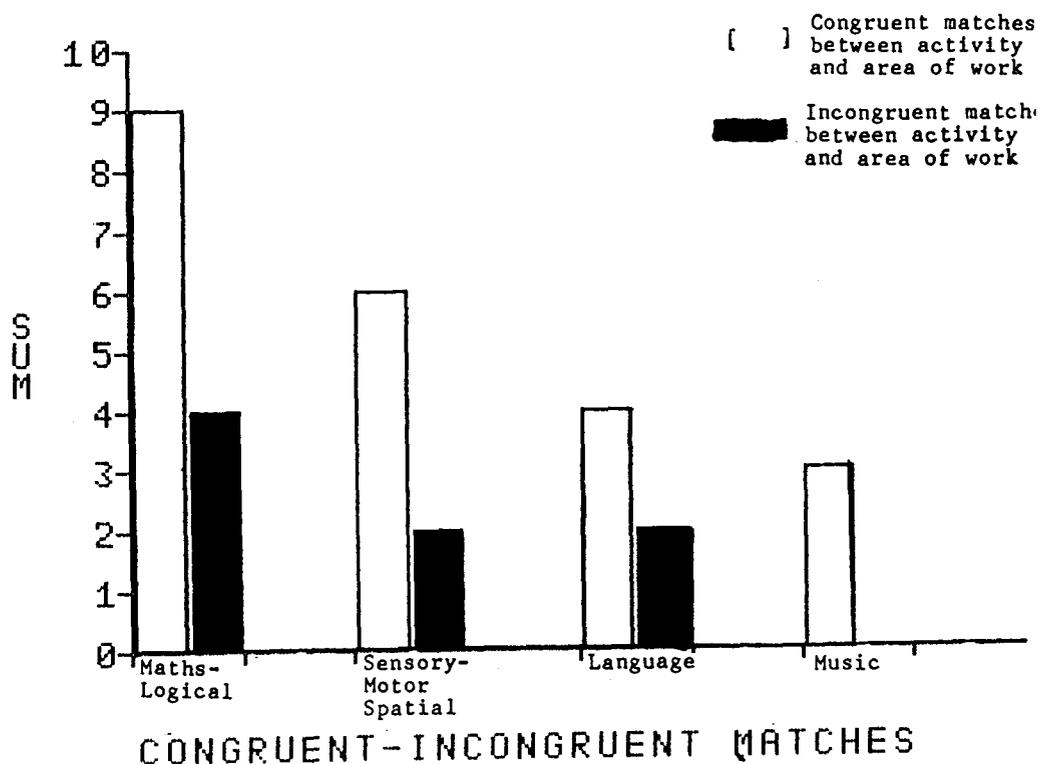


TABLE 6.7. ACTIVITIES CHOSEN IN RELATION TO WORK AREA IN
CLASSROOM (n = 30).

| Activity | Congruent matches between activity and area of work | Incongruent matches between activity and area of work |
|---|---|---|
| Maths-Logical | 9 (69%) | 4 (30%) |
| Sensory-Motor Spatial | 6 (75%) | 2 (25%) |
| Language | 4 (66%) | 2 (33%) |
| Music | 3 (100%) | 0 (0%) |
| Sum % | 73% | 26% |

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### 6.13.4. The Individual Child's Organizational Approach To An Activity.

These data address the type of organizational strategy children selected: how they were going to carry out their negotiated activity - as an individual or as a member of a group.

Figure 6.12. indicates that three distinct styles of organization were present in the sample. Allowing for withdrawals and absences, 7 (46%) of 15 children who were present across sample sessions, opted to work individually on all occasions and across all negotiated activities.

In contrast, five (33%) children opted to work within groups across all sessions and negotiated activities.

Three (20%) children used a mixed style of organization, on some occasions working as a group member on others independently.

It appears from these data, and as always within the limits of our sample base, that three distinct organizational strategies occur in the negotiated classroom, if children are given the autonomy to organize their own working conditions. And the most preferred strategy is to work alone across all areas of negotiated activity.

FIGURE 6.12.   THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD'S ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACH
              TO AN ACTIVITY, n = 15.
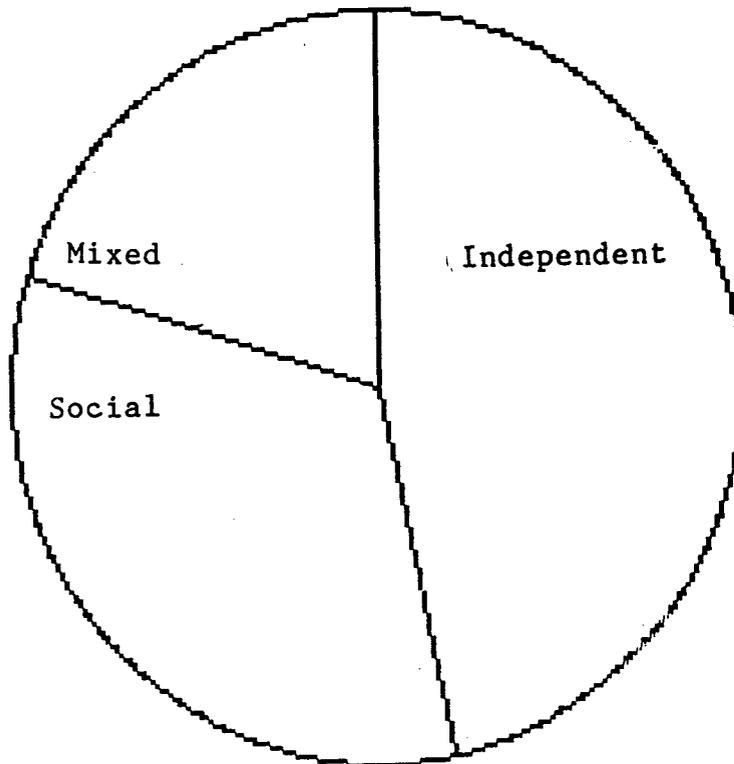


SECTORS SHOW RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF CHOICE FOR EACH
ORGANIZATIONAL STYLE

| Number of Children Working Totally Alone in all Sessions (Independent) | Number of Children Working Totally Within Groups in all Sessions (Social) | Number of Children Working in Both Alone and Group Styles (Mixed) |
|---|---|---|
| 7 | 5 | 3 |
| (46%) | (33%) | (20%) |

## 6.13.5. LEADERSHIP STYLE AND GROUPING.

These results focus on the nature of leadership among individual children.

**TABLE 6.8. LEADERSHIP STYLES: INDIVIDUALS ASSUMING LEADERSHIP**
(three sessions, n=15)

| Session | Group 1 Leader Code | Group 2 Leader Code | Group 3 Leader Code |
|---------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | A | B | C |
| 2 | absent | B | C |
| 3 | A | D | * withdrawn |

* withdrawn for E.S.L.

It appears that certain children in the class were more likely than others to take leadership of activity groups. Table 6.8. indicates that the children coded A, B and C took this leadership position across sampling sessions whenever groups formed and they were present. These individuals led in the sense that they took the initiative in negotiations, organized tasks and dominated the activity in the activity area. As noted earlier, group membership was friendship based and virtually constant.

In negotiation and activity organization the data therefore support the view that certain children maintain a leader role and others, a follower role across negotiation sessions.

## 6.14. CRITIQUE

This study has examined various processes and factors that come to the fore in a classroom structured to enhance children's self determination. While it has adopted an empirical approach it should be held in mind that it was a 'snapshot' of such a classroom and therefore a limited perspective. In particular, it is recognized that neither stability nor time still less generalizability over classrooms can be claimed at any litiral level for the present findings. Instead, the study has opted diagnostic detail in constructing a picture which will make different points of context with different teachers' and researchers' experiences.

## 6.15. ORGANIZATIONAL OBSERVATIONS.

Four points emerged in relation to the organization of activities and ways of working on them. These related to

(i)    styles of working on an activity.

(ii)   individual or group preferences.

(iii)  the bases of group activity formation.

(iv)   leadership roles.

## 6.16. WORKING CONTEXTS

When children were given sufficient autonomy to work on a negotiated activity in the way they liked, a distinct preference for working alone was observed, and this recurred constantly across all curricular areas.

## 6.17. WORKING STRATEGIES

Three distinct styles of organizing the social side of working on an activity were observed, Independent, Social or Mixed, the most popular being independent.

The least preferred style was Mixed, sometimes working alone and on other occasions as a group member. Part of the teacher's facilitator role must be to allow such children to develop the skills and competence to work across each style, so that they do have the availability of choice.

## 6.18. GROUP FORMATION

Seven groups of children were formed from negotiations to work on activities throughout the sample period. Six of the seven were pair groups. More general experience in this type of classroom is consistent with this unusualness of large groups. As noted, this group formation was not based on curricular activity, but rather distinctly on friendship. Not only did groups always consist of the same members with no new members admitted, if the other member of a pair group was absent then the lone child worked alone.

## 6.19. LEADERSHIP ROLES

The leadership data indicated that whenever groups formed, the same child in each group took on a leadership role. These children were de facto leaders insofar as they initiated negotiations and the general planning and organization of the group and its activities.

Other  members always played a varyingly submissive role to the leader.

## 6.20. CLASSROOM DESIGN EFFECTS

The consequence  of designing the classroom with five distinct resource areas was  seen to  be  twofold  for children's behaviour, relating  to activity  and working area choice.

## 6.21. ACTIVITY CHOICES

A  close match was observed between the children's negotiated choices of activity and the resources available in the classroom and visually displayed in the distinct resource areas.  This should be seen  as a useful tool for developing  children's consideration of activity ideas.

## 6.22. STUDY SIX
## CLASSROOM CASE STUDIES OF NEGOTIATION IN ACTION

Study Six considers negotiation as it takes place within the structured, timetabled negotiation session in the classroom. The data, consist of thirteen negotiation transcriptions which togeather constitute a complete negotiation session.

The transcripts are presented with simultaneous commentary by the author. Togeather each transcript plus commentary provides a close approach to the 'three dimensional' reality of the session as it occurred, and provides some glimpse into the individuality of the child. There is probably no one best way to approach the data. The reader may prefer to read one of the thirteen transcripts carefully or skim all the transcripts for an impression before turning to the overall interpretative commentary in 6.24.

As a general orientation throughout each example it becomes clear that the teacher's role is very similar to the position of a player as seen by games theory. The teacher has at all times a vision of the end product, the development of certain skills in the children. Toward this, the teacher like a chess player, uses a range of tools to move the child within the negotiated partnership in the direction of the end product, self- determination. It does demand of the teacher a constant awareness and consciousness of individual children their preferred classroom roles and of ongoing processes in the classroom generally.

## 6.23. METHOD

The data are taken from a class of 7-8 year olds, sixteen in total, who were in their first term of a negotiating classroom. They were familiar with and unselfconscious about tape recording since several sessions were recorded over the term. The sessions took place in the area of the classroom designated as the group negotiation meeting place and with which the children were very familiar. The transcripts given here come from the second half of the term, after eight weeks of experience of a negotiating regime.

## 6.24. TRANSCRIPTS

<u>Setting</u>

Start of morning session, post-register, sixteen children seated in circle of chairs, facing inwards with the teacher as part of the circle and seated on the same sort of chair, all taking place in the same area as for all negotiation sessions. Teacher waits for silence.

Negotiation (Teacher (T) with Child XY)

| TRANSCRIPT OF CONVERSATION | COMMENT |
|---|---|
| Neotiation 1 (Teacher with JB, Style: Entrepreneur) | |
| T: Right, now who's doing what ? | An open ended question to allow those children with ideas already to initiate negotiations. |
| JB: Sir, can I do some music, me, Caroline and John ? | Julie is one of the class leaders and plays an entrepreneur role. She not only initiates a negotiation immediately, but also organizes her normal activity group. |
| T: What were you doing yesterday ? | Record checking assessment. |

JB: Ummm, my house.

T: House ?

Teacher knows what is meant but asks for clarification to draw Julie back to assess the success of the activities development.

JB: Yea, and Clares going to help me do the table and chairs.

The children in the activity were slightly different and did not include child CT.  Julie feedsback that it is unfinished but organized for continuation without her present.  This has involved forward-planning skills and agreed division of labour.  Here is an entrepreneurial role in action with allocation of worker roles

CT :Yea, I'll do the table and chairs for her.

Clare indicates the role she would like to take over from the original division of labour in which she was not included. Clare plays a trainee role.

| | |
|---|---|
| T: Is the house finished ? | Assessment and feedback update request. |
| JB: Yes. | |
| T: So what do you mean you want to do music ? | Activity clarification request. |
| JB: You know, the boat I'm going to make soon.  I'm going to do some kind of music about boats, water. | A general activity plan put forward by Julie but it needs more detail. |
| T: So you want to do music, to what ? | Teacher attempts to draw Julie toward these more specific plans.  This is part of the process to eventually move the child toward thinking out these details earlier and more automatically in the negotiations.  To develop a more detailed, forward planning skill. |
| JB: To do er, do something about boats...music about boats. | Plan still not thought out enough, a skill Julie needs to be supported in. |

T: When were you doing work on boats before ?

Teacher still trying to draw more detailed approach

JB: I'm just going to do some music on boats.

T: So you were doing your house yesterday, you rigged up the electrical circuit and now you want to some music on boats. What sort of music are you going to do ? What sort of instruments are you going to use ?

Teacher changes tack and draws Julie back to the specific nature of yesterday's plan as an example. The teacher then moves forward to today's plan, hoping it will spark a specific plan response.

JB: I think we'll use the harp and you know, that er, electric organ.

Julie responds after some direct questions with details. The teacher has steered Julie to the type of skills of forward planning that she needs to develop. Other children have been listening to this interaction, observing the types of skills that are being requested.

T:  O.K. who are you going to work with ?

Now that Julie has been supported in general activity and resource organization she is moved to consider social organization.

JB: Caroline and John, I'll take care of him and make sure he doesn't muck about.

Julie uses her personal knowledge that John, on occasions plays about in group situations and she indicates empathy with the teachers perspective as she knows this is what he will be thinking.  However she wants John in her group and so negotiates her ability to keep him on task against her recognition of the teacher's doubts.

T:  Er, I think you should work with John, not three of you.

Teacher takes middle ground

JB: O.K.

T: So you need a tape recorder        Teacher expands Julie's
   from the language area and          resource planning.
   you need to go to the hall
   and plug the synthesizer in.


CS: I'll plug it in for her.          Shared empathy, Candice was

                                       doing this activity yester

                                       -day, shared resource

                                       management skills like

                                       this and shared knowledge

                                       are intricate parts of the

                                       skill patterns supported.


T: O.K. and come straight back.       Teacher supports the

                                       expression of these skills.

NEGOTIATION 2 (Teacher with CS, Style: Trainee)

T: Candice, what are you going to do, what are you working on ?

Direct question to Candice as she leaves to plug in synthesizer. This is based on teachers personal knowledge of the child, that unless this child is reminded of her part in negotiating an activity she may 'forget' to come back.

CS: I'll be thinking of that while I'm plugging in.

Holding response by Candice.

T: O.K.

NEGOTIATION 3 (Teacher with SP, Style: Trainee)

SP: Sir, can I do that pattern,
which were on the orange
paper ?

Negotiation initiation.
Steven wants to carry on
from yesterdays activity of
making splash paintings to
cover a book he has made.

T: What  the English book ?

Clarification of activity

SP: Yea.

T: Have you written it out
neatly to go in the book ?

Steven has been working on
stories to go in book and
is holding notes in his
hand from a story idea he
has been working on. Teacher
asks for assessment feedback
on progress of activity.

SP: I could do it on the
computer.

Steven does not answer
directly but indicates it
isn't finished yet

T: Um, so what would you like
to do ?

Teacher re-orientates child
to initial negotiation.

SP: Write it on paper first.

Steven accepts reorientation
and offers to finish story.

T: So you'd like to draft it first.  O.K. and make sure you do it in straight lines......if you get a pencil and draw it with a ruler, the lines, so you can hardly see them, it'll rub out dead easy then.

Teacher directs child's attention to specific skills he has used in past on this type of activity. Emphasizes drafting skills that Steven needs to develop.

SP: Sir, shall I do it on the same colour paper ?

Steven attempts to use a direct question to elicit directive behaviour from teacher.

T: What do you think ?

Teacher realizes this and reflects it back to oblige Steven to make decision on what his actions will be

SP: Yea...I Will.

NEGOTIATION 4 (Teacher with AB, Style: Trainee)

T: Anna, what you going to do ?
  What were you working on
  yesterday ?

Direct question to initiate
negotiation
Teacher uses the second
question to orientate Anna.

AB: We were doing our play, we
  havn't taped the rest yet.

Anna gives feedback and
assessment of yesterday's
activity.

T: So you want to tape the rest ?

Direct question.

AB: Yea, but we can't without
  Selina, Samantha and Julie.

Anna is a submissive member
of this friendship group.
Julie has negotiated a music
activity and the other two
are absent. This emphasizes
the need for the teacher's
personal knowledge of
child's friendship groups
and personality as part of
the negotiated partnership.

T: Have you finished writing
  it ?

Teacher reorientates Anna
to another aspect of the
activity.

AB: Yea its all in...we haven't
finished writing the whole
- whole thing.  We need
Selina and Julie to ....

Anna is still concerned
about her relationship
with the others.
Anna's concern is mainly
due to her worker role
with these children in the
previous days work on this
activity.

T: You don't need Salina and
Julie to finish it surely ?

AB: Yes, but we don't know
what Selina says we should
write.  Selina tells us
what to write, she tells
us what's going to be
in it.  We don't know what
she'll say, do we ?

This group organized the
parts of the activity based
on a division of labour.
Anna's response is partly
that this division of
labour should be maintained
It is difficult for her to
conceive changing from
operator to trainee
role.
An important skill of
being able to maintain
activity organization
across days.  It is also
partly Anna's
(worker relationship)

weariness of Selina's (entrepreneur) response on her return to the activity continuing in her absence. This highlights an important role for the teacher in these negotiation partnership to recognize their affective content for the child and wider issues than just the activity.

T: What do you think, she won't be very happy ?

Teacher shows Anna recognition of her affective position.

AB: Yea because she hasn't done it and we have.

T: How long since you've done maths ?

Reorientation attempt and assessment

AB: We did it not yesterday, the day before, so did I.

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| | |
|---|---|
| T: Don't you think you should do some ? Two days now, what do you think ? | Teacher draws attention to need for continuous balance in curricular activities. This based on the teachers knowledge of Anna's anxiety about maths. |
| AB: Don't know. | Holding response |
| T: Do you want to do maths ? | Teacher changes blocked reorientation question to direct question. |
| AB: I want to finish that. (points at parts of an electrical circuit she started the day before). | Anna recalls another activity she has not finished |
| T: O.K. come and show it when you've done it...the electrical circuit. | Teacher agrees but sets up feedback marker and introduces vocabulary to do with this activity. |

NEGOTIATION 5 (Teacher with BA, Style: Trainee)

BA: Can we do that thing...you          Negotiation initiation
put all ink in the water
and...

(interruption by others               Shared empathy by others
shouting "Marbling,                    listening
marbling ! ).

T: But you've done that haven't        Assessment and feedback
you ?                                  request.

BA: We have done it but                Feedback
someone took our
pictures..don't know
where they've gone .

RA: Sir, I havn't done it,             Negotiation initiation
we were doing our graphs.              This is Billy's sister
                                       who was working on a graph
                                       yesterday. She takes over
                                       a bargaining position for
                                       her brother.

T: O.K.

NEGOTIATION 6 (Teacher with MQ, Style: Trainee)

T: Matthew, what you going
to do ?

Direct question to Matthew
who has been sitting quietly

MQ: Going to finish off that
balloon mask.

Matthew does not often
initiate negotiations
(trainee). His
own style is to sit and
listen to others, developing
his own activities from
there

T: You didn't put enough
glue on it yesterday,
so put on a lot more
today. Make sure you put
an apron on...O.K...off
you go.
(Begins to leave the circle).

Teacher gives Matthew feed
back and reorientation on
yesterday's activity.

MQ: Where's the aprons gone ?
(Another child points " Over
there.")

Empathy

NEGOTIATION 7 (Teacher with JC, Style: Worker)

| (Joe  has his hand up) | Negotiation initiation |
| --- | --- |
| T: Yes Joe ? | Actually hand raising is not supported as an initiation technique as it has carried over from the submissive role in  their last classroom which was highly directive. |
| JC: Light bulbs. | Joe is an E.S.L speaker. Both the teacher and the child share a common knowledge that this means Joe wants to do a science activity that other children have been doing, making simple electrical circuits. (This is an important example of the development of shared understanding between the teacher and child / class). |

T: The thing with the light bulbs, Joe, is it didn't work properly. They couldn't get the connections properly. (Joe walks off to the science area).

The teacher's response is a good indicator of the social press present. It is not a useful reply for a child with a limited understanding of English. It exemplifies the pressure the teacher feels because of the other children, sitting, waiting to organize their own activities.

NEGOTIATION 8 (Teacher with RD, Style: Entrepreneur)

RD:  Sir, I was thinking, you          Negotiation initiation
know Julies house, I was              including orientation of the
finishing it for Julie                Teacher and assessment of
and we had to go out                  development of the activity.
for play.


T: Yea I thought so. So what           Shared knowledge between
you want to do is to                   teacher and child
finish off the chairs
and table ?                            RD nods.


RD:  Sir, do you know where            Directive question asked
the bulbs are ?                        to elicit directions
                                       from teacher


T: Where do we usually keep            Teacher reflects back
them ?                                 to force Rachel to
                                       orientate herself.


RD:  In the science corner             Rachel reorientates
but they were in the                   herself and initiates
art corner.                            action plan.
I'll go and look.

NEGOTIATION 9 (Teacher with MT, Style: Trainee)

( Maritha has her hand up )                Negotiation initiation


T: Yes Maritha ?


MT:Can I do maths ?                        Direct, closed question.


T: Yea, O.K. So you're going              Little discussion as
   to do maths.                           Maritha has maths work

                                          scheme book in hands.

                                          This is an example of the

                                          press of the wider school

                                          on the classroom, this is

                                          a book from a school based

                                          Maths scheme that all the

                                          Children in the school

                                          must use.

NEGOTIATION 10(a) (Teacher with KE, Style: Worker)

T: Komal, what you going to do.

Direct Question.

KE: Music.

Komal gives too general a response.

T: Someone's doing music already.

There are not always enough resources for all the children to do what they would like to, so here is an example of the need to develop empathy in the process.
Teacher points out this activity has already been negotiated by someone else.

KE: Oh, I wanted to do it.

Need for empathy development.

T: You could do music but you can't use the electronic synthesizer because someone is using it. What instruments you going to use. Did you finish those 'oo' words from yesterday.

To this question, Komal stays quite, so teacher attempts assessment check on other ongoing

activities. Continual
up dating is an important
part of the process.

KE:  No, I'll do them after
 play this afternoon.
 I can do some woodwork then.

Komal shows forward
planning of activity.

T: What woodwork could you
 do then ?
 What would you make ?
(Childs sits and thinks).

Komal seems to have
responded without real
consideration of
activities.  An important
part of the teacher's role
is to pin this down and
develop planning and
consideration.  This is a
nice example of
individual differences in
negotiation skill
development.
He picks a general
curricular  area then waits
to be directed.
        Komal needs
a lot of support in
developing planning skills

compared to others in the class.

NEGOTIATION 10 (b) (Teacher with KE, Style: Worker)

(By now Komal is the last child sitting in the circle, still thinking from negotiation 10a ).

Komal finds negotiation difficult if his first idea is not feasible. He needs to be helped to develop a more fluid approach in his thinking

T: What about Komal ?

KE: Music.

T: Komal, you can do music after playtime, so what would you like to do now up to then ?

Teacher takes leadership.

KE: Some maths.

Teacher supports Komal in this choice knowing his reading problems, suggesting a joint plan to overcome them.

T: Some maths, can you read the maths book.....Bring the maths book and the page your working on and I'll help you do it.

NEGOTIATION 11 (Teacher with DA, Style: Entrepreneur)

DA:  Sir, can I do my C.N.      Negotiation initiation.
    tower. I want to finish it.  Dominic is an entrepreneur.
                                 This is an activity
                                 carried over from a couple
                                 of days before, related to
                                 Dominics holiday in Canada.

T: You're  going to carry on
   with your C.N. tower ?

#13: Yes.

T: The problem is the radio      Feedback to Dominic by
   masts kept falling off.       teacher of problems in
                                 past with activity. This
                                 is to give experience in
                                 updating plans to over
                                 come these problems.

DA: I'll paint them and then     New plans drawn.
   stick them later.

T: O.k. You'll have to let
   them dry first

DA: Yea.
(Child leaves circle).

NEGOTIATION 12 (Teacher with WR, Style: Trainee)

WR:  My helicopter, I want          Negotiation initiation
to do that.


T: O.K. Finish it but you           Teacher agrees general
should do a drawing, a              activity but again uses
plan first.  Put all the            personal knowledge of
measurements in your woodwork       child's need to develop
book.  Do the drawing in            maths skill, to bargain in
your woodwork book and all          a maths activity.  This is
the measurements in what            an attempt to generalize
...metres or centimetres ?          the child's intrinsic
                                    motivation for the original
                                    activity, into maths.


WR: Centimetres.

T:  Good, well done.

## 6.25. THE TEACHERS INTERACTIVE TOOLS WITHIN NEGOTIATION.

These examples provide some dissection of the basic gritty quality of negotiation with 7 - 8 year olds. The negotiation aspect seems thinner in transcript than it was in reality because of the total absence of nonverbal features. Nevertheless it is possible to adduce a number of general principles, as follows:

### a) PERSONAL KNOWLEDGE:

A fine, detailed and developing knowledge of the individual child's interests, strengths and weaknesses, social relationships and negotiative skill development position is something that the teacher needs to constantly refer to when negotiating and working with the child.

### b) EMPATHY:

The development of empathy is valuable in reaching a shared agreement and shared meaning and communication structures.

### c) SOCIOMETRICS:

A knowledge of 'group sociometry' is vital in considering the social constraints on negotiations that are occurring. This knowledge needs constant up dating as friendships change.

## d) QUESTIONING STRATEGIES:

The use of questioning strategies to both initiate and gain knowledge of the negotiations and of the childs' classroom world.  Questions are also used  as orienting tools to shape  the way a child is approaching, thinking and planning an activity.

## e) ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK MARKERS:

Continual requests for ongoing assessment and feedback to ensure that not only is the teacher aware of developments but also that the child begins to take on these skills in developing self  assessment of own activities and plans. The use of feedback markers are important, both within the child-teacher partnership and the group partnership to emphasize to the child his responsibility to the group, as well as to himself.

## f) PLANNING SKILLS:

The development of forward-planning skills, in pointing out to the children that more than one activity can be 'on the go' at any one time, and that it is possible for activities to be 'pended' if planned well.

## g) DIVISION OF LABOUR:

The use of division of labour as a technique, highlights inter-dependence and responsibility between cooperating individuals.  The importance of individuals in the group feeding back on their own part in the division of labour is especially important and involves

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careful <u>listening</u> by all group members so as to understand the development of the whole enterprise.

**h) REORIENTATION STATEMENTS:**

The use of reorientation statements is vital in bringing both the child's and the teacher's attention to a range of factors: past planning of activities and its relevance to the current negotiation, any need for reconsideration of resource use, drawing of plans or social grouping.

**i) OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING:**

Observational learning, with the children and teacher learning from watching others' negotiation and activity techniques and practices.

**j) PEER SUPPORT AND TEACHING:**

Peer support and teaching; a child helps the development of self-determining skills in children who have less well developed skills.

**k) DEVELOPMENTAL PLANNING:**

Expansion of children's original plans. This is important at two levels: first, so that the child's original plans can be expanded by the teacher, as an example of the need to detail planning for feasibility purposes; second to ensure inclusion of experiences that the child would not otherwise have included in their

original interest, prehaps owing to anxiety e.g. maths experiences.

## l) AFFECTIVE COMPONENT:

The affective element of negotiations. The child's interests and anxieties are important elements of knowledge for the teacher when directing the child's activity planning.

## m) RESOCIALIZATION:

Withdrawel of support for behaviours that are hangovers from other classrooms and that act against the aims of the negotiating classroom, for example (Negotiation 9) 'submissive' handraising when the child wants to speak. Alternative strategies that are more atune to self determination need to be taught, such as the social skill of stepping in when there is a gap in the conversation.

## n) INTRINSIC MOTIVATION:

The use of the child's intrinsic motivation and interest in an activity as a vehicle to teach self-determining skills.

# CHAPTER 7:

# STUDY 7: TRANSITION FROM A DIRECTIVE TO A NEGOTIATIVE CLASSROOM

7.1.    INTRODUCTION AND METHOD

      a) PUPIL SELF-REPORT PROFILES

      b) OBSERVATION BY A TRAINED OBSERVER

7.2.    PROCEDURE

      a)  DIRECTIVE ENVIRONMENT

      b)  TRANSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT

      c)  NEGOTIATING ENVIRONMENT

7.3.    SUBJECTS


7.4.    RESULTS

7.4.1.  a)  Classroom-Level Analysis

7.4.2.  b)  Analysis Of Individual Curriculum Areas
           By Curricular Periods

7.4.3.  c)  Analysis By Time

7.4.4.  d)  Mean Length Of Period

7.4.5.  e)  Time Spent On The Major Curricular Areas Under
           The Three Classroom Areas

7.4.6.  f)  Individual Pupil Curricular Experience:
           Pupil Time On Curricualr Areas


7.5.    DISCUSSION

# CHAPTER 7:

## STUDY 7: TRANSITION FROM A DIRECTIVE TO A NEGOTIATIVE CLASSROOM

### 7.1. INTRODUCTION AND METHOD

The majority of primary classrooms in Britain are still run on the traditional, directive model. If concepts such as negotiation are to be introduced into these classrooms then an empirical study of the factors and processes that develop during such change would seem to be important so as to provide a basis for discussion and future actions.

This study accordingly follows the individual curricular experiences of a sample of children, initially within a formal, directive classroom (Bennett, 1976), then through a transition period and into a negotiative classroom ethos of the kind described in Chapter 5.

The study adopts a longitudinal approach, examining an intact class group of 12 children. Although the class is recognized to constitute but a small sample, the data were collected daily over a fifteen-week period so that detailed evidence about change could be realized. Thus the stability over time problems of a single-occasion study are avoided. By adopting a multi-method design the study also avoids the limitations of a single-method approach as generally found in classroom research (see chapter 1 and Farquhar et al. 1987).

Two methods of data collection were used:

## a) PUPIL SELF-REPORT PROFILES:

These profiles were completed twice daily by pupils. They gave the curricular area the child had been working on in the morning or afternoon session just completed. The children were asked to outline the activity as exactly as possible, e.g. ' Nuffield mathematics book 4, page 15.'

## b) OBSERVATION BY A TRAINED OBSERVER;

Observations were made twice daily at randomly determined times to check the curricular activity of each child, and thus the fit between the child's self-report profile and his / her actual activity.

## 7.2. PROCEDURE

The children were followed for fifteen weeks, three five week blocks, in each of three classroom conditions: (a) established directive ( = last five weeks of class), (b) transitional ( = first five weeks in a new negotiative style classroom ) and (c) established negotiative ( = after two terms in a negotiating classroom).

Figure 7.1. summarises this schedule:

## FIGURE 7.1. TIME PLAN FOR STUDY

| TERM 1 | TERM 2 | TERM 3 |
|---|---|---|
| DIRECTIVE | TRANSITIONAL | NEGOTIATIVE |
| LAST 5 WEEKS | FIRST 5 WEEKS | LAST 5 WEEKS |

The following descriptions will be helpful in defining the ethos of the three types of classroom:

a) **DIRECTIVE (First block of five weeks coded Weeks 1-5)**

In this type of organization, the children were seated in fixed, given positions facing a blackboard. The teacher controlled all seating movement and discussion. Activities were in the main based on given textbooks and worksheets, with the teacher nominating activities. Most teacher-pupil interaction was initiated via raised hands, and child-child interaction was discouraged. Rewards and controls were extrinsic in nature, mainly teacher praise and criticism, ticks and written comments.

b) **TRANSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT (Second block of five weeks coded Weeks 6-10)**

Children were now allowed to choose their own seating, and arrangements of desks followed the logic of the activity. No distinct resource areas were yet present. Neither chairs nor desks necessarily had to face the blackboard or teacher. Teacher-child interaction was no longer based around hand signals, and child-child interaction was openly encouraged. Intrinsic rewards based on satisfaction with work were highlighted, with little use of extrinsic rewards such as work ticks, teacher praise or rebukes. The teacher still directed the general curriculum but its content and structure of

activities were more open to negotiation. Greater freedom in text book use was also allowed.

c) **NEGOTIATING ENVIRONMENT (Third block of five weeks coded 11-15)**

The design of the classroom was as discribed in Chapter 5. Resource areas were set up for five curricular areas; language, art, mathematics, science and computing. Seating was available in each area, and children chose their own seating. All activities were now negotiated with the teacher with no teacher direction towards a curricular area prior to negotiation. The teacher's role was now that of partner rather than director. Free classroom movement and interaction were encouraged. Rewards, if used, were verbal and aimed at raising the child's level of intrinsic motivation. Specifically, teacher-child talk encouraged problem restructuring and strategy planning rather than giving answers (see Ingram and Worrall, 1987).

## 7.3. SUBJECTS

As Appendix (1), indicates, from a larger sample of 178 pupils aged 7 - 11 years, studied over a four-year period, a group of twelve, within one class were identified and monitored as they moved from a directive to a negotiating classroom environment. The group of 12 (from a class of 14, two excluded due to continuous absences) were chosen as they represented a 'normal' classgroup running through the four junior years. The

group consisted of six boys and six girls, aged 9-10 years.

## 7.4. RESULTS

Data from the pupil profiles and observer records were analysed at two levels; classroom processes and individual pupil experiences. Analysis at the classroom level identified factors common to each classroom environment, directive, transitional and negotiative.

### 7.4.1. Classroom-level analysis

Table 7.1. shows the total number of periods children spent across the curriculum under each classroom condition. The entries in the table were obtained by adding all the reported periods for a given child in a given week and averaging over the twelve children.

A 'period' is taken as an activity (of not less than thirty minutes) carried out by an individual pupil in a given curricular area. Note that in the case of reading the criterion time had to be taken as 'not less than five minutes' as length varied widely due to a range of uncontrollable variables across the three different environments. These were in particular teacher variation in dividing time among different pupils and variation due to the specific nature of the activity.

**TABLE 7.1.    NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY CHILDREN IN THE THREE CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS.**

|                  |              | SUM  | WEEKLY | WEEKLY MEAN PER CHILD |
|------------------|--------------|------|--------|-----------------------|
| Sum of periods:  | Directive:   | 1282 | 256    | 21.3                  |
|                  | Transitional | 517  | 103    | 8.6                   |
|                  | Negotiating: | 808  | 161    | 13.4                  |

As Table 7.1. shows, longer periods of activity were favoured under the transitional and negotiating classroom environments. The relation between the classroom period numbers equivalent to a ratio of approximately 10:4:6 for Directive : Transitional: Negotiating environments.

### 7.4.2.    Analysis Of Individual Curriculum Areas By Curricular Periods

It was of interest to see the extent to which the approximate 10 : 4 : 6 total period ratio for conditions might broadly hold across different curricular areas. Figure 7.2. illustrates curricular contrasts within the five-week blocks as well as across blocks.

Within the directive condition, mathematics dominated the curriculum (mean = 68 periods a week) followed in descending order by reading (49), free choice (30), English (25), art and craft (25), topic (21), music (19), games (13), swimming (5), science (2), and computing (0).

Comparing this distribution with the transitional condition, a shift is observable. Mathematics still has the edge with a mean of 21 periods a week, however

# FIGURE 7.2. BREAKDOWN OF TABLE 7.1 AVERAGES BY CURRICULAR AREA.

## FIGURE 7.2.(a) DIRECTIVE CLASSROOM:

KEY:
1 = MATHEMATIC:
2 = READING
3 = ART
4 = SWIMMING
5 = MUSIC
6 = ENGLISH
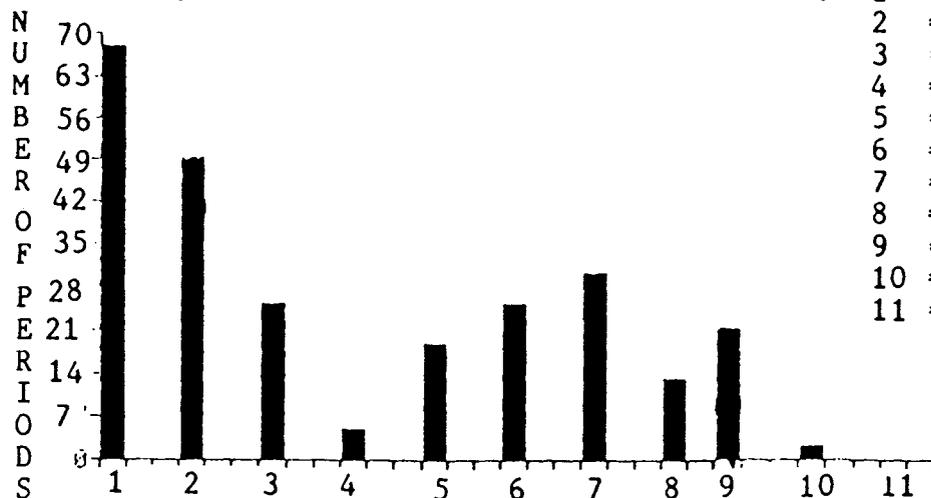7 = FREE CHOICE
8 = GAMES
9 = PROJECT
10 = SCIENCE
11 = COMPUTER
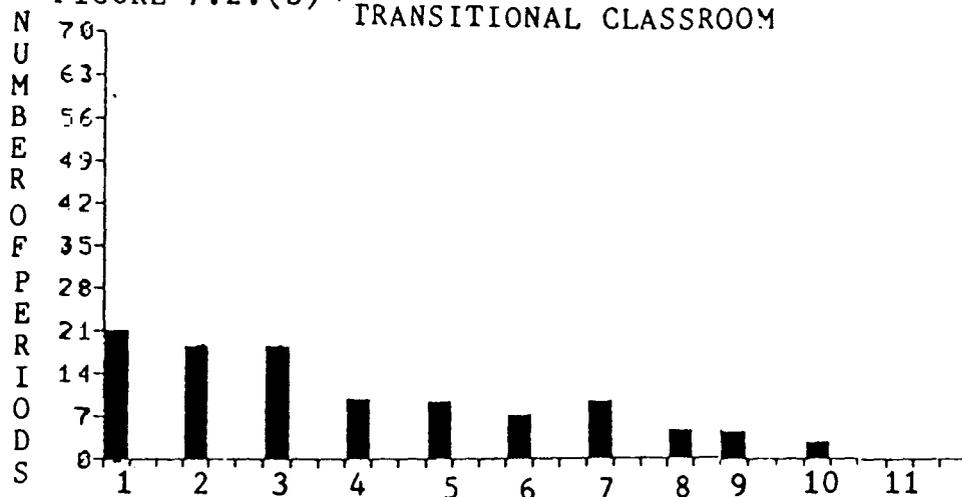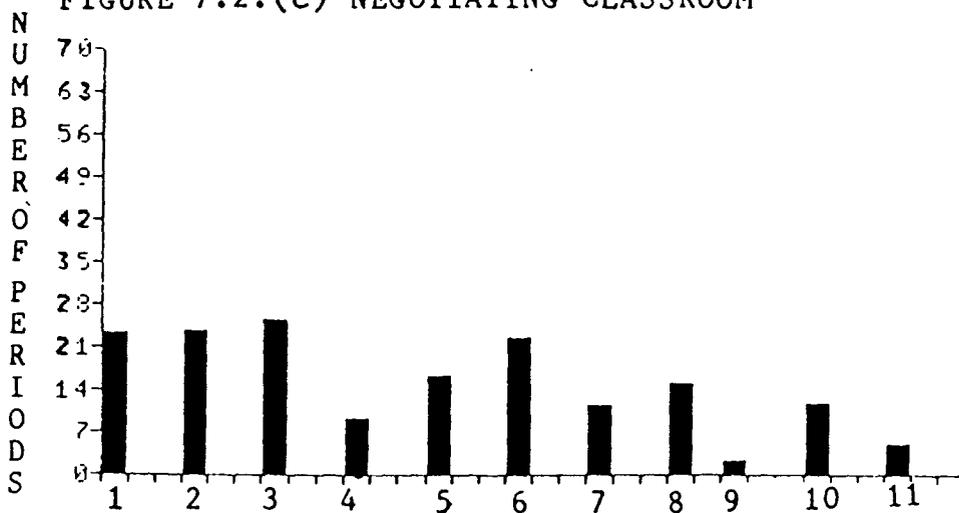


## FIGURE 7.2.(b) TRANSITIONAL CLASSROOM



## FIGURE 7.2.(c) NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM



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reading and art/craft are now in joint second position with a mean of 18 periods each. Similar shifts between the directive and transitional conditions can be observed for other curricular areas in Figure 7.2

If we now consider the negotiating condition, mathematics no longer holds the pole position. The curriculum as experienced by the children (and as confirmed by observation) is very balanced. Art/craft activities have a mean of 25 periods a week, and reading 24 a week with mathematics narrowly occupying third place with 23 periods. It should also be noted that some areas such as English, which in the transitional condition dropped dramatically to a mean of 7 periods a week, rise sharply to a mean of 22 periods in the negotiating classroom (see also Appendix 4 for more details).

There is then an observable shift in the relative dominance of curricular areas across different types of classroom environment. The general pattern seems 'U' shaped for most curricular areas across conditions, e.g. reading which has means of 49, 18, 24 per week across the three conditions.

### 7.4.3. Analysis By Time

An analysis of the actual amount of time available in each classroom condition for curricular use can give a fuller impression than a simple count of periods. Figure 7.3. shows how the curricular areas vary in the amount of time they received in different classroom conditions.

Consistent with the 7.4.2. analysis, the directive

**FIGURE 7.3.  WEEKLY TIME SPENT ON EACH CURRICULAR AREA
AVERAGED OVER CHILDREN (n=12)**
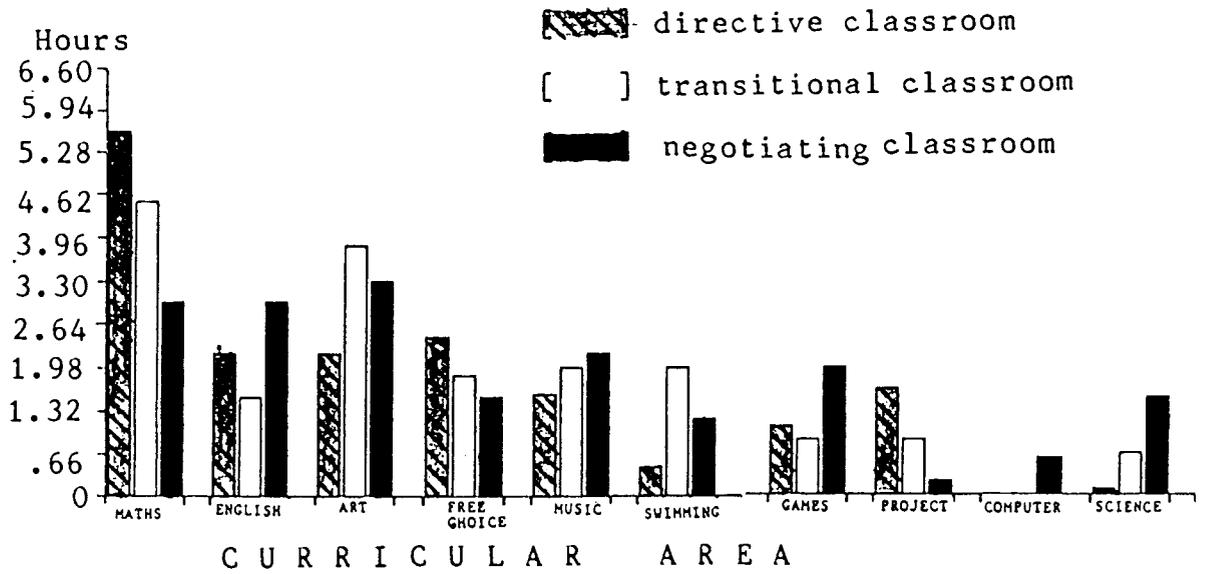


TOTAL HOURS SUMMED OVER CURRICULUM FOR EACH FIVE-WEEK
CONDITION

|                        | Hours on activities |
| ---------------------- | ------------------- |
| Directive condition    | 1064                |
| Transitional condition | 1102                |
| Negotiating condition  | 1141                |

and to some extent the transitional classrooms were dominated by mathematics, each child spending on average 5.8 and 4.5 hours respectively per week. Againest this, the negotiating classroom can be seen to have a more even cross-curricular spread, being in fact just headed by art and craft with 3.5 hours.

Twᴏ general points should also be noted. First, there are changes in hierarchical position in response to classroom condition e.g. 'Project' ranks fifth in the directive classroom, eighth in the transitional and tenth in the negotiative. Second, the same relative positions across classroom conditions does not mean the same time allocation e.g mathematics, games, science and computing all hold the same hierarchical positions in both the directive and transitional conditions but do not have a similar allocation of time.

### 7.4.4. Mean Length Of Period

It was noticeable from Table 7.1. that the directive condition which recorded the greatest number of periods would have had the greatest dividing up of curricular time.

As the number of periods was generally observed to vary between classroom conditions, yet the amount of children's time in school does not, it is of interest to calculate the mean period length for each condition. (Note that calculations are based on a 5.5 hour day less 1 hour for assembly, preparation and clearing away = 4.5 hours or 270 minutes.)

Such a period-based analysis indicates children's spontaneous time allocation for given curricular areas in the later two classroom conditions compared to the teacher's directions in the directional environment. (Due to the variation in period length between conditions). The directive conditions paper time table gave the shortest curricular period length, 57 minutes. This fits closely with the observed mean period length for this condition of 1 hour 3 minutes.

The mean period length for the transitional condition was more than doubled at 2 hours 37 minutes. This meant that children in the transitional classroom spent on average 1 hour 34 minutes longer per period on a given curricular activity than in the directive classroom.

The mean period length of 1 hour 40 minutes recorded for the negotiating classroom indicated an average of 37 minutes longer on task in this condition compared to the directive. However in comparison with the transitional, the children in the negotiative classroom spent on average 57 minutes less on task.

## 7.4.5. Time Spent On The Major Curricular Areas Under The Three Classroom Conditions

It is necessary to look at comparative times on various curricular areas to understand the curricular diet of pupils in each condition.

Figure 7.4. shows how curricular emphasis change over the consecutive classroom conditions. Column five of the table indicates that across the four major curriculum

FIGURE 7.4. PERCENTAGE OF TIME SPENT BY PUPILS ON MAJOR
CURRICULAR AREAS UNDER THE THREE CLASSROOM
CONDITIONS.
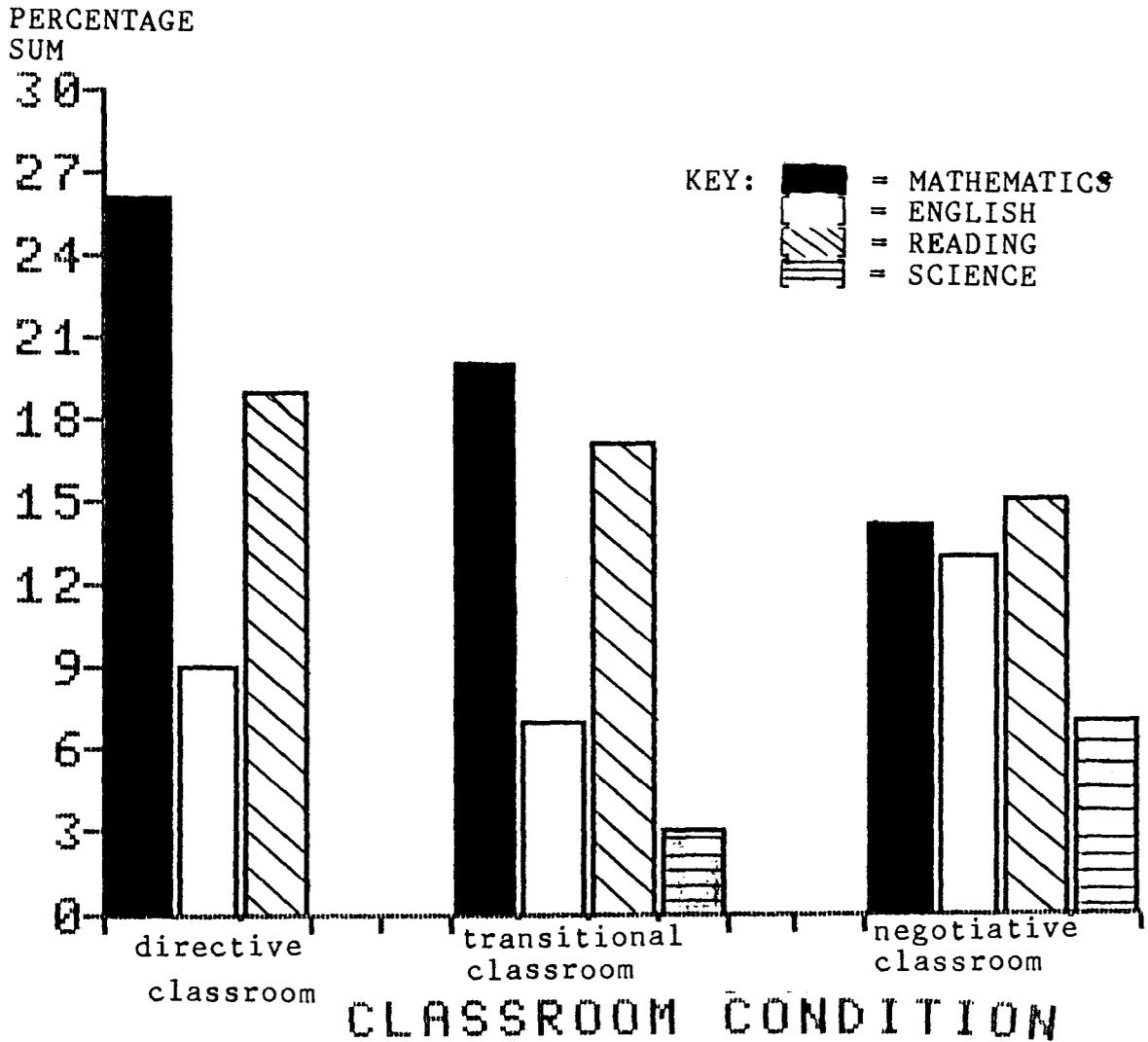


| | C U R R I C U L U M | | | A R E A | |
| | Maths | English | Reading | Science | SUM |
| Classroom Condition | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Directive | 26% | 9% | 19% | 0% | 54% |
| Transitionary | 20% | 7% | 17% | 3% | 47% |
| Negotiative | 14% | 13% | 15% | 7% | 49% |

areas the sum of percentage time spent is similar in the three classroom conditions. However mathematics and to some extent reading, show a decline in on-task time in the move from the directive to the negotiating classroom. In comparison English and science show an increase in curricular time allocation. Under this analysis, the negotiative climate again shows the most equitable time distribution across curricular areas. While science is still low, it is an improvement on the zero time allocation in the directive classroom.

Summarizing thus far, it appears that not only does the classroom condition directly affect the type and time parameters of curricular distribution, but also that children within the same classroom environment in effect experience different curricula.

### 7.4.6 Individual Pupil Curricular Experience: Pupil Time On Curricular Areas.

The analysis so far has used molar, class-level indices of the three classroom conditions namely, the division of different curricular areas under each condition, the mean length of periods and the effect on the curriculum balance exercised by each classroom condition. Within this molar analysis consideration has not been given to the possible effects of the different classroom conditions on the individual child. Such a consideration is relevant as it is evident from Figure 7.1. that for no curricular area could all the children have experienced a common exposure within or across the

three classroom conditions. This observation is particularly relevant to the directive condition, which has traditionally been held to offer a fairly common curricular exposure for all pupils (Bennett et al. 1984 and 1976) and yet recorded in the present case a mathematics period range of 22 and English of 10 over the five weeks. Further relevant commentary can be found in Farquhar et al. (1987).

Figures 7.5. and 7.6. look at the individual child in relation to the amount of time in hours each child spent on mathematics and English in each classroom condition. The greatest amount of mathematics activity for the directional classroom was recorded by Rizwana (RI), with a mean of 8.4 hours a week (42 hours over five weeks) compared to the lowest mean for the same condition of 3.6 hours a week (18 hours) recorded by Farah (FA), Figure (7.5.). This was a difference of 24 hours mathematics experience in a five week period between the two children. Similar differences are observable between conditions for other children in Figures 7.5. and 7.6.

A second suggestion from these figures is the variation in time spent on a given curricular area by the same child across different classroom conditions. No child spent the same amount of time on mathematics or English across any two conditions and in most cases wide variations are observable. A fairly average example, Figure 4 is Emma (coded 7) who recorded a weekly mean variation of 2 hours mathematics experience between the transitional and negotiative conditions. Emma had a peak

## FIGURE 7.5. HOURS SPENT BY EACH CHILD ON MATHS ACTIVITIES IN EACH OF THE THREE CLASSROOM CONDITIONS



1. Abdul
2. Naeem
3. Martin
4. Fiasal
5. Hasan
6. Dominic
7. Emma
8. Rhana
9. Rizwana
10. Delsie
11. Dora
12. Farah
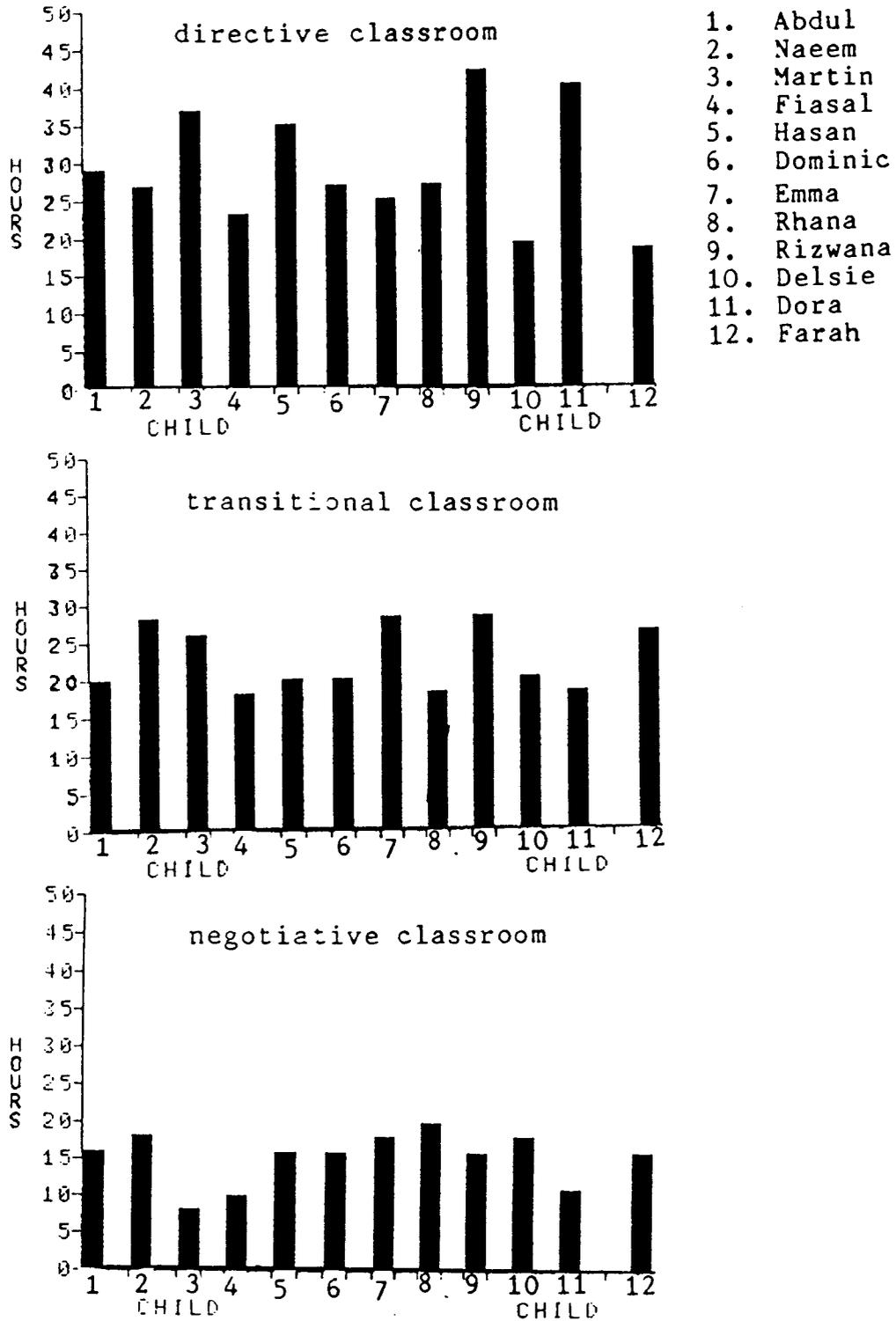
AVERAGE HOURS IN EACH CLASSROOM CONDITION SPENT ON MATHS ACTIVITIES EACH WEEK.

Directive condition      69.8

Transitional condition 54.0

Negotiative condition  36.6

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FIGURE 7.6.  HOURS SPENT BY EACH CHILD ON ENGLISH
ACTIVITIES IN EACH OF THE THREE CLASSROOM
CONDITIONS



directive classroom

1. Abdul
2. Naeem
3. Martin
4. Fiasal
5. Hasan
6. Dominic
7. Emma
8. Rhana
9. Rizwana
10. Delsie
11. Dora
12. Farah

PUPIL

transitional classroom
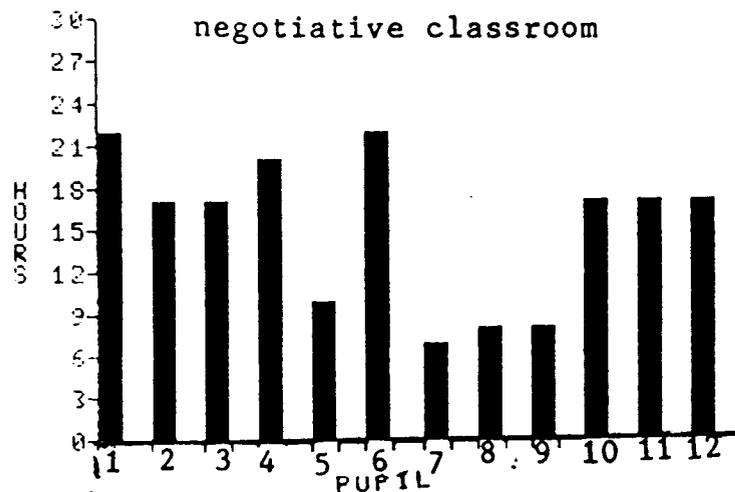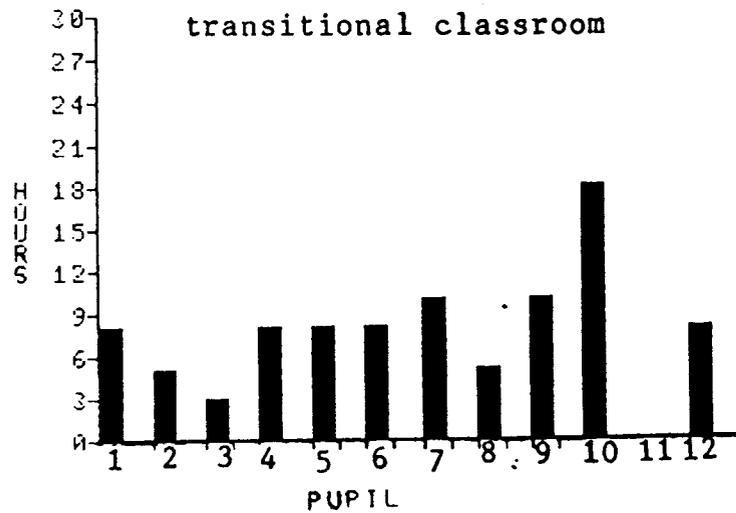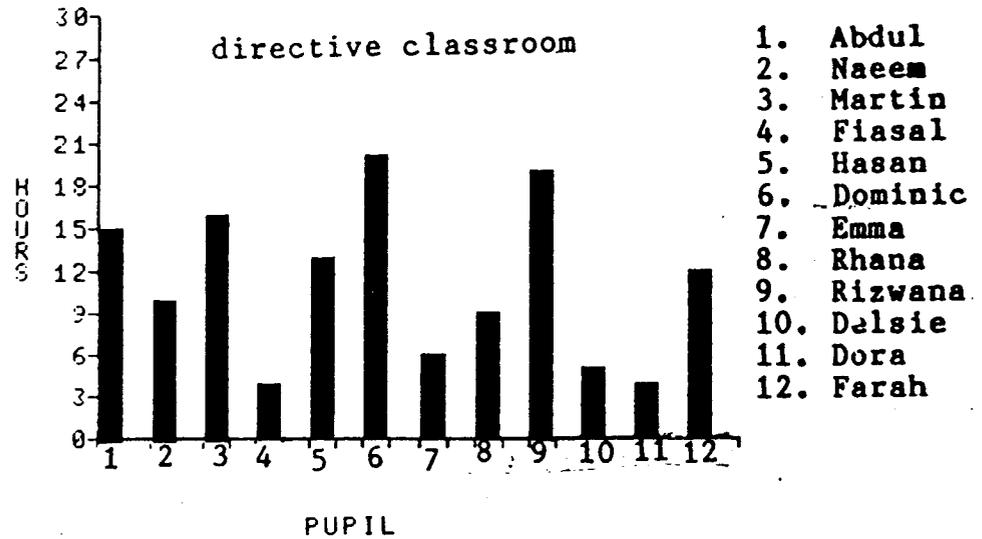
PUPIL

negotiative classroom

PUPIL

AVERAGE HOURS IN EACH CLASSROOM CONDITION SPENT ON ENGLISH
ACTIVITIES EACH WEEK.

Directive condition      26.4

Transitional condition 18.2

Negotiative condition   36.4

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of 28 hours mathematics experience in the transitional classroom and a low of 18 hours in the negotiative, a difference of 10 hours between two five-week periods.

It appears that children in the sample respond individually in terms of the amount of time they are 'willing' to spend on different subjects in various classroom conditions. This can again be illustrated by comparing two individual cases across conditions. For example, in the transitional condition Abdul records a curricular experience dominated by Mathematics (20 hours) and Emma (30 hours). However Abdul in the negotiative environment spends a weekly mean of 4.4 hours (22 hours across the five weeks) on English as opposed to 3.2 hours (16 hours) on Mathematics. In this condition his preference is clearly toward English. In comparison, Emma prefers Mathematics under the same condition recording a mean of 3.6 hours a week (18 hours across the five weeks) for Mathematics and 1.4 hours (7 hours) of English (Figures 7.5. and 7.6.). Consistent with the findings of Chapter Three it appears that a child responds differently to a given curricular area depending upon the classroom conditions in which the child finds itself. There are generally wide individual variations in this allocation for the same curricular area across classroom conditions.

In summary, the data in Figures 7.5 and 7.6 support the following points:
(1) different children vary within a classroom environment in terms of curricular experience;

(2) the same child varies in such experiences across different classrooms conditions;

(3) children appear to respond individually to the amount of time they are willing to spend on different subjects in various classroom conditions.

## 7.5. DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study has been to explore what happens at the individual child level in terms of curricular experience when a directive classroom environment is developed into a negotiating environment. It has also shown that the transitional stage has its own distinct identifiable character.

At the level of the individual child, wide individual variability of curricular experience has been identified within all three classroom environments. However in general it is the negotiating classroom that offered the children the most balanced curricular exposure. This observation adds further support to the view that the 'commonality' of curricular experience assumed for children in other forms of classroom organization especially the directive classroom is questionable (see Chapter 3). The findings support the view that although the children may share the same classroom and teacher, no common curricular experience may be present at the level of the individual child. Certainly, in the present study, although children shared a directive, transitional or negotiative classroom with common teacher and resources, no common curricular diet was found.

A second major point is that the children played a dynamic role in their adaptation to the different types of classroom in which they found themselves, as indicated by the variable nature of their net curricular experiences under different classroom conditions. The children showed an ability to respond distinctively to the features that characterized a particular classroom ethos. The types of demands that these classroom features place on children, as indicated by the variation of response by the same child to different classroom conditions (Figures 7.5. and 7.6.) appear to create a range of behaviours, that act to create an individuality of response by different children to different classroom demands.

The writer's day-to-day experience of working with this present group of children, indicates that personality differences between individual children appear to play a role in the child's type and style of reaction to the classroom conditions, especially in the child's use of adaptive strategies to organize curricular experiences. It is possible that part of this process may be the child's self-conceived ability to cope with the classroom problems each environment imposes. These could include the curricular demands, combined with the child's understanding of variables affecting the outcomes of behaviour that lead to curricular response variations. Such a process would ultimately lead to the individualization of curricular experiences recorded in each classroom (cf. Oppenheimer, Stet and Versteeg, 1986). This point is actually developed in the final

study.

In dividing up the teaching day  it was the directive classroom that recorded the greatest number of periods  so that children spent less time on a given curricular area than in the transitional or negotiative classrooms.  It is important to note that in these two latter classroom conditions, where children had an increasing control over the division of the curricular day, they opted for a pattern  very different from that imposed by the teacher in the directive classroom.   If the child's own way of dividing up the school day is not that of the teacher, this raises  questions in relation to  intrinsic motivation, locus of control and feelings of personal causation across the different classroom conditions.

Without pre-empting the question of "who knows best", the child's self-selected curricular diet was evidently different from the 'officially recommended' diet.  The self-selected  diet highlighted children's preferences for spending  longer on self-negotiated choices than normally allowed in the directive classroom.  This indicates that the children's own  choices of activity led to greater commitment in terms of  task  involvement and  increased intrinsic motivational levels.  While the forced diet of the directive classroom is dominated by the 3Rs, the negotiative diet seems more balanced across the curriculum as a whole-indeed a more 'wholesome' diet.

The concept of the hidden curriculum seems relevant to the individual variability within and between classroom experiences of individual children.  In reference to this,

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it is interesting to note that it is the directive classroom which records the greatest variation in curricular experiences between children, although it is for this very classroom type that a common experience of curriculum is traditionally held to be present. And it is down at the level of the children's everyday comments that this type of lack of common experience can be noted. For example, on one occasion while some children in the directive classroom clamoured in relation to a mathematics test "we've not done this type of maths" others claimed "we have".

In general methodological terms, the data supports the view, through its observation of individual differences, that the use of research designs that depend on the single focus of the teacher to study classroom processes, produce data that has only limited validity. Studies that depend on focussing on teacher behaviour or report, place too great an emphasis on teacher role and fail to identify evidence that indicates the active role of the child in classroom processes. The individualistic nature of children's reactions in the classroom environments studied, support an argument for movement toward pupil-focused studies in order to reflect the complex processes in and between various classrooms and children.

# CHAPTER 8

## STUDY 8: CHILDREN'S PREFERRED CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS.

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# CHAPTER 8

## STUDY 8: CHILDREN'S PREFERRED CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS.

### 8.1. INTRODUCTION

The findings of preceding chapters have indicated a range of processes occurring within a variety of classroom conditions. One of the major findings has been that despite a range of fixed conditions, children vary in a unique, individual pattern. Accordingly although children share the same classroom, they experience very different curriculums. It has been proposed that children's individual responses to the classroom as a motivational (Dweck, 1986) or learning (Snow, 1986) environment creates this variation in curricular experience. In Chapter 7 this proposal was supported by the observation that the same child followed across different classroom conditions and types, selects very different curricular experiences in each.

This present chapter extends the concept of individuality to consider the children's actual preferences for certain types of classroom arrangement and activity management. From an initial consideration of whole-class organization this study moves to address how different aspects of classroom organization have comparative pay-offs in terms of the quantity and quality of work and how much effort and enjoyment the child experienced. Agreement between teacher and child on these matters is also examined. A variety of methods is used: rating scales, questionnaires and interviews.

## 8.2. TEACHER - CHILD MICROCLIMATES

The concept of a 'class' of children is really very broad and can lead to generalizations about 'classroom processes' that stretch the bounds of validity. It is reasonable to suggest instead that within a classroom environment the child creates with the teacher a kind of motivational and learning 'micro-climate' that forms the basis of a child-teacher partnership. It would be this microclimate that supports the variation observed between different children's experiences within the same classroom. Thinking of the class in this way as an aggregate of teacher-child microclimates is a more constructive and illuminating lens through which to consider the classroom worlds of children sharing the same physical environment.

The creation of such a microclimate between the teacher and child can further be seen as motivationally 'adaptive' in the sense of the term as used by Dweck (1986). The use of the adaptive / maladaptive construct holds that a classroom environment which supports the development of challenging and personally-valued achievement goals thereby allows the child to reach personal aims-and is 'adaptive' for the individual. Such a classroom supports the child's mastery learning of skills and development of personal interests. A maladaptive classroom encourages avoidance of challenge in classroom activities and low persistence in the face of difficulties, together with dependence on the teacher. It is maladaptive in the sense that it does not support the

child's move toward mastery learning. Further narrowing
down of this adaptive / maladaptive perspective from its
global classroom    application   to that of the teacher-
child micro-climate      provides    the best      analytical
framework for consideration of  the partnership.

## 8.3. THE CONCEPT OF TRADE-OFF IN THE CLASSROOM

Adopting   Dweck's use of the adaptive / maladaptive
concept,  any classroom type can be considered as having
a trade-off value  for the individuals that make up the
class  group.   The  nature  of  this  trade-off  varies
depending  upon  the  child  under  consideration  within  the
class and the type of classroom design within which  the
child is   encapsulated.   For some children in a class,
the nature of the  trade off is adaptive,  in that the
classroom design   supports their personal interests and
individual  preferences   for  a    particular  style  of
learning,   classroom role and classroom organization. At
the same time, for other children in the same class,  this
trade-off has a   maladaptive nature in that it  does not
act to support their preferences.   Therefore within a
single class group the overall design of the classroom
will create a trade-off situation where some members are
supported in their preferences toward learning conditions
while others are not.

A major part of this   process in   classrooms, is
inevitably due to the style of the individual teacher.
Teacher styles (Bennett,   1976), also have a trade-off
value in the sense that a particular teaching style will

create positive attitudes to school activities in some pupils but create negative attitudes in others (cf. Cunningham, 1975). Determinist research models striving for the optimum teaching style and strategy have failed to come to terms with this variety of preference among any group of children although some studies have asked children about their 'preferred teacher'.

Further support for this perspective can be found in the work of Good et al. (1976). These authors identify five pupil types said to need different arrangements of classroom variables if their potential is to be realised. Included in these variables are the type of communication patterns that are dominant in a classroom and the structure of activities. Whichever way one or more of these variables is arranged, certain pupil types and roles will be supported while others will not. Good focuses on the teacher's responsibility to provide instructional techniques and materials to meet the individual child's response or 'educational' needs. However, the present Chapter 3 draws attention to the danger in Good's failure to temper this emphasis on the teacher's role and with a consideration of the child's possible contributions. This was seen as reflective of the directive and dependency models.

Of course, the teacher in some form appears as the immediate common structural element in all classroom types. Although the teacher may attempt to meet children's individual interests by provision of a range of individualistic materials which create incidental elements

of micro-climates, these lack variability because she acts in the belief that her behaviours have a perception common to the class as a whole and not seen differently by each individual child. However Chapter 5 when considering the processes in action within the classroom pointed to partnership as the 'common element' within classroom interactions. It is the microclimate that encloses this teacher-child partnership that forms the common element in the classroom and not the presence of a teacher per se.

With this as a starting point, the present study considers individual pupil's preferences, for particular classroom organizations. This consideration can in turn lead to:

(a) identification of structures that lower the trade off values that different classrooms have on the teacher-child partnership.

(b) identification of the role that different classroom factors have in supporting a child's activity persistence and sense of challenge.

(c) consideration of a type of optimum 'learning microclimate' for each child.

The design of this last study therefore addresses the following questions;

(i) **Within the class group, what types of classroom organization are most / least preferred and by which children ?**

(ii) **Within practical constraints, what are the optimum conditions needed to support children's organizational preferences identified as present within a class ?**

These questions are addressed by setting up eight different types of classroom organization, for a single group of children and measuring the individual child's preferences within and between these different role environments. The eight classrooms are created by manipulating three factors which are salient in the organization of negotiating and directive classrooms: (i) way of choosing curriculum content; (ii) organization of child's on-task activity; (iii) arrangements of resource areas and seating.

## 8.4. METHOD

### 8.4.1. Subjects

The children in this study had not been used in the studies already reported in previous chapters. They consisted of a single vertical class of first- and second-year primary children, twenty four in number, aged 7-9 years. They were an existing intact class group, and prior to the study had spent one term in a negotiating classroom.

### 8.4.2. Procedure

The children were told that over the next few weeks the classroom was going to be organized in different ways to see which they liked the best. These principles of

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organization were in fact as follows:

Curriculum content negotiated or directed.

Activity organization self organized or teacher organized.

Setting open or fixed.

A detailed definition of each pole of these bi-polar constructs is as follows

**Curriculum - negotiated:** Children negotiate with the teacher on the types of activities they would like to take part in that morning or afternoon (See Chapter 5 for details).

**Curriculum directed:** The teacher decides a common class or group activity, directs all activity areas and methods of study; discussion has no role.

**Activity self organized:** Children are able to organize and plan their own behaviour during the ongoing task.

**Activity teacher organized:** Children are controlled when on task by teacher directions on how to carry it out.

**Open setting:** Children can use freely any of the resources available within five 'resource areas', they also can choose their own seating arrangements.

**Fixed setting:** Children are given the resources the teacher feels they need and are told where to sit.

These design factors were arranged in different combinations to create eight experimental classrooms. In the following presentation each classroom environment is identified by a unique notation which gives first the curriculum process type, secondly the activity organization and thirdly, the setting. Under such a notation for example, the notation **directive-self organized-open setting** would identify a classroom environment within which the child experienced a directed curriculum from the teacher (**directed**) but when on task was free to organize its ongoing organization (**self organized**) and was able to use the resources and seating available as need be (**open setting**). The organization and application of these combinations can be seen in Table 8.1.

### 8.4.3. Running the classrooms

Table 8.1. shows how the eight classroom environments that were created were tested over a 28-day period. Although each environment was allocated two days, it is recognized that such a short period cannot be a sufficient basis for general conclusions relating to any specific environment. Nevertheless some stability is provided by the fact that each of the six design elements occurs several times in different environment complexes.

There are two further design limitations to be recognized. One is that the environments were tested in a fixed order, and this may have had an unknown order or carry-over effect. A second is that following each

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TABLE 8.1. SHOWING ALTERNATING ARRANGEMENTS OF NORMAL AND EXPERIMENTAL CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS OVER THE 28 DAY  TEST PERIOD

CLASSROOM ROLE MATRIX                                    DAYS OF APPLICATION

**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**     1 and 2
*(normal classroom)

Child who prefers self-determination in all three

factors.

**Directed activity-self organized-open setting**       3 and 4

Teacher directs activity  but self-determination

during activity processes and seating / resource use.


**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**     5 and 6
(normal classroom)

**Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open setting** 7 and 8

Teacher direction during activity processes but

self-determination in negotiation and resource

/ seating use.

**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**     9 and 10
(normal classroom)

**Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting**    11 and 12

Teacher direction on resource and seating use but

self-determination in negotiation and activity

processes.

**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**     13 and 14
(normal classroom)

**Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting**    15 and 16

Self-determination in resource and seating use but

direction in negotiation and on activity.

**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**     17 and 18
(normal classroom)

**Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting**19 and 20

Self-determination during negotiation but teacher

direction during activity processes and resource use

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**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**   21 and 22
(normal classroom)

**Directed activity-teacher organized-fixed setting**  23 and 24

Teacher direction across all three factors of

negotiation, activity and resource / seating use.

**Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting**   25 and 26
(normal classroom)

**Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting**    27 and 28

Child who prefers self-determination during working

on an activity but direction in negotiation and

resource / seating use.

* The children's normal or base-line classroom environment
occurred six times.  The values used in the analysis were the
averages from these six.

experimental environment the class returned to a rest baseline which was the normal class routine. In the present case this 'normal routine' was negotiated activity-self organized-open setting. This may well have imposed a constant bias on the data as a whole or blunted a novelty effect that perhaps was to the advantage of the other seven classroom types. The same teacher (J.I) ran each classroom set up, in the same room, along the lines demanded by the calendar of Table 8.1.

### 8.4.4. Recording

(i) At the end of each day the children were asked to fill in a five point rating scale which used 'smiley faces', (see Appendix 5). These scales were designed to address the following four factors in relation to classroom learning:

(a) Process indicators

Effort:   How hard they felt they had worked.

Enjoyment: How much they had enjoyed the day.

(b) Product indicators

Quality: What they thought of the quality of their work

Quantity: How much they felt they had produced

These sheets were collected each evening and scored 1 (most favourable) to 5 (least favourable). (For the children the word 'amount' was used instead of 'quantity' as it was closer to the children's natural vocabulary and understanding.)

(ii) An independent teacher, who did not know the purposes of the experiment, but who had taught all the

children in the recent past, used the same scale to blind-mark their work at the end of each day. This was to allow a comparison of the child's own rating with the teacher's projected perceptions within the given environment.

(iii)   At the end of the experimental period of 28 days, the children were asked to fill in a questionnaire relating to their preferred classroom role environment (see Appendix 6).   This was to allow a comparison of children's general preference expressions with those they gave at the actual time in situ.

(iv) Children were also interviewed by an independent interviewer about their most preferred type of classroom environment.

The children are each represented in the tables that follow by their name or by the first or first two letters of their first name, see Appendix (7) for this coding.


## 8.5.    RESULTS


### 8.5.1.  Classroom types

As an opening view of the data, the class of children is treated as a whole and ratings on all four activity criteria (effort, enjoyment, quantity and quality) are summed to determine for each child the preferred environment. In general, the term 'preferred environment' will refer to that environment which the child rated best either overall as here or on the particular task criteria under discussion.   It should be

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noted that although the ratings were over two days, the summation of these ratings equals 24 in Table 8.2, the number of children. Also the frequencies when added are equal to a figure greater than 24, as some chldren had an equally clear preference for more than one classroom.

Table 8.2. shows the preferred classroom environmei.ts as derived from the daily record sheets completed by the children at the end of each day.


**Table 8.2. CLASSROOM PREFERENCES.**

**directed-teacher organized activity-open setting**
Frequency of choice: 9 / 24

**directed-self organizing-open setting**
Frequency of choice: 7 / 24

**negotiated-self organizing-fixed setting**
Frequency of choice: 4 / 24

**directed-teacher organized activity-fixed setting**
Frequency of choice: 4 / 24

**negotiated-teacher organized activity-open setting**
Frequency of choice: 3 / 24

**negotiated-teacher organized activity-fixed setting**
Frequency of choice: 3 / 24

**negotiated-self organizing-open setting**
Frequency of choice: 2 / 24

**directed-self organizing-fixed setting**
Frequency of choice: 1 / 24


As Table 8.2. shows, each of the eight environments had at least one child who preferred it as a condition within which to reach optimal performance on a given criterion. The most popular classroom was **directed activity-teacher organized-open setting.** The least popular was the **directed activity-self organized-fixed setting** environment.

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The most important general finding for theory was that the hypothesised 'ideal' environment, **negotiated activity-self organizing-open setting** (the Negotiating Classroom) was in fact the second-least popular ! This observation forced a reconsideration of what we mean by children's preferences and led to a widening of the concept of negotiation, as will be discussed shortly.

## 8.5.2. Breakdown by criterion

Such a general view of the data can introduce its own distortions and it is important to move on to considering the classrooms design elements on the basis of the four distinct criteria quality, quantity, enjoyment and effort.

Table 8.3. is laid out on the basis of the three polar pairs of classroom design elements. Within each element appear the four evaluative criteria. Each entry is then an 'optimality index' obtained by subtracting the number of children for whom the element was <u>least preferred</u> on that criterion from the number for whom it was <u>most preferred</u>. This method of presentation evidently enhances contrast by omitting intermediate preference data. The larger the value the clearer the polarisation in child preferences. Negative values indicate a 'least' preferred balance. Thus, for example, the subtractive index shows that at this class level those environments where work was **teacher organized** emerges as best (sum of indices = 44) closely followed by an **opening setting** (sum of indices = 41).

**TABLE 8.3.**
**OPTIMALITY INDICES FOR EACH CLASSROOM ELEMENT ON THE FOUR CRITERIA** (Table entries are number of children most preferring <u>minus</u> number of children least preferring that element on that criterion).

| | CHOICE NEGOTIATED | | | | CHOICE DIRECTED | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| QUAL. | QUANT. | EFFORT | ENJOY. | QUAL. | QUANT. | EFFORT | ENJOY. |
| 7 | 2 | 6 | 13 | 11 | 1 | 8 | 8 |

| | SELF ORGANIZED | | | | TEACHER ORGANIZED | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| QUAL. | QUANT. | EFFORT | ENJOY. | QUAL. | QUANT. | EFFORT | ENJOY. |
| 15 | -7 | -1 | 7 | 3 | 10 | 15 | 16 |

| | OPEN SETTING | | | | FIXED SETTING | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| QUAL. | QUANT. | EFFORT | ENJOY. | QUAL. | QUANT. | EFFORT | ENJOY. |
| 18 | 4 | 14 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 16 |

Note however, that within these two-elements the profiling over criteria could hardly be different. The least successful elements according to children's perceptions were **self organized** (sum = 14) and **fixed setting** (sum = 16), again with very different profiling over criteria. On the basis of this kind of indexing at least, it seems impossible to optimise or even near-optimise all criteria within one classroom element. The strongest contender, **teacher organized**, is let down because an almost equal number of children saw the <u>quality</u> of their work as at its best or worst (net index = 3).

An alternative approach is to start by specifying which criteria one needs to optimise and which, relatively speaking, one can afford to let go. For example, quality might be regarded as more important than quantity for the product criteria, and enjoyment more important than effort for process. But then is quality a more important consideration than enjoyment (cf. **self organized** V's **teacher organized**) ?

The data so far suggest:

(i) a complex interaction between the classroom design factors and the value of children's curricular experience as indexed by the four criteria

(ii) On the four criteria of enjoyment, effort, amount and quality there is a distinct spread of child preferences for the elements of the different classroom environments.

(iii) Insofar as any of these elements are at present used in classrooms, they will be supportive for some

children on some    activity criteria and non-supportive for other children.

### 8.5.3. Preferences of children under each criterion across the eight classrooms

The individual classroom elements as just presented are now reconstituted into the classroom environments that actually ran.  Table 8.4.  shows    the percentage of children who felt they performed  at an optimum level for each of the four criteria; quality, amount, effort or enjoyment across the different  classroom environments as a whole.  To aid readability, Table 8.5 shows the same data as rank orders.

Using the Row Totals column of Table 8.4 as a gross index, it can be seen that the hypothesized optimal environment, **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting** actually emerges lowest at 87.  However the irony of this is tempered by the fact that the hypothesized worst environment, **directed activity-teacher organized-fixed setting** runs it  very close at 92.  Evidently the children as a class are favouring one or more of the mixed environments, neither completely directive nor completely autonomous.  The most successful environment is where the teacher both chooses and organizes an activity which is then run in an open (non-formal, resource orientated) setting (row total = 135).  In fact, just changing the setting element produces a striking drop in favourability as the next row shows (row total = 92).

TABLE 8.4. PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN, REPORTING OPTIMAL
FUNCTIONING FOR EACH CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT ON EACH
CRITERION ( Note: tied ratings are included, hence
column totals > 100% )

| CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT | ENJOY. | EFFORT | QUAL. | AMOUNT | ROW TOTALS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NEG ACT-SELF ORG-OPEN SET. | 8% | 33% | 29% | 17% | (87) |
| NEG ACT-TEACH ORG-OPEN SET. | 21% | 29% | 38% | 38% | (126) |
| NEG ACT-SELF ORG-FIXED SET. | 38% | 13% | 38% | 21% | (110) |
| NEG ACT-TEACH ORG-FIXED SET. | 42% | 33% | 25% | 25% | (125) |
| DIR ACT-SELF ORG-OPEN SET. | 29% | 29% | 38% | 25% | (121) |
| DIR ACT-SELF ORG-FIXED SET. | 21% | 21% | 42% | 21% | (103) |
| DIR ACT-TEACH ORG-OPEN SET. | 21% | 38% | 38% | 38% | (135) |
| DIR ACT-TEACH ORG-FIXED SET. | 29% | 21% | 21% | 21% | (92) |

**TABLE 8.5: RANK POSITIONS OF CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS ON THE FOUR CRITERIA.**

|  | ENJOY. | EFFORT | QUALITY | AMOUNT | MEAN RANK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Neg act-self org-open set. | 8 | 2 | 6 | 8 | 6 |
| Neg act-self org-fixed set. | 2 | 8 | 3 | 6 | 5 |
| Neg act-teacher org-open set. | 6 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| Neg act-teacher org-fixed set. | 1 | 2 | 7 | 3 | 3 |
| Dir act-self org-open set. | 3 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Dir act-self org-fixed set. | 6 | 6 | 1 | 6 | 4 |
| Dir act-teacher org-open set. | 6 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 |
| Dir act-teacher org-fixed set. | 3 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 5 |

Scanning Table 8.4 further reveals that the highest specific frequencies are found for the **negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting** environment on enjoyment (which is optimal for 42% of the choices) and the **directed activity-self organized-fixed setting** on quality (again attracting 42% of choices). Even this means, however, that no single environment is optimal on any criterion for even half the class!

In fact, the value for some twenty of the table entries is below 30%, so that at least seventy per cent of the children perceived they were non-optimal.

Viewing across the columns it appears to be a win or lose situation for the child and teacher, depending on

which criteria the teacher would like to support through the organization of the classroom. Here we see again the concept of trade-off. Even in the two 'best' classroom criteria ratings, in which 42% of the children felt they produced their best quality work or found the most enjoyment, fluctuation across criteria is observed. In the case of the **directed activity-self organizing-fixed environment setting** only 21% of children's ratings indicated that this classroom supported maximum production, enjoyment or effort. In other words, this left some three quarters of the children feeling this classroom was not one in which these indicators could be optimized.

It will be understood of course that the children's reporting optimality, children making up the frequency ratings under one criterion are not necessarily the same children appearing under the other three criteria for that classroom. A second point is that tied ratings to some degree conceal the spread of preference in Table 8.4. Further consideration of this matter is deferred to treatment of the individual child data.

### 8.5.4. Individual preferences for separate elements of the experimental classrooms.

This analysis again requires a degree of caution as the children were actually evaluating the interactive, classroom package rather than the separate elements as assumed here. Nevertheless, it became clear during the experiment that the children <u>were</u> often quite detectably

reacting to these different elements of the overall classroom organization, and on this basis some discussion is justified.

Table 8.6. breaks the class down into three distinct groups. (Note that some of the 24 named children in the sample are excluded, since they showed no real distinguishable patterns of preferences in their ratings. They do not fall under the heading of mixed choices as even at the mixed level no commonality of mixed choice was observable.)

For each classroom design element three sets of children are listed by name: those children preferring the 'directive' of the two options, those preferring the 'autonomous' option, and those having no distinct preference. This last group is called the mixed group. Although such mixed choices 'muddy the waters' it is important that they are maintained in the analysis as a mixed choice represents preference patterns for a clear subgroup of children.

As the Table shows, seven children rated themselves as preferring a negotiated curriculum and nine a directive, with five children rating the two as equally preferable. A similar variation can be observed for activity organization and setting.

Considering two representative children across elements illustrates the individuality of child preferences. Thus, Ramzan's name appears under the preference categories of **negotiated activity-self organizing-open setting**, the arrangement that allows

TABLE 8.6. INDIVIDUAL CHILD PREFERENCE PATTERNS, (includes only
those with clear preferences from an original n=24).

FACTOR: CURRICULUM CONTENT DETERMINATION.

| NEGOTIATION | DIRECTION | MIXTURE OF NEGOTIATION AND DIRECTION PREFERENCES |
|---|---|---|
| Ramzan | Charlene | Natasha. B. |
| Ashfaq | Sandeep | James |
| Michelle | Majid | Rickey |
| Komal | Shemyla | Linda |
| Kelly | Esther | Barlas |
| Melecia | Humayra | n=5 |
| Jahan | Natasha. W. | |
| n=7 | Shazad | |
| | Javed | |
| | n=9 | |

Excluded: Sima, Yakoob, Kaleem

FACTOR: ACTIVITY ORGANIZATION.

| SELF ORGANIZATION OF ACTIVITIES | TEACHER ORGANIZATION OF ACTIVITIES | MIXTURE OF SELF AND TEACHER ORGANIZATION PREFS. |
|---|---|---|
| Shemyla | Komal | James |
| Jahan | Charlene | Melecia |
| Javed | Kelly | Barlas |
| Ashfaq | Sima | Rickey |
| Majid | Yakoob | n=4 |
| Esther | Kaleem | |
| Sandeep | n=6 | |
| Ramzan | | |
| Shazad | | |
| n=9 | | |

Excluded: Michelle, Humayra, Natasha.B, Natasha.W, Linda

FACTOR: ENVIROMENTAL SETTING.

| OPEN SETTING | FIXED SETTING | MIXTURE OF OPEN AND FIXED SETTING PREFS. |
|---|---|---|
| Sandeep | Natasha. W. | Natasha. B. |
| Kelly | Yakoob | James |
| Melecia | Majid | Linda |
| Barlas | Shemyla | Humayra |
| Ramzan | Esther | Kaleem |
| Rickey | Jahan | n=5 |
| Shazad | Sima | |
| Ashfaq | Javed | |
| n=8 | n=8 | |

Excluded: Michelle, Komal, Charlene

maximum self-determination. In comparison, Michelle who also prefers the negotiated activity, has no emergent preferences on activity organization or setting. Such distinct individual patterns are present across all children.

## 8.5.5. The individual child across criterial measures

In Table 8.7. the individual child can be traced on the basis of the classroom under which that child feels he or she performs best on each of the criteria.

The Table can be read as in the following example. Child S, Shemyla, was quite discriminating in rating her greatest quantity (amount) of work as being produced in a classroom within which she could negotiate but where she is directed while on task and the class operates with traditional resource and seating, namely, **negotiated-teacher organized activity-fixed setting** (coded D in the Table). In comparison, she feels it is not this type of classroom that gives her the greatest enjoyment but rather **the directed-teacher organized activity-fixed setting** (coded H). For the other two measures of effort and quality, Shemyla is 'mixed' in rating yet further different classrooms as providing organizational factors in which her functioning is equivalently optimal.

It will be noted that for only two children (Me. and Je.) was a single environment optimal or co-optimal on all criteria. For four more children it was possible for one environment to optimize on three out of the four criteria. However, this single environment was not the

## TABLE 8.7.  INDIVIDUAL PUPIL PREFERENCES, PURE AND MIXED, ON THE FOUR CRITERIA.

PUPIL
INITIALS

CRITERIA

| | AMOUNT | ENJOYMENT | EFFORT | QUALITY | SUM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| S. | D | H | B,F | F,G | 6 |
| M. | B | G | A,B,D | B.D,E | 8 |
| K. | B | D | A,D,F | A,F,G | 8 |
| C. | F.H | F | F.G | C.G | 7 |
| N. | F | C | F | C | 4 |
| L. | B.D | D.G | B,D,E | A.G | 9 |
| Ke. | F | C | B | A.B.C.E.F.G | 10 |
| E. | D.G | C,E,G | G | F | 7 |
| Me. | B,E,G | A,B,D | B | B,E | 9 |
| J. | A.B.C.D,F,G | C,E | C | C | 10 |
| H. | F,G | C,D,E,F,H,G | D,F,H,G | H | 13 |
| Nw. | H | C,D,H | A.B.C.D,E,H | G | 11 |
| Si. | A,F | D | H | B,C,D,E,F,H | 10 |
| B. | B,E,H | B,E | E | A,D,G | 9 |
| Sa. | E | E | F | B,D,E,F | 7 |
| Y. | D | D,H | A,D,E,F,H | H,G | 10 |
| R. | B.C | A.B | A | C | 6 |
| Je. | A,B,C,E,F,H | B,C,D,F,H | A,C,D,E,F,H | A,C,D,F,H | 22 |
| Ri. | B,C,E,F | B,C,D,E,F,H,G | A,E | B,E | 15 |
| Ka. | H | D,F | B,D,F,G | A,B,E,F,G | 12 |
| Sh. | C,F | E | G | B,E | 6 |
| Ja. | D,E | E | G | G | 5 |
| A. | A | C | A | A,B,C,D,E,F | 9 |
| Ma. | G | H | E | C | 4 |
| SUM | 49 | 51 | 53 | 64 | |

CLASSROOM CODES:
A = Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting
B = Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open setting
C = Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting
D = Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting
E = Directed activity-self organized-open setting
F = Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting
G = Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting
H.= Directed activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

same across the four children. The remaining 18 children show little consistency in matching environments over criteria.

These findings again highlight the earlier point that if a teacher were to make a definite choice of a classroom organizational structure to optimise one of the criteria , say quality of work,  other activity criteria are likely to be non-optimal.

The data generally  indicate  the individual 'fingerprint' for each child  and as such the need for a teacher's awareness of such individual variation.

## 8.5.6. Two perspectives: The child and the teacher: Child-teacher agreement on preceived optimal environments.

Do teachers agree with children's assessments ?  In order to see if an independent  teacher who knew  the children well from the previous year would agree with the children's ratings, this  teacher was asked to judge the children's work each evening on the same scale as used by the children.  The child's name was clearly on the work. He was asked to try to put himself in the child's place and rate as if he were the child from his own knowledge of that child.  The assessments were therefore in a sense criterion rather than norm referenced.

For the most general level of analysis, Spearman's rho was used to identify  relationships between the children's and teacher's rankings  across the four criteria for the eight classroom environments.  As Table 8.8.  shows,

correlations were small and no significant relationship was observed.


TABLE 8.8. SPEARMAN CORRELATIONS FOR PUPILS' AND JUDGE'S RANKINGS OF THE EIGHT CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS.

| CRITERION | SPEARMAN'S RHO VALUE | SIGNIFICANCE AT .05 (two-tailed) |
|---|---|---|
| QUALITY | .17 | Not Significant |
| EFFORT | -.13 | Not Significant |
| ENJOYMENT | .23 | Not Significant |
| AMOUNT | .10 | Not Significant |


## 8.5.7. Closeness of child-teacher perceptual fit at the individual level

As just noted, an independent teacher rated work produced each day in terms of quality, amount, effort and apparent enjoyment. It could be argued that while the teacher might be a better judge of quantity (amount) and quality, the child would be the better judge of effort and enjoyment. Nevertheless, the general question to be considered here is what is the goodness of fit between the child and the teacher on the 'best environment' for that child on each of the four criteria.

Figure 8.1. maps children's 'choices' against teachers. Perfect agreement would be indicated by a heavy clustering of points around the principal diagonal. In fact points are well scattered and present a picture of

# FIGURE 8.1. TEACHER AND CHILD AGREEMENT ON ENVIRONMENT IN WHICH EACH CHILD SHOWS OPTIMAL FUNCTIONING (Effort, Enjoyment, Amount(quantity) and Quality).

## PROCESS

### EFFORT

| TEACHER | NSO | NTO | NSF | CHILDREN NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTFsum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | *** | ***** | *** | ***** | ***** | ***** | *** | ***32 |
| NTO | ** |  |  | * | * | ** | * | **9 |
| NSF | *** | * |  | **** | **** | *** | ** | ***20 |
| NTF | ***** | *** |  | ***** | *** | ***** | **** | ***28 |
| DSO | **** | ****** | ** | ****** | *** | ****** | *** | **32 |
| DTO | ** | *** | * | *** | *** | **** | *** | *20 |
| DSF | **** | *** | * | ***** | **** | ****** | **** | ***30 |
| DTF | ***** | ***** | * | ****** | **** | ****** | **** | ***34 |
| SUM | 48 | 26 | 8 | 35 | 27 | 37 | 24 | 20 |

GRAND SUM: 205

### ENJOYMENT

| TEACHER | NSO | NTO | NSF | CHILDREN NTF | DSO | DTD | DSF | DTFsu |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | * | * | *** | *** | ** |  |  | ** 1 |
| NTO |  | * | * | ** |  | * |  | *** |
| NSF | * | * | * | ** | ** |  | * | ** 1 |
| NTF | ** | **** | ******* | ******* | ******* | *** | *** | ***3 *** |
| DSO |  |  | *** | ***** | ** | *** | **** | ***2 |
| DTO | * | * | **** | **** | *** | * | ** | ***2 * |
| DSF | ** | **** | ******* | ******* | ******* | *** | *** | ***3 *** |
| DTF | * | ** | *** | **** | **** |  | * | ***1 |
| SUM | 9 | 14 | 29 | 34 | 27 | 11 | 14 | ?9 |

GRAND SUM: 166

## PRODUCT

### AMOUNT

| TEACHER | NSO | NTO | NSF | CHILDREN NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTFsum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | ** | **** | *** |  | *** | ** |  | ** 16 |
| NTO | * | *** | ** | ** | ** | * | * | * 13 |
| NSF |  |  |  |  | * |  |  | 1 |
| NTF |  | *** |  | * | ** | ** | ** | ** 12 |
| DSO | * | ** | * | ** | * | *** | *** | * 14 |
| DTO | * | *** | ** |  | ** | *** | * | *** 15 |
| DSF | * | **** | *** | * | ** | ** | ** | 14 |
| DTF | ** | *** | * | ** |  | * | * | 10 |
| SUM | 8 | 22 | 12 | 8 | 12 | 15 | 9 | 9 |

GRAND SUM: 95

### QUALITY

| TEACHER | NSO | NTO | NSF | CHILDREN NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTFsum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | * | * | *** |  | * | * | ** | 9 |
| NTO | *** | **** | *** | **** | **** | *** | *** | ***28 * |
| NSF | ** | *** | *** | ** | *** | * | *** | 17 |
| NTF | *** | ****** | *** | **** | ****** | **** | *** | **31 |
| DSO | *** | ***** | ** | * | ***** | **** | ****** | **28 |
| DTO | **** | ***** | ***** | **** | ***** | **** | *** | **32 |
| DSF | *** | ** | * | * | ** | **** | *** | * 17 |
| DTF | ** | ** | **** | *** | ** | ** | *** | * 19 |
| SUM | 21 | 28 | 24 | 19 | 28 | 23 | 24 | 12 |

GRAND SUM: 179

CLASSROOM CODES:
NSO: Negotiated-Self organized activity-Open setting.
NTO: Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Open setting.
NSF: Negotiated-Self organized activity-Fixed setting.
NTF: Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting.
DSO: Directed-Self organizing activity-Open setting.
DTO: Directed-Teacher organized activity-Open setting.
DSF: Directed-Self organized activity-Fixed setting.
DTF: Directed-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting.

only chance-range agreement. In each case Cohen's Kappa coefficient (Bakeman et al., 1986) is low and never reaches significance (Table 8.9).

TABLE 8.9: COHEN'S KAPPA VALUES FOR CHILD-TEACHER
PERCEPTUAL FIT FOR OPTIMAL FUNCTIONING
ENVIRONMENT RATINGS

| CRITERIA | COHEN'S KAPPA VALUE | SIGNIFICANCE |
|---|---|---|
| PROCESS | | |
| EFFORT | 0.032 | Not Sign. |
| ENJOYMENT | -0.021 | Not Sign. |
| PRODUCT | | |
| QUANTITY | 8.00-04 | Not Sign. |
| QUALITY | 0.011 | Not Sign. |

This means that even for 'objective' variations such as the quantity (amount) of work produced, the teacher and child cannot agree significantly on which environment was most successful. It appears that even though asked to adopt the child's perspective the teacher was employing a

different metric. Alternatively some situational factor could have been operating to prevent agreement.

## 8.6. QUESTIONNAIRE AND IN-SITU RATINGS OF CLASSROOM PREFERENCES COMPARED.

In educational research, questions relating to attributes and practices are often handled through questionnaires which are not answered in the actual context assumed by the questionnaire. Similarly, this research could have given children questionnaires or interviewed them at a convenient time as to 'what sort of classroom they most liked'. The question is whether the use of a different type of methodological tool, the questionnaire as opposed to the in-situ rating scale, would produce similar or different data ?

To address this point, a questionnaire was developed which the children were asked to fill in by ticking the answer which most closely represented their feelings about classroom. The questions addressed themselves to the four criteria under study: effort, enjoyment, quality and quantity and the relation of these to the eight classrooms environments. The full version of the questionnaire may be seen in Appendix (6).

The twenty children present on the day were seated apart in a classroom with which they were familiar but which had not been used previously in the research. The questionnaire was read to the children to overcome any reading difficulties. The data were then collected and compared with the same children's data from the in-situ

measures already collected each afternoon for the main study.

Table 8.7 has already presented the in-situ 'preference' data, showing which classroom condition children rated as optimal for each of the four criteria. Table 8.10. now sets these data against the new questionnaire data, which allowed children four classroom preference / least optimal choices one of each for each criteria (8) and expresses the matches as an overall figure. For individual criteria analysis of match see Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

The table lists the children in descending order of agreement between their in-situ choices and their questionnaire choices.

One child, James, showed very high agreement in matching seven of his eight possible ties between the questionnaire and in-situ ratings. However as Table 8.10. makes clear, the majority of children, eighteen out of an effective sample of twenty agreed on fewer than half of their ratings between the two measures, the majority less than 25%. This emphasizes the lack of congruence between the two measures. (Note that Spearman's rho could not be applied to these data due to the variation in the number of preference choices individual children had given in-situ.)

**TABLE 8.10. CHILD QUESTIONNAIRE**
Matching of In-situ rankings to Questionnaire rankings for the classroom environments..
Numbers indicate how often rank pairs agreed (out of 8).

.

| | Childs name | No.of rankings in agreement |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | james | 7 |
| 2 | melecia | 4 |
| 3 | michelle | 3 |
| 4 | komal | 3 |
| 5 | barlas | 3 |
| 6 | sandeep | 3 |
| 7 | linda | 2 |
| 8 | humayra | 2 |
| 9 | ramzan | 2 |
| 10 | kaleem | 2 |
| 11 | shazad | 2 |
| 12 | javed | 2 |
| 13 | charlene | 1 |
| 14 | natasha.B | 1 |
| 15 | kelly | 1 |
| 16 | natasha.w | 1 |
| 17 | sima | 1 |
| 18 | esther | 0 |
| 19 | jahan | 0 |
| 20 | yakoob | 0 |

## 8.6.1. Further comparison at the level of separate criteria.

Figure 8.2. shows a set of contingency tables representing the rating match between children's 'best' classroom from the questionnaire and from the in-situ measures, on each of the four criteria. Throughout Figure 8.2. the lack of clustering around the main diagonal indicates that the ratings were very different. Taking the example of Amount, only five of forty choices (12%) matched. This low level of agreement is reflected across other criteria.

Better matched ratings occurred for Quality, which recorded a modest 35% fit. However, this means that on the quality criteria 65% of the children's ratings were for a different classroom on the two procedures. It is recognized that the counting approach used here is insensitive to the <u>degree</u> of mismatch present, so that a near 'miss' is the same as a 'bad' miss even though one may want to count **Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Open setting** as a better 'fit' to **Negotiated-Self organized activity-Open setting** than **Directed-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting**.

Figure 8.2 does indicate a bias in that many children went for **Directed-Self organized activity-Open setting** in their questionnaire responses relative to their in-situ data while only a few opted for the **Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting**. In fact in Figure 8.2.

## FIGURE 8.2. CHILDREN'S OPTIMAL CLASSROOM ON THE FOUR CRITERIA: AGREEMENT BETWEEN IN-SITU AND QUESTIONNAIRE RATINGS (n=20).

### PROCESS

CRITERIA: **EFFORT**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | ** | * | | * | | *** | * | * | 9 |
| NTO | | | | | | * | * | | 2 |
| NSF | * | | | * | * | * | | * | 5 |
| NTF | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| DSO | * | ** | * | *** | *** | ** | ** | ** | 16 |
| DTO | * | ** | | ** | | * | ** | | 8 |
| DSF | * | * | ** | * | * | | | * | 7 |
| DTF | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| SUM | 6 | 6 | 3 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 6 | 5 | |

GRAND SUM: 47

CRITERIA: **ENJOYMENT**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | * | * | *** | **** | ** | * | ** | * | 15 |
| NTO | * | ** | * | ** | * | ** | | * | 10 |
| NSF | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| NTF | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| DSO | | | * | * | | | | * | 3 |
| DTO | | | * | * | * | ** | * | * | 7 |
| DSF | | * | | * | | | | | 2 |
| DTF | | * | | ** | | | | | 3 |
| SUM | 2 | 4 | 7 | 8 | 7 | 5 | 3 | 4 | |

GRAND SUM: 40

### PRODUCT ·

CRITERIA: **AMOUNT**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | * | ** | * | | | *** | | * | 8 |
| NTO | * | * | * | * | * | * | | * | 7 |
| NSF | | * | | | * | | | * | 3 |
| NTF | | | * | | | ** | * | | 4 |
| DSO | | ** | | * | ** | * | | | 6 |
| DTO | * | | | * | | | | * | 3 |
| DSF | | | | * | * | | | | 2 |
| DTF | * | * | * | * | | * | | * | 7 |
| SUM | 4 | 7 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 2 | 5 | |

GRAND SUM: 40

CRITERIA: **QUALITY**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | *** | *** | ***** | *** | *** | ***** | ** | ** | 27 |
| NTO | | * | * | * | * | * | * | | 6 |
| NSF | * | * | | * | * | * | ** | * | 8 |
| NTF | | | | | | | * | | 1 |
| DSO | * | ** | | | ** | | * | | 6 |
| DTO | | * | | | | | | * | 2 |
| DSF | * | | * | | | | * | | 3 |
| DTF | | | | | | | * | | 1 |
| SUM | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 5 | |

GRAND SUM: 54

CLASSROOM CODES:
NSO: Negotiated-Self organized activity-Open setting.
NTO: Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Open setting.
NSF: Negotiated-Self organized activity-Fixed setting.
NTF: Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting.
DSO: Directed-Self organizing activity-Open setting.
DTO: Directed-Teacher organized activity-Open setting.
DSF: Directed-Self organized activity-Fixed setting.
DTF: Directed-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting.

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generally there is a pull in the questionnaire data to the **Negotiated-Self organized activity-Open setting** option 59:18. This may be due to a methodological distortion given that this is their 'normal' classroom condition and therefore the children are familiar with it. On the other hand it may also have an element of this classroom condition being recognized by them as the researchers ideal, a demand hypothesis.

It is interesting to note that the children also recorded that they 'think' they would try hardest under a **Directed-Self organized activity-Open setting** (Questionnaire) and yet this is not borne out by the In-situ data.

Cohen's Kappa analysis indicates that all the relationships between the childrens responses insitu and on the questionnaire are insignificant (Table 8.11)

**TABLE 8.11: COHEN'S KAPPA VALUES FOR CHILD RESPONSE**

              **FIT FOR MOST PREFERRED CLASSROOM BETWEEN**

              **QUESTIONNAIRE AND INSITU RATINGS.**

| CRITERIA | COHEN'S KAPPA VALUE | SIGNIFICANCE |
|---|---|---|
| PROCESS | | |
| EFFORT | 7.05-03 | Not Sign. |
| ENJOYMENT | 0.038 | Not Sign. |
| PRODUCT | | |
| QUANTITY | -0.022 | Not Sign. |
| QUALITY | 8.76-03 | Not Sign. |

Figure 8.3 then shows analogous data for the 'worst' classrooms. These least preferred comparison again indicate a range of fits between the two measures. The highest was a match of 30% on quality; the lowest a remarkable 5% for enjoyment. It should be noted that a remarkable mirror image validation of **Negotiated-Self organized activity-Fixed setting** choices (Questionnaire) is present in that the direct opposite **Directed-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting** is singled out as the 'baddy'.

## PROCESS

CRITERIA: **EFFORT**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | | | * | | | * | * | | 3 |
| NTO | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| NSF | ** | * | * | * | | | * | | 6 |
| NTF | | * | | | | | | | 1 |
| DSO | | ** | * | | | | | | 3 |
| DTO | | | * | | | | | | 1 |
| DSF | * | | ✦ | * | * | | ** | | 6 |
| DTF | * | ** | ** | | | ** | * | **** | ** 14 |
| SUM | 4 | 6 | 7 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 8 | 2 | |

GRAND SUM: 34

CRITERIA: **ENJOYMENT**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| NTO | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| NSF | ** | | | | | | * | * | 4 |
| NTF | * | | | | * | | ** | | 4 |
| DSO | | ** | * | | | | | | 3 |
| DTO | | | | | * | | | | 1 |
| DSF | * | | * | | | | ** | | 4 |
| DTF | | | *** | ** | **** | ** | ** | * | 14 |
| SUM | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 5 | 4 | |

GRAND SUM: 29

## PRODUCT

CRITERIA: **AMOUNT**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | * | * | | | * | | * | | 4 |
| NTO | | | * | | * | | | * | 3 |
| NSF | | | | | | | * | | 1 |
| NTF | * | | * | ** | * | | * | | 6 |
| DSO | | * | | | | | | | 1 |
| DTO | | * | | | | * | * | *** | 6 |
| DSF | ** | * | | | * | ** | * | * | 10 |
| DTF | * | | ** | | ** | | * | | 6 |
| SUM | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 7 | 3 | 6 | 5 | |

GRAND SUM: 37

CRITERIA: **QUALITY**

| Q'NAIRE | NSO | NTO | NSF | INSITU NTF | DSO | DTO | DSF | DTF | sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NSO | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| NTO | | | | | | | * | * | 2 |
| NSF | ** | ** | * | * | ** | | | ** | 10 |
| NTF | | | * | * | | * | | ** | 5 |
| DSO | * | | * | | | | | ** | 4 |
| DTO | | * | | | | | | | 1 |
| DSF | | | * | | | * | * | | 3 |
| DTF | | ** | **** | *** | ** | * | | *** | 15 |
| SUM | 3 | 4 | 9 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 10 | |

GRAND SUM: 40

CLASSROOM CODES:
NSO: Negotiated-Self organized activity-Open setting.
NTO: Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Open setting.
NSF: Negotiated-Self organized activity-Fixed setting.
NTF: Negotiated-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting.
DSO: Directed-Self organizing activity-Open setting.
DTO: Directed-Teacher organized activity-Open setting.
DSF: Directed-Self organized activity-Fixed setting.
DTF: Directed-Teacher organized activity-Fixed setting.

Cohen's Kappa analysis indicated non-significant agreement on all criteria between the two measures (Table 8.12.). Appendix (7) gives more details.

TABLE 8.12: COHEN'S KAPPA VALUES FOR CHILD RESPONSE
FIT FOR LEAST PREFERRED  CLASSROOM BETWEEN
QUESTIONNAIRE AND INSITU RATINGS.

| CRITERIA | COHEN'S KAPPA VALUE | SIGNIFICANCE |
|---|---|---|
| PROCESS | | |
| EFFORT | 0.026 | Not Sign. |
| ENJOYMENT | -0.126 | Not Sign. |
| PRODUCT | | |
| QUANTITY | 0.013 | Not Sign. |
| QUALITY | -0.044 | Not Sign. |

Overall, the fit in the preferred or least preferred ratings between the two measures was never greater than one third.

## 8.6.2 The relative validity of data obtained by the two methods.

While the intention at the outset had been to work with in-situ data, the present 'methodological digression' from the main account has shown that similar data would not, while supposedly measuring the same phenomenon, have been obtained using a questionnaire approach, the two different methodologies evidently produce very different data.

A question of validity now arises; which is the more valid measure of the phenomenon under study ? This could be conveniently answered by claiming that the in-situ data 'must be' the more valid. However, a more diagnostic line was taken, by interviewing the children who showed the most contradiction between their in-situ and questionnaire preferences.

Six children were selected who directly or almost directly, contradicted themselves in their expression of preferred classroom on any of the four criteria.

These children were 'interviewed' separately, in the classroom, during lessons. In fact they were chatted to discreetly and informally and asked what they thought about these contradictions. The line of questioning would be something like, " You remember those papers you filled in each afternoon ? Well some of the ways we organized the classroom that you said on them you did best in are different from the ones you said you would do best in on the questionnaire."

The childrens responses to the interviews about these contradictions were as follows:

Child 1: Sima (preferred for Effort **directed activity-teacher organization-fixed setting** but in the questionnaire **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting**). Her response on interview was;

" I prefer the **(negotiated activity-self organization-open setting)** classroom for doing my best quality work in but I work harder in the **(directed activity-teacher organization of activity-fixed setting)** classroom. I don't know why I put different answers."

Here the correction points to the greater validity of the In-situ data.

Child 2: Yakoob (preferred for Enjoyment **directed activity-teacher organization-fixed setting** in-situ, but the **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting** in the questionnaire.)

His response was;

"I enjoy the classroom where we are told what to do **(directed activity-teacher organization-fixed setting)** because we do handwriting and the other classroom **(negotiated activity-self organization-open setting)** is too noisy". This again supports the in-situ data.

Child 3: Charlene (preferred **directed activity-teacher organization -fixed setting** for the <u>Amount of work</u> in-situ but **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting** in the questionnaire. Her response was;

" I do more work in the classroom where we can choose **(negotiated activity-self organization-open setting)**"

This example supports the questionnaire data.

Child 4: Esther (preferred **directed activity-teacher organization-open setting** for quality in-situ, but the **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting** in the questionnaire.) Her response; " I do my best quality work in the (**directed activity-teacher organization-open setting**) because I have to, because the teacher tells you off if its no good"
This supports the in-situ data.

Child 5: Linda (least preferred **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting** for the amount of work she produced in-situ, and **directed activity-teacher organization-fixed setting** on the questionnaire.) Her response;
" I do less work in the (**negotiated activity-self organization-open setting**) classroom because I don't have to work fast, I'm interested in what I'm doing, so I go slowly." This supports the in-situ data.

Child 6: Melecia (least preferred **negotiated activity-self organization-open setting** for the amount of work in-situ, and **directed activity-self organization-fixed setting** on the questionnaire.) Her response;
"I do less when I decide, I want to do something but (the teacher) forgets what I want to do".
This supports the in-situ data.

From these six interviews exploring the contradictory responses of a small sample of the children, five support the in-situ data and only one the questionnaire. This

indicates that in this study at least the in-situ questions produced the more valid measure of preference when double checked by interview.

## 8.7. DISCUSSION

The major aim of this study was to identify the classroom preferences and in particular to highlight the environmental features that could be available to optimise children's educational development. However, the study failed to identify a dominant classroom type. On the contrary, it pointed up the individualistic and dynamic nature of children's interactions with a variety of classroom environments in relation to the quality, quantity, effort and enjoyment of their classroom activities.

This study has illustrated at least five complex processes relating the child to the classroom organization:

(a) **processes involving individuality factors at three levels,**

Three levels of individuality were identified, comprising (1) individuality of preference among children for classroom elements on offer.

(2) individuality of response by the same child to different classroom environmental types.

(3) individuality of preference by the same child for elements of environmental organizational now depending on the activity criterion under focus.

(b) **affective responses to different types of classroom organization:**

There were both between- and within-child variations in reaction to the various types of classroom environment in terms of distinct affective responses. Some felt the current environment supported their development, while others felt it was not as supportive as it could be.

(c) **a teacher-pupil perceptual mismatch**

A teacher-child mismatch was observed between the child's statement as to performance in the experimental classroom environments and the teachers perception of these statements.

(d) **a general trade-off between criteria supported or not supported by a given classroom environment.**

The data indicate that when a particular activity criterion (quality, quantity, enjoyment or effort) is perceived by the child to be supported by a particular classroom environment then perceived support for the other criterion of the activity inversely declines.

(e) **an inconsistency between methodologies in the data generated.** These points are expanded in the following discussion.

### 8.7.1. Individuality: A multi-faceted concept ?

The individuality of the child is not simply a between child concept. Individuality was also identified within

the single child, in the way that the child interacted with different environments in different ways. The kinds of experience and performance of the child in one classroom were found to provide poor guidelines to their realization in another.

Third, the child was found to respond individually and differently on the four criteria depending on the type of classroom environment. For example, in certain classroom environments the child's quality of writing would be superior to the amount of work produced, in others the child's enjoyment of the writing would outweigh the effort, and so on. In short, when considering the concept of individuality in respect to classroom organization one must see the concept as having three distinct facets and not simply the one most commonly applied, that between children.

## 8.7.2. The interaction between child and classroom environment.

There has been much theoretical discussion in social psychology at large on person-situation (PxS) interactions, as especially exemplified in the work of Mischel (e.g. 1973). However little of this appears to have made an impact on classroom theory. For example the five pupil types identified by Good et al. (1976) or the twelve teacher styles identified by Bennett (1976) take no account of contextual influences. The present study does address the issue of contextual influence, the effect of classroom environment on the child, and holds that Good

et al's (1976) conceptualization of five main types of
pupil, would appear to be a step in the right direction
toward recognizing the active, individuality of children.
However, while Good et al would recognize individuality
and the relationship of this to classroom 'types' Good's
conceptualization is still too blunt a concept to adopt
due to its limitation to five pupil types. As just
argued, the present study identified complex interactions
between classroom organizational processes and the
individual child, and in more than one sense.

A diagrammatic representation of the relationship
between individuality and environmental processes in the
classroom can capture the interactive nature of three ·
factors in the classroom preocess.

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
( role      demands )

----> perceptual
      and
      behavioural
      indices of
      child

ACTIVITY VARIABLES <- - - - - - -> CHILDS INDIVIDUALITY
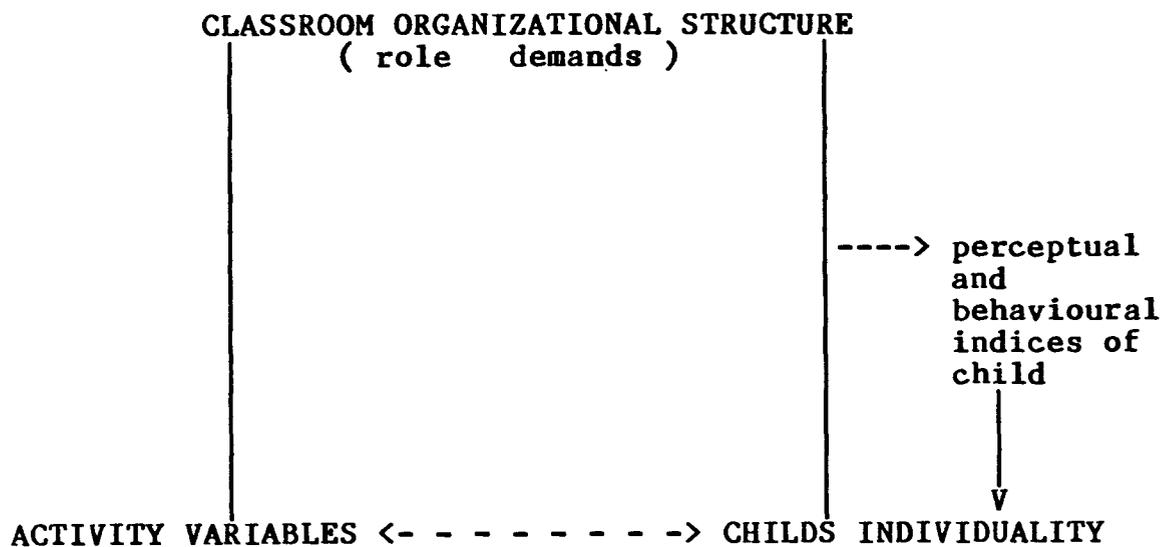
All three factors intermodulate in either direction
to produce the various perceptual and behavioural indices
of the child in the classroom which we measure. It is the
resultant of this intermodulation which we call the
child's individuality. So a child like Shemyla Table 8.7.

351

would respond both perceptually and behaviourally differently if in a **Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting** environment with a focus on the activity criterion of quantity than if she were in a **Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting** environment with the focus on the same or a different activity criterion. The three factors give rise to an interactively unique response for that child in the classroom, and interact bi-directionally to create what was earlier characterized as the microclimate within which the child functions.

Implied in all this is some perhaps not wholly conscious <u>ability</u> in the child to recognize and respond to different classroom factors. It is an ability that traditional classroom research has made little effort to incorporate in support of children's development.

It could be said that the role of classroom environment in this study appears to be negative - negative in the sense that none of the environments studied managed to support even fifty per cent of the children in optimising their process or product perceptions. Across all eight classrooms on the four criteria the responses of the children pointed to underdevelopment and failure to realize full potential. In several classrooms, over 60-70% of children on any measure applied felt they could be doing relatively better in another type. This means that any single classroom environment acted to <u>cut off</u> more children from positive feelings about their performance than it supported with positive feelings of success.

The observations of Desforges and Cockburn (1987), which indicate the dominance of a single style of classroom process in British primary schools may be taken into consideration at this point. Relating the findings of the present study to Desforges' observations would support a view that the majority of children in classrooms harbour very real feelings of non-optimal functioning. What the persistent presence of these feelings do to perceptions of self image and development of intrinsic motivational skills can only be surmised.

### 8.7.3. A new classroom ontology

The very individualistic nature of the children making up the classroom group, emphasizes the redundancy of the term 'class' beyond that of general label. One solution for overcoming the problems being discussed lies in bypassing the concept of class-group completely and thinking in terms of teacher-child microclimates, as proposed at the beginning of this chapter

Certainly, a new classroom model is required to allow realization of the individual nature of the child and his or her feelings of optimal performance within particular learning environments; a model that can accommodate these microclimates or 'mini learning environments' for different children within the same physical classroom. Thankfully, some children will cluster together into shared or overlapping microclimates which require minimal individual tuning but other children will be outliers needing more specialized versions of the possible.

Seen from the perspective of this present study, the teacher would have to offer at least eight kinds of classroom microclimate. These would range from the **directed-teacher organized activity-fixed setting** to the **negotiated-self organizing-open setting** and quite likely include even more factors in any complete solution. Further, these would represent only the general parameters of the microclimate, since it was argued earlier in this chapter that in its complete specifications every microclimate will be unique to that teacher-child pairing. The model would also have to permit a high degree of flexability insofar as many children's parameters for optimisation change depending on the activity and criteria under study. It does not seem impossible, for example, that a child may prefer a **directed-self organizing-open setting** in the morning and a **negotiated-teacher organized activity-fixed setting** in the afternoon.

Part of the model would also have to offer the teacher both the resources and the skills for highlighting the child's individuality and keeping track of its development.

An advantage of changing one's thinking from an environmental to a microclimate perspective is that the dilemma of the teacher having to offer a range of 'environmental types' disappears. Indeed all we are doing with the microclimate concept is recognizing the already existing individuality of each teacher-child relationship. The advantage of formulating this in terms of 'environmental elements' is that it allows the teacher to

see that some children do need to be told, some left to select and some to follow an 'entrepreneur' (Ch. 6) in setting up their activity. The teacher comes to see that this is not haphazard classroom management with attendant feelings of disempowerment, but actually the microclimate philosophy in practice.

### 8.7.4. The teacher's role

A major problem to be faced when considering possible models is the resource demands on the teacher if the child is seen as this distinct individual. This thesis has argued that in order to cope with classroom demands many teachers currently 'teach to the mean'; they deliver lessons based on their concept of the mean ability of the children making up the class group and to a single, common concept of the child's role in the classroom. The teacher who carried out the independent ratings in this study (not the author)showed an inability to consider children as individuals when attempting to appraise their optimal environments on any of the four criteria. Three-quarters of this teacher's assessments of children's optima were different from those held by the children themselves.

On the other hand, the teacher appeared to 'know' some children better than others, and with these children, he used a more individualistic scoring approach. However, it still appeared very difficult for this teacher to put himself in the child's 'perceptual shoes' in relation to the effects of different environments on performance.

## 8.7.5. First steps forward ?

Rather than seeing children within a classroom as a common group a useful first step, consistent with the present findings, would be, as already outlined, to view the class group as an aggregate of microclimates formed between the teacher and the child, each occupying a pocket of the overall classroom environment.

Feedback from a less formal variant of the kinds of scales filled in by children would go some way toward improving the teacher's awareness of each child's individuality in terms of the present or any other criteria. Further, the experience of incorporating such feedback into practice and 'licensing' a range of classroom microclimates could be introduced at a rate which need not unnerve the individual teacher concerned.

## 8.8. BIOGRAPHIES OF CHILDREN USED IN STUDY EIGHT

This section contains a photograph and short biography on each child taking part in Study Eight to give a flavour of the subject sample and to act as a reference point to the data.

Each biography contains a teacher description of the child (JI) agreed with other staff who knew the child and the child's preferred choice/s of classroom organization on each criteria.

SHEMYLA

CODE: S

Shemyla is an extrovert who seems to portray confidence in her manner but really lacks confidence in many areas including belief in her own abilities. Her lack of confidence is a contributing factor to her activity preference for a directed curriculum and teacher organized activity.
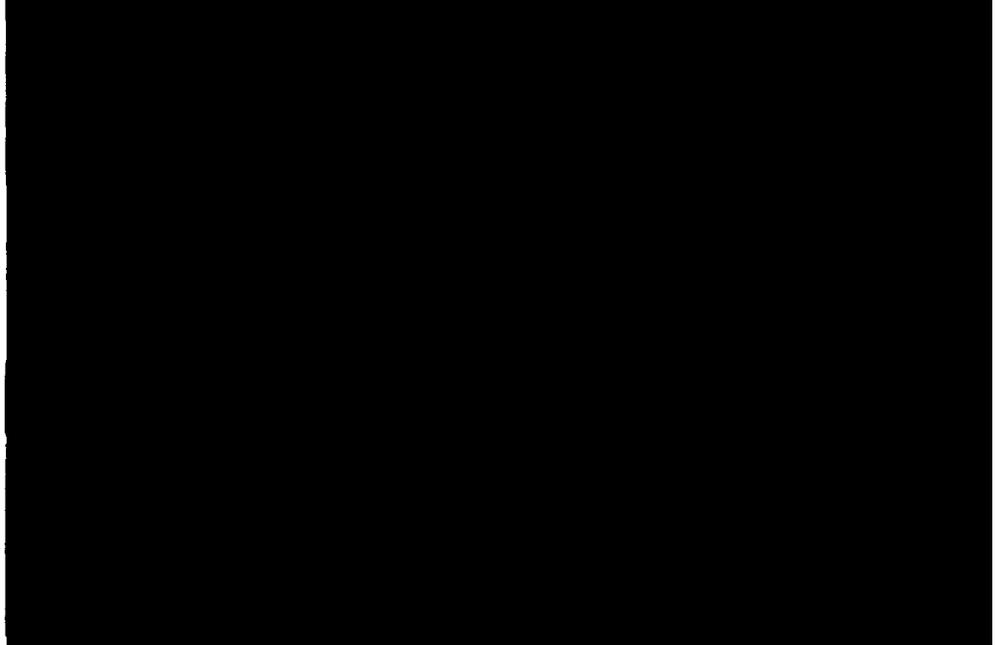
CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated OR directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity-teacher OR self organized-open OR fixed setting

**MICHELLE**
**CODE:  M**

      Michelle is a silent child, introverted, with a small, close group of friends.  Her preference for the negotiated type of curriculum is reflected through her responses of preference in classroom organization across the factors of activity quality, amount and effort.  It is interesting to note that her greatest enjoyment falls under a directed curriculum which is reflective of her introverted nature.  It appears that although very introverted and so one would expect more responsive to direction,  she prefers a negotiated curriculum for effort, quality and amount.

**CLASSROOM**
**ORGANIZATION**
**PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
a)Negotiated activity
-self OR teacher
organized-open OR
fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**Best quality:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher-open OR
fixed setting

b)Directed activity
-self organized
-open setting

**KOMAL**
**CODE:** K

Komal is an introvert who is very hesitant in the classroom and in decision making. She prefers to work within a close group of friends on activities taking a passive role but within which she feels supported in putting her point of view.
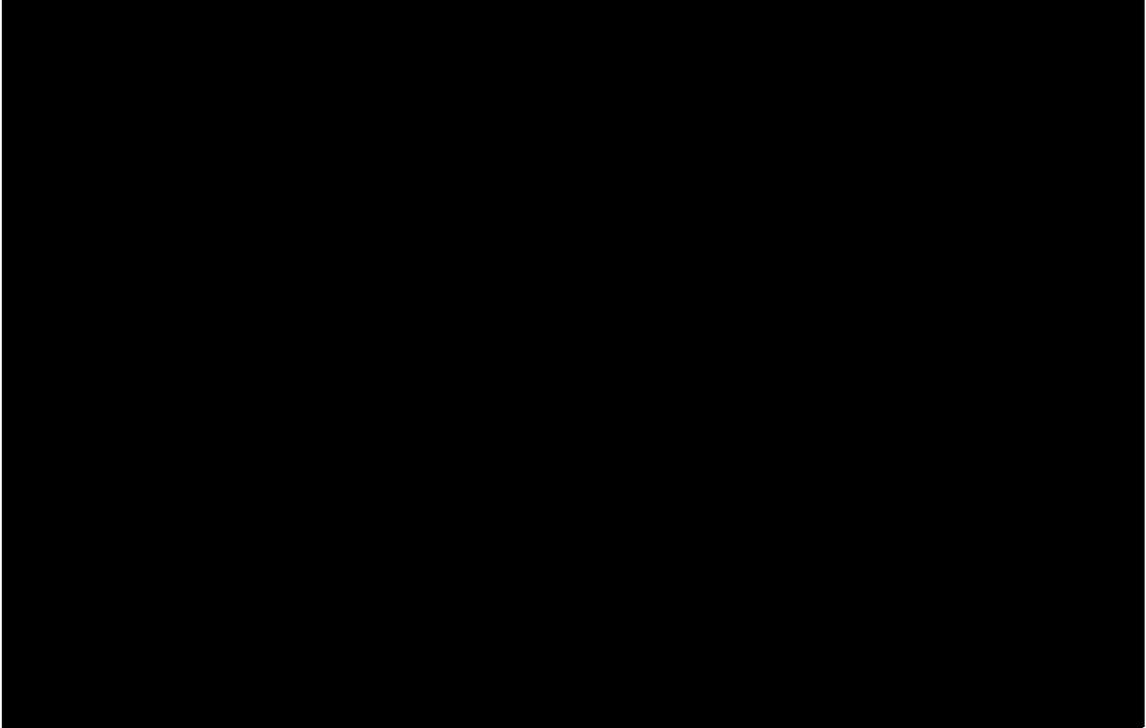
## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
a)Negotiated activity-self OR teacher organized-open OR fixed setting

b)Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Best quality:**
a)Directed activity-teacher OR self organized-open OR fixed setting

b)Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting

**CHARLENE**
**CODE: C**

Charlene is a withdrawn girl in company with the teacher, taking a dependent and submissive role. If spoken to within the class group she will often hesitate and wait for other class members to speak for her. However when in a group of close peers she is often vocal. She particularly enjoys making things.



IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-fixed OR open setting

**Best quality:**
Negotiated OR directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**NATASHA. B.**
**CODE: N**

Natasha is a confident girl who will often take leadership of a group of peers, all girls. While physically larger than most other children in the class she does have a strong perspective of the teacher being in a directive role. Her mum works in the school as a cleaner and she is aware that often mum is in the classroom looking at her activities.


IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
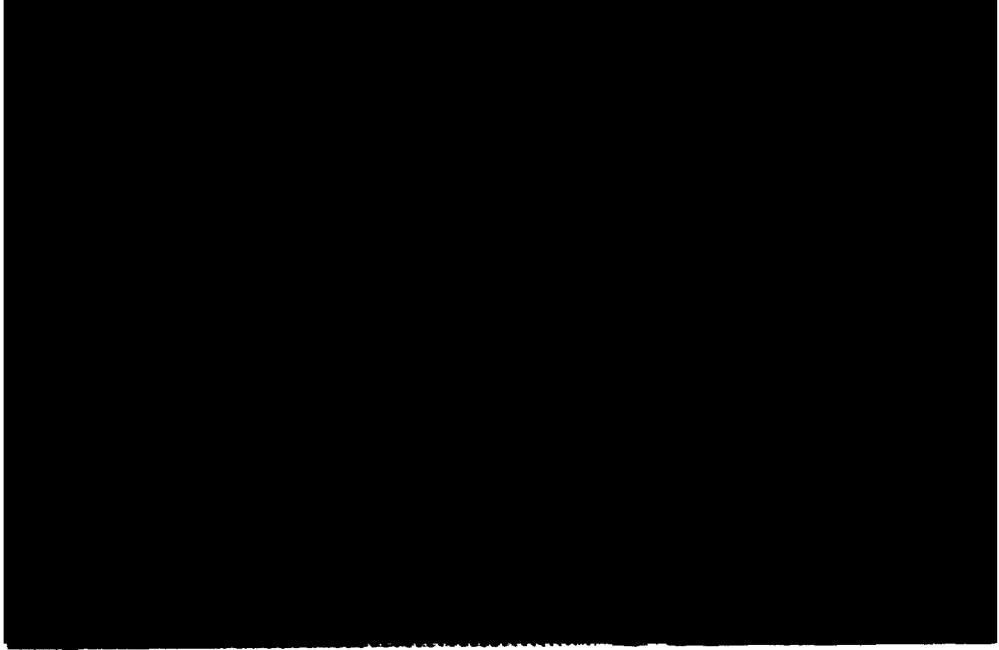Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Best quality:**
Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

**LINDA**
**CODE: L**

Linda is the most developed within the class academically. She enjoys mathematics and more formal English activities and is a confident reader. She will often take leadership of a group, boys and girls, with confidence and within an entrepreneurial role.

**CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting
b)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open OR fixed
 setting

b)Directed activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Negotiated activity
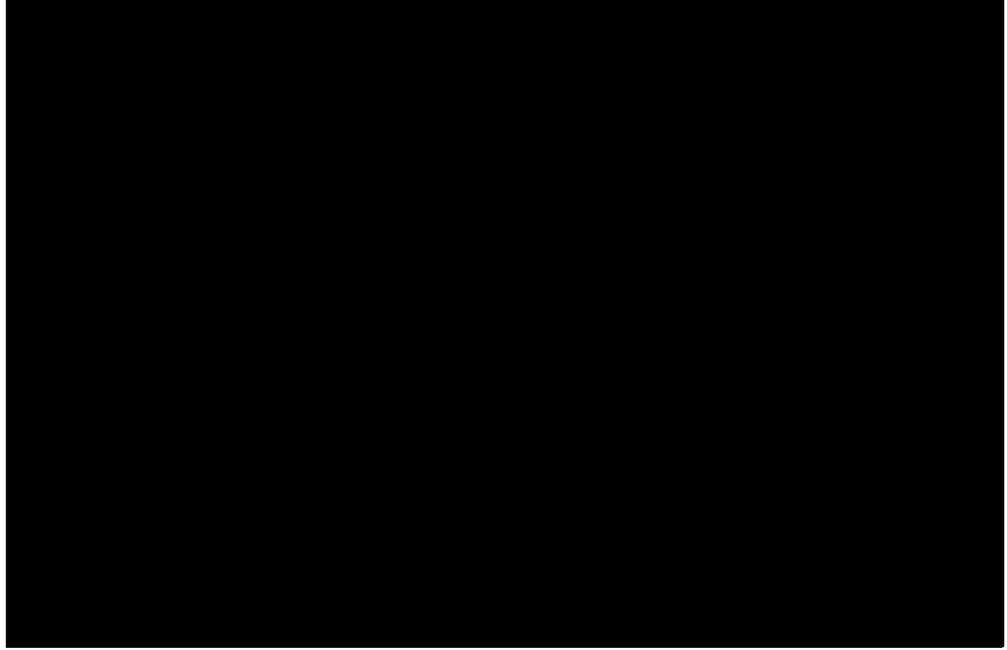-teacher organized
-fixed OR open
 setting

**Best quality:**
a)Negotiated activity
-self organized
-open setting

b)Directed activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**KELLY**
**CODE:   Ke**

Kelly is a confident child vocal and outward going both within a group and whole class situations.   She moves between groups of other children with ease.   She attends a small daily support reading class where she is as extrovert and positive as in the main class group.

**CLASSROOM**
**ORGANIZATION**
**PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Directed activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**Best quality:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher OR self
-open setting

b)Negotiated activity
-self organized-fixed
setting

c)Directed activity
-self OR teacher
organized-open
setting

d)Directed activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**ESTHER**
**CODE: E**

Esther is a shy child who will often allow other children to talk on her behalf. She will often stand in a group with her finger in her mouth and nod to responses directed towards her. She enjoys working within a close group of friends, all girls and within this group will take the worker role.

IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
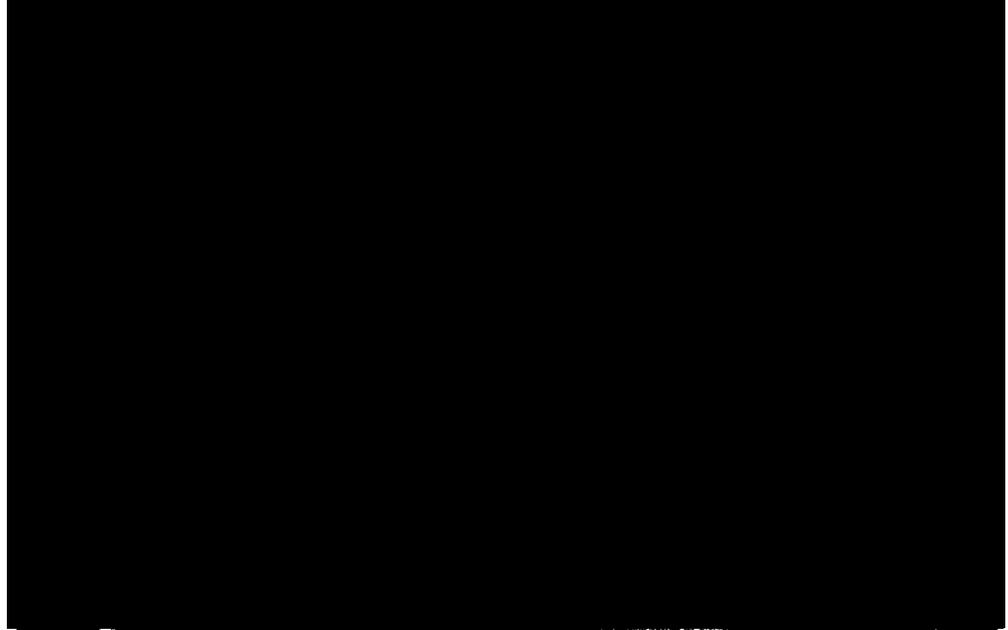
**CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Directed activity-self organized-fixed OR open setting

b)Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**MELECIA**
**CODE: Me**

Melecia is extrovert in classroom behaviour joining in with group activities well. She is very conscious of her difficulties in developing the understanding of some concepts as quickly as other children. Although she receives a lot of support from other children and staff, Melecia occasionally breaks into tears when she feels she cannot cope or understand.

CLASSROOM
ORGANIZATION
PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated activity
-self OR teacher
organized-open
setting

b)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

b)Directed activity
-self organized
-open OR fixed
 setting

**Best Quality:**
Negotiated activity
-teacher OR self
organized-open
setting

**JAHAN**
**CODE: J**

Jahan is an introverted girl who speaks little in the classroom. In both group and individual situations she tends to sit, focussed on her work with little eye to eye contact with others. She is however active in negotiation sessions usually waiting for other children to finish before approaching very slowly. She speaks English as a second language and is attending support group activities for language development.

IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity-self OR teacher organized-open OR fixed setting

b)Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

c)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

**HUMAYRA**
**CODE:  H**

Humayra is an able child in the academic arena having developed a variety of skills in mathematics and language. She is an able reader who receives tuition at home for mathematics.  Her parents she reports,  have a very strong perspective on the role of school and this she brings into the classroom.


IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

**CLASSROOM**
**ORGANIZATION**
**PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated   activity-self OR teacher organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity-self OR teacher organized-fixed OR open setting.

**Greatest effort:**
a)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

b)Directed   activity-teacher   organized-open   OR   fixed setting

c)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed  setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Directed  activity-teacher organized-open setting
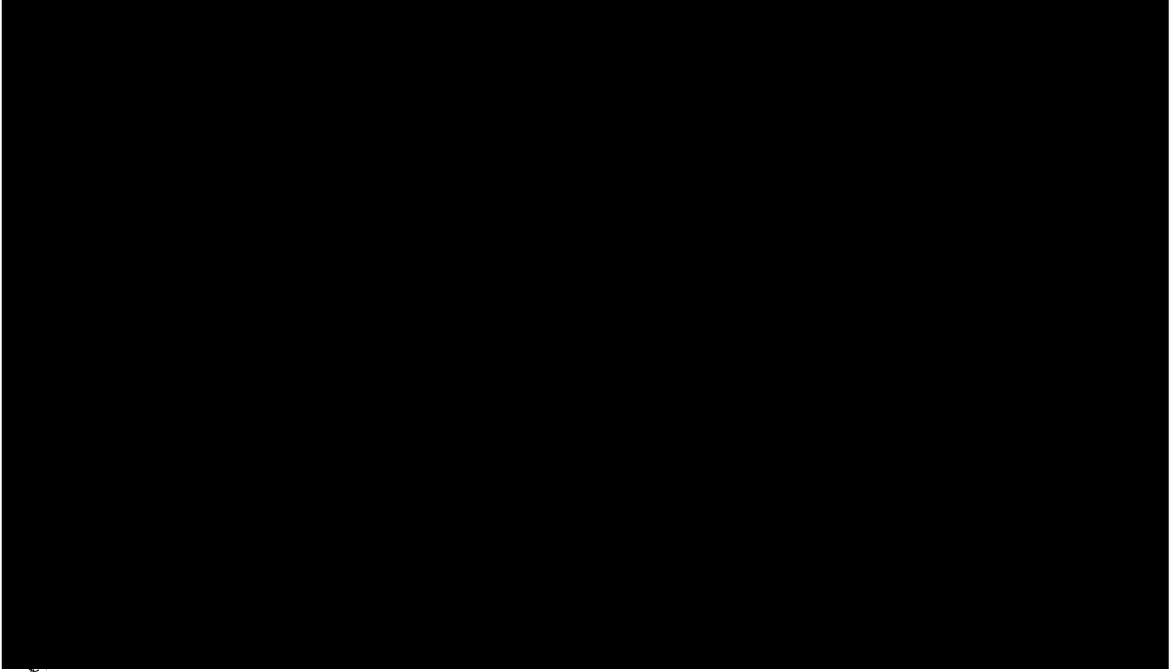
b)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**NATASHA. W.**
**CODE: Nw**

Natasha is a friendly child with an outward appearance of confidence and well developed social skills. She attends a variety of special need support groups for language and reading development. She has the most amazing perseverance of any child covered in this study in terms of continuing on an activity she finds difficult.

**CLASSROOM**
**ORGANIZATION**
**PREFERENCES:**


**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated activity
-self OR teacher
organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting


**Greatest effort:**
a)Negotiated activity
-self OR teacher
organized-open OR
fixed setting

b)Directed activity
-self organized
-open setting
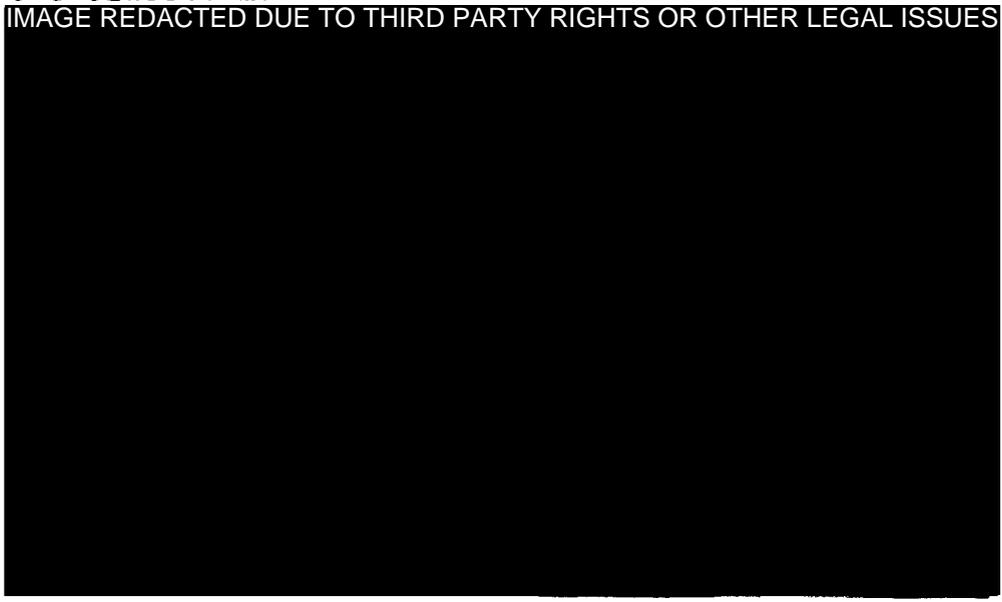
c)Directed activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Directed activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**SIMA**
**CODE:  Si**

Sima is a very confident and able child both in academic and social skill development.  She organizes groups and allocates activity tasks in paradigm entrepreneurial form. She attends Mosque each evening but talks about it from a more questioning stance than the other children who attend.  She is famous within the class for her sense of humour.

CLASSROOM
ORGANIZATION
PREFERENCES:


**Greatest enjoyment:**
Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Directed   activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

b)Negotiated activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Best quality:**
a)Directed activity
-self OR teacher
organized-open
setting

b)Directed activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

c)Negotiated activity
-self OR teacher
organized-fixed
setting

d)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**BARLAS**
**CODE: B**

Barlas is a very independent spirt in terms of getting involved with other children, moving around the classroom and developing ideas. He particularly enjoys making things but at the same time due to his strong Muslim up-bringing and evening attendance at the Mosque has a very powerful perspective of the teacher-child relationship based in direction.
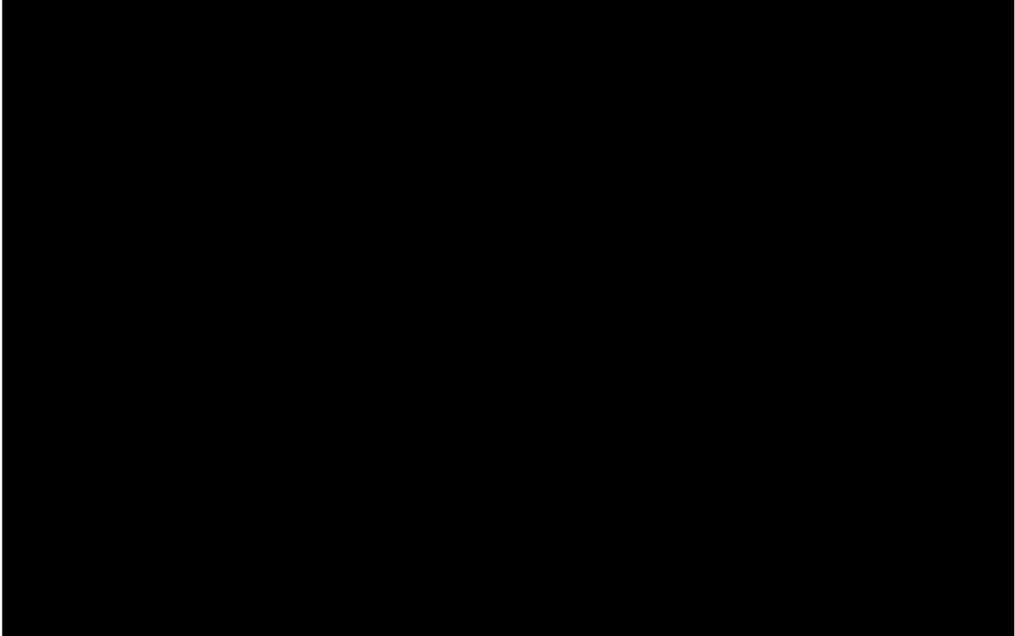
**CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:**
**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Directed activity-self organized-open setting

b)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open setting

b)Directed activity-self organized-open setting

c)Directed activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
a)Negotiated activity-self organized-open setting

b)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

c)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**SANDEEP**
**CODE: Sa**

Sandeep is very aware that his mother and father wish him to do 'well' at school, a view reflected in his set perspective as to acceptable and unacceptable activities in the classroom. He prefers to 'do' mathematics and scheme based activities avoiding more 'non-academic' activities.
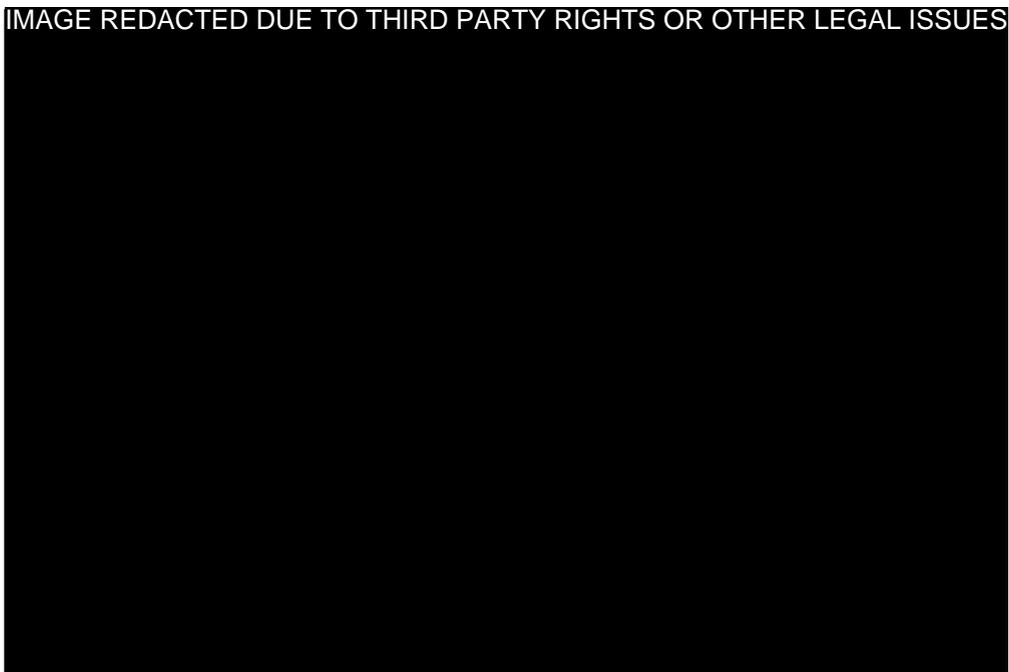
## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Best quality:**
a)Directed activity-teacher OR self organized-open setting

b)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open OR fixed setting

**YAKOOB**
**CODE: Y**

Yakoob is a confident boy, interacting with other children with an air of security. He enjoys working in a group and often will take on the leadership role. However when interacting with the teacher he prefers to be directed on task than to make independent decisions, often returning to check teacher approval.
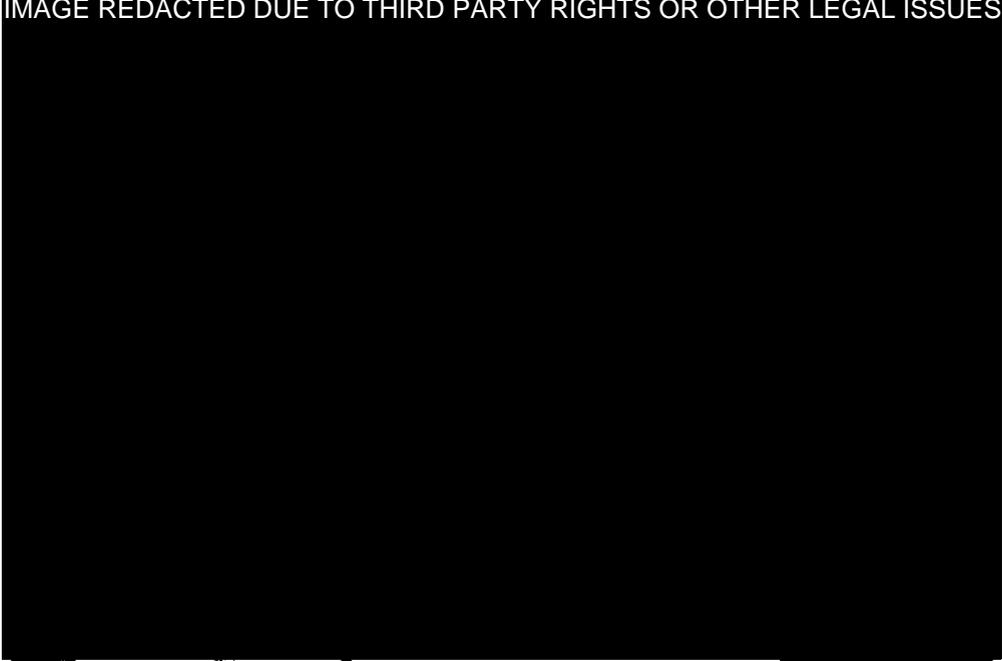
## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed OR negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
a)Negotiated activity-teacher OR self organized-fixed OR open setting

b)Directed activity-teacher OR self organized-open OR fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity-teacher OR self organized-fixed setting

**RAMZAN**
**CODE: R**

Ramzan is an extrovert boy who has many friends both within the school and the classroom. He often has time away from school and this has influenced his under-development of reading, language and mathematics skills. This is something that he is very aware of and is often reflected within his conversations with the teacher.

**CLASSROOM**
**ORGANIZATION**
**PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated activity
-self OR teacher
organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

b)Negotiated activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**JAMES**
**CODE: Je**

James is a boy with a variety of well developed social skills but tends to be avoided by many of the other children in the class due to his energetic nature. He is able to develop a variety of activities well across the curriculum but tends to avoid any that demand too much 'scheme' work. He enjoys organizing groups and activities but is not always followed in these requests to form groups by others.

## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated activity-self OR teacher organized-open OR fixed setting

b)Directed activity-teacher organized-open OR fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
ALL EXCEPT
a)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-open setting

b)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
ALL EXCEPT:
a)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
a)Directed activity-teacher organized-open OR fixed setting

b)Negotiated activity-self organized-open OR fixed setting

c)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

**RICKEY**
**CODE: Ri**

Rickey is one of twins who are forever involved in episodes of adventure around the school mainly with non-teaching staff. He is an extrovert boy with social skills that other children like but are slightly hesitant with, due to his boisterous nature. He attends a variety of support groups for language and behavioural development and has a great love of making things.



IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

**CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
All combinations except
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated OR
directed activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Directed activity
-teacher OR
self organized
-open setting

b)Negotiated activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

c)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting.

**Best quality:**
a)Directed activity
-self organized
-open setting

b)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**KALEEM**
**CODE:  Ka**

Kaleem enjoys the friendship of a close group of boys within which he prefers to carry out activities.  He is neither extro- or introvert in the classroom and suits the label of trainee entrepreneur well.  He attempts most activities with interest but prefers to be involved in group work.

**CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

b)Directed activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher organized
-open OR fixed setting

b)Directed activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

c)Directed activity
-teacher organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Directed   activity
-teacher organized-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
a)Negotiated   activity-self   OR   teacher   organized-open setting

b)Directed activity-self OR teacher organized-open setting

e)Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**SHAZAD**
**CODE: Sh**

Shazad is a very extrovert boy who comes second within the class for humorous extroversion. He prefers to avoid activities that are desk based unless he is able to work within a group. He attends various support groups for language and reading development.



IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

**CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity-self organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity-teacher organized-open setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**JAVED**
**CODE: Ja**

Javed is a boy who puts forward a persona of confidence, large in movement and voice. This however seems linked with his larger size than other children in the class. Often he is tearful if spoken to abruptly by other class members. He enjoys practical activities.
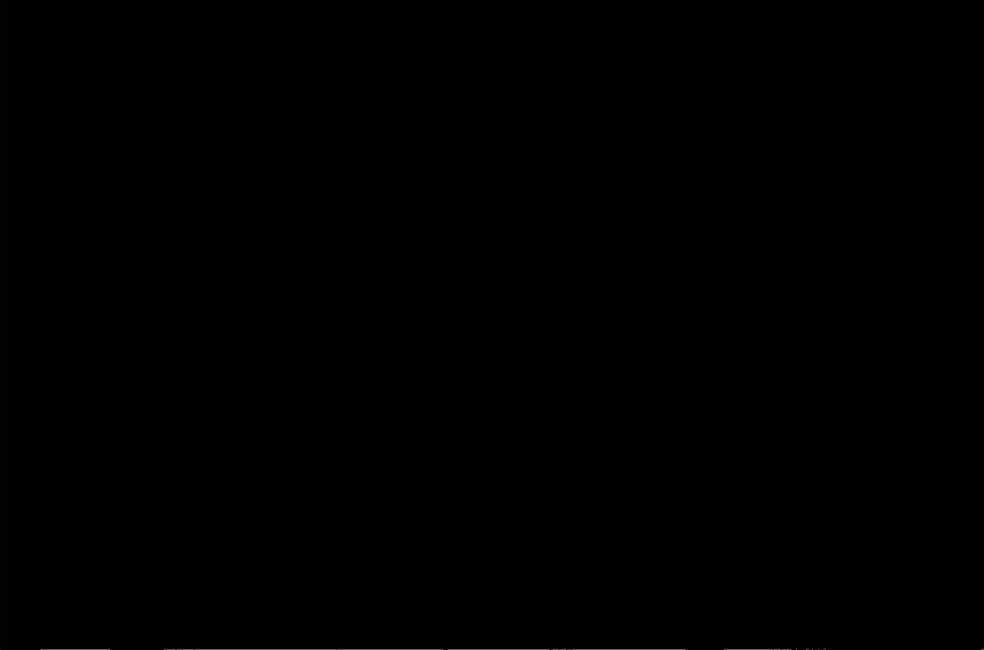
## CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**Greatest quantity:**
a)Negotiated activity-teacher organized-fixed setting

b)Directed activity-self organized-open setting

**Best quality:**
Directed activity-self organized-fixed setting

**ASHFAQ**
**CODE: A**

Ashfaq is a sociable boy with well developed social skills and many friends in the class. He supports other children, often helping them with activities that they find difficult. He attends Mosque each evening and often talks about the difference between the relationship between teacher at Mosque and at school.

**CLASSROOM**
**ORGANIZATION**
**PREFERENCES:**

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Negotiated activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Best quality:**
a)Negotiated activity
-teacher OR self
organized
-open OR
fixed setting

b)Directed activity
-teacher OR self
organized
-open setting



IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

MAJID
CODE:  Ma

Majid puts forward   an extrovert front   and a very
confident persona.   However in the one to one situation
and in the general activity of the classroom he constantly
approaches   for   reassurance   and   support.   He   enjoys
practical activities and likes to work in a small group
activity.

IMAGE REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

CLASSROOM
ORGANIZATION
PREFERENCES:

**Greatest enjoyment:**
Directed activity
-teacher organized
-fixed setting

**Greatest effort:**
Directed  activity
-self organized
-open setting

**Greatest quantity:**
Directed  activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

**Best quality:**
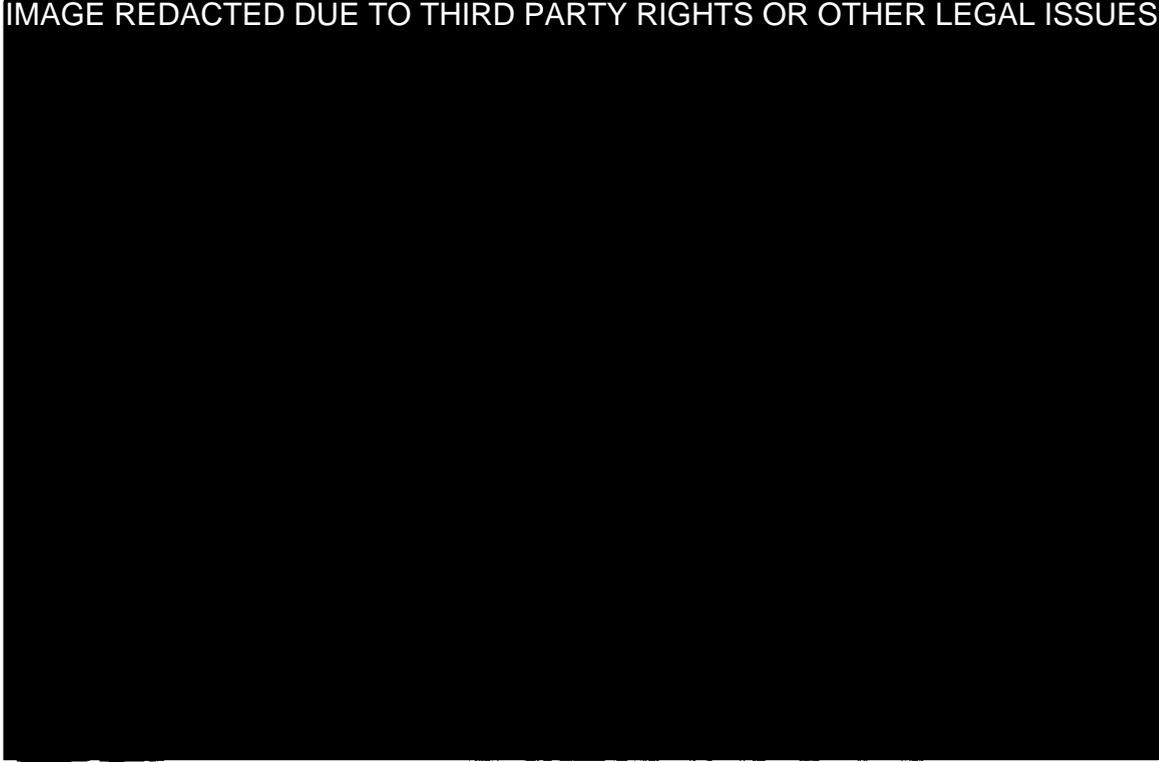Negotiated activity
-self organized
-fixed setting

# CHAPTER 9

## CONCLUSIONS

9.1.    'CLASSROOM': Shared or individual concept ?

9.2.    INDIVIDUAL CLASSROOM WORLDS: Perceptual goggles ?

9.3.    WHY DO CHILDREN IN GENERAL NOT FAVOUR GREATER
CLASSROOM AUTONOMY ?

9.4.    EMPATHIC TRANSACTIONS: By-passing perceptual
goggles.

9.5.    THE TEACHERS DILEMMA: Private and Public Knowledge.

9.6.    THE NEGOTIATED PARTNERSHIP: Developing Together.

# CHAPTER 9

## CONCLUSIONS

While extended discussion has been provided for each of the eight studies there is a need in this last Chapter to provide some metaperspective on the research enterprise as a whole. The dialectic throughout the preceding chapters has given rise to a variety of observations and theorems in relation to classroom processes, in particular to the practical application of a concept of negotiation within primary education as currently practised.

The diversity of argument has been such that in order to draw it together effectively it may be useful to go full circle and begin by returning to some of the basic concepts with which the study started out and re-examine their assumptions.

### 9.1. 'CLASSROOM': Shared or individual concept ?

The core of the discussion has been the concept of classroom. The word 'classroom' seems clearcut in its semantic standing. Children and teacher's use the word every day, both in and out of the school setting, in a variety of contexts and with little demand from other people for clarification of meaning.

However Chapters 3, 6, 7 and 8 draw attention to problems of semantic clarity for 'classroom' as a concept for child, teacher, parent-and for researchers. Would the reader agree that 'classroom' includes the physical

backdrop: the room or area within which given resources
are present ?


Are chairs and tables necessary parts of the classroom
concept and could we agree on books, paper and pencils ?

The point of taking the reader through this line of
thinking is that before any consideration of transactional
aspects of the classroom can be reached problems are
already present within the physical essence of the
definition of a classroom that need consideration. There
appears to be a direct relationship between how the
teacher perceives classroom life-the curriculum, its
delivery, and the importance of various types of
experience at certain ages - and how she then goes on to
physically organise the classroom.

A similar situation occurs at the level of the
teacher and individual child: different children prefer
different styles of interaction with the teacher and with
other children depending upon the type of classroom
environment they are in. So much seems clear from
the fixed / open setting manipulation in Study Eight.

In Chapter Six three distinct styles of
interaction were noted when children were placed into a
negotiating classroom environment. Rather like the Chapter
Three study of the directive classroom variation in
individual 'frontrunner' or 'backmarker' coping strategies
the negotiating classroom study found three distinct
styles of classroom interaction among children
themselves. Some children preferred to adopt what was

termed an 'entrepreneurial' strategy, while others adopted a 'trainee' or merely a 'worker' role. Furthermore, children showed differences not just in how they organized their classroom role but in whether they preferred to work alone or in groups of two, three or more. Thus the negotiating classroom allowed a bringing into the public domain of the classroom perceptions and preferences that could only exist in the private domain within a directive classroom. Such individual variation in preference was again highlighted in Chapter Eight. In particular it was noted that,

(a) the type of curricular activity, (b) the classroom role of the child as dictated by the classroom design, (c) the activity criteria of effort, enjoyment, quality and production, all interacted to create a unique relationship which directly influenced the child's preferred style of classroom interaction.

It is the pervasiveness of the present findings in pointing up the predominance of individuality between children in curricular experience, role preference, group relations, coping strategies and communication, that seem to reflect back to the concept of the classroom and what it is. Any classroom represents for the individuals within it very different things. It could be said that each individual, teacher or child, inhabits a distinctly different classroom world even though they share the same physical space.

In several chapters we have encountered the idea of individuality in various forms. In Chapter Three we saw

that in the traditional classroom the children were found to differ from each other in both their individual curriculum and their coping experiences as well as being at variance with the teacher's perspective. While some children, those we called frontrunners, experienced a classroom that restrained their talents, other children, the backmarkers, perceived a classroom that created problems of coping with backlog which in turn produced negative feelings. Thus, children sharing the same classroom were found to experience differing demand features within that room.

The data indicated the individuality of children's classroom worlds in three major areas:

(a) in the variation between children in curricular experience and coping strategies,

(b) in the nature of the strategies they used, passive or active

(c) in the type of stylised interaction with the teacher that had developed.

The central idea of the individuality of children was developed further in Chapter Three with consideration of the nature of interaction between the child, the teacher and a third factor, the classroom ethos. The teacher and child interaction was noted not only to be in a stylised form, but to employ a currency or even conspiracy of silence through which neither had to acknowledge to the other the problems that each might have in interpreting classroom events. Chapter Three showed that this form of ritualized, public domain

interaction, is in sharp contrast with children's true personal feelings and their knowledge about the classroom.

Consistent with this view, of the distinction between public and personal classroom identity, Chapter Eight noted that a teacher who claimed knowing the children wellwas able to agree with only approximately one quarter 'best classroom condition' rankings from the children. A distinct silence appeared when this teacher was asked to 'make public' and apply his self-professed private knowledge. It appeared that his knowledge of children in the group was very variable, in that while for some children he was able to apply this private knowledge successfully for others he was unable to.

It seems that the 'nature' of the classroom must be what that classroom is to a given individual. While two individuals may attempt to come to an agreement on the nature of a 'classroom' they can only reach a limited position of shared understanding. Any attempt to objectify their position by agreeing an essence is as Popper (1972) points out only a shared subjectivity, which will still hold personal conceptual elements that are not part of the 'objective' concept. An uncomfortable example of this point was found in Chapter Three where teachers were in traditional classrooms not aware of the true curricular experiences of their children.

## 9.2. INDIVIDUAL CLASSROOM WORLDS: Perceptual goggles ?

From the perspective of the individual classroom world it is possible to address Bruner's (1983) point that the constructs we or the child hold directly frame our perception of the world. If the child perceives a classroom world different from that of others then it is because the constructs about classrooms that he holds differ from those of others. This was exemplified in Chapter Eight where children were noted to vary in their preferences for particular classroom elements depending on how they perceived an activity. The same criterion, say quality, was managed differently depending on adoption of an entrepreneurial, trainee or worker role by the individual concerned. Thus, the child not only inhabits a particular classroom world, he is sustained within this world by the 'construct goggles' through which he perceives it. In this world of construct goggles, Chapter Eight tested a wide variety of classroom environmental models. Any single imposed classroom environment was found to isolate more children then it supported, - <u>and this included the wholly autonomous learning model</u>.


## 9.3. WHY MIGHT CHILDREN NOT FAVOUR GREATER CLASSROOM AUTONOMY ?

This preceding discussion leads to a major question as to why the child might <u>not</u> want a greater autonomous learning environment where he or she can significantly control the nature and pace of learning experiences.

It appears that two powerful processes are in action that act to maintain child orientated dependency behaviours. The first, the dependency model of childhood was presented in Chapter One. The model outlined how children experience both biological and social dependency early in life through experiences such as feeding and language development and how these act to reinforce an orientation toward dependency behaviours in later life. For example, Alice Miller (1987) has described part of this process in relation to family based experiences in the early years which Miller suggests directly affect later personality and life style.

Secondly, a process of socialization into 'school type' behaviours and expectations of the child's role appears extremely powerful in the child's early school experiences. Chapter One again indicated how teacher expectation, and school process structures such as teacher direction, the social organization of the classroom, seating, resource use and the teachers personal models as to the nature of childhood and school, all act to develop dependency type behaviours in the children. These processes leave the child feeling insecure in situations that actually invite self-direction as they do not "fit" with the child's models of appropriate pupil role behaviour or with what they see school based learning as about. This means, somewhat paradoxically, that for a child raised in traditional classrooms the facilitating environment of a negotiating classroom will take some getting used to. The time this requires will vary across

children: a small minority of children may never be at their best in a negotiating setting because the background factors just referred to do not release their hold.

When the child, chooses a non-autonomous relationship with the teacher, this type of choice can be regarded as a manifestation of the child's present and possibly deep rooted feelings of insecurity concerning classroom self-image. As noted, the roots of such feelings may lie with the home or previous school experiences. Thus while opting for elements of a directive environment certainly has integrity and validity it also has a diagnostic value of the kind of patient, careful support the child will need to become free in the classroom.

## 9.4. EMPATHIC TRANSACTIONS: BY PASSING PERCEPTUAL GOGGLES.

Any understanding by the teacher of the child's classroom world - or by the child of the teacher's world - is dependent on a shared communication system, particularly if children are to be supported in moving towards expression of their preferences and realisation of potential.

Rogers et al. (1969) suggests that if people are to understanding each other they need to adopt relationships based on empathy and try actively to look at the world, as it were, through the other's eyes. One possible link between the worlds of the teacher and the child would be a communication system which not only licensed but invited

public expression of each of these worlds. A shift in classroom emphasis to encourage children to bring forward mistakes, dead-ends, frustrations that they and their group have met or might meet would then be part of a diagnostic approach to learning. In such a context the traditional notion of mistake or failure would have little meaning. To further make public the associated feelings would turn 'mistakes' into no more than tutorial feedback of difficulties to the rest of the class and to the teacher of the particular child's problems, as a first approximation in the move towards competence. The child should have available a supporting communication system that allows discussion of these 'current approximations' both as a learning aid to all present including the teacher and as a force towards making the respective worlds of experience become more congruent. The transcripts of teacher-child talk in a negotiating classroom, as presented at the end of Chapter Six, have examples of this kind of closer communication beginning to happen. It is also chastening to think that the seeds of these ideas put forward a quarter of a century ago by Holt (1964) in a book which has been much more respected than acted upon.

## 9.5. THE TEACHERS DILEMMA: Private and Public Knowledge.

In addition to Carl Rogers' and Dweck's ideas a further useful formulation can be found in Karl Popper's notion of three worlds (Magee, 1973). Popper holds that World One is the physical world of materials, stone,

water, paint, and World Two the subjective world of
minds. World Three, is a world in which ideas are
dominant; these exist free of a knowing individual and
are the sum of cultural development. Popper gives the
analogy of a library of unread books that the individual
has not read but are available to dip into if you wish,
ideas you are currently unaware of but which are
available for debate and analysis.

Popper thus addresses this issue of public and
private knowledge and its individual nature in a way that
illuminates the dilemma of the teacher. If uniform
classroom roles are imposed on the child by the teacher
then a variety of problems occurs. The child and teacher
become estranged and develop a perceptual and then a
cognitive gap. A communication system which is non-
supportive of mutual understanding develops, and children
themselves develop a siege mentality based on the kind
of coping discussed in Chapter Three. In the development
of such siege mentalities the children are necessarily
'blocked' and unable to express the preferences they hold
toward learning which seemed to emerge in Chapter Eight,
namely how changing key elements of the classroom
environment reveals complex interactions between element,
criterion, curricular area and individual child. This
mentality also leads to the loss of the advantages of
intrinsic motivational processes and positive feelings
of control and causation as illustrated in the motivation
survey of Chapter Two.

Moreover, it was seen in Chapter One how for the

teacher historical, personal and socialization processes act to maintain that teacher's directive role in the classroom. When this is combined with the press of societal factors such as the National Curriculum, L.E.A. guidelines and school developmental policies, it becomes difficult for the teacher to develop any reflective awareness of the perceptual predispositions which form her own classroom world, or of their limitations.

This dilemma can again be addressed through Popper's concept of three worlds as they relate to people's constructs of reality (Magee, 1973). If it were possible to help teachers perceive their everyday classroom world by using Popper's World Three notion and some of the ideas available in it, similar to those developed in this study, then they in turn could help children to do likewise.

Classroom negotiation is a useful tool here. Teachers who have introduced discussion periods with their classes around organizational matters find themselves reflecting on the problems inherent in imposing classroom roles on children and in moving towards a position of shared subjectivity. Such teachers recognize the necessity to develop with children a sense of classroom partnership. The objective is to foster empathic interaction skills where the teacher leads when academic experience is needed but is happy to be led when the special view of the child is the paramount factor.

By actively supporting the child's public expression of his World Two classroom, the teacher will be helped to

overcome the silent conspiracy referred to in Chapter Three, and instead World Three expression of positive and negative feeling about classroom processes (chapter eight) will begin to occur. Evidently, this will allow the teacher to develop a greater understanding of the child and his or her preferences for learning.

It is recognized that for hardened traditionalists the kinds of views being promoted here will appear as romantic foolishness. At a more serious and practical level, it is also recognized that for some teacher's the 'fear' of losing control by introducing negotiation may act as an inhibiting factor. The development of appropriate strategies must be at a pace that suits the individual teacher as in the the example just noted of teachers who have begun by introducing discussion sessions.

The use of negotiation as a strategy is an attempt to move towards this empathic, shared - World Two position between teacher and child. The tools available to the teacher within the communication process emerged clearly enough in the Chapter Six analysis of classroom transcripts. Discussing the activity with the child, how it could be organized, how it could be resourced and how feedback could function begins to make public the child's present World Two perspective. This allows others in the classroom, teacher and children, to begin to understand and respond to the child's needs and act to support them. This tendency was noticeable in the Chapter Six account where 'entrepreneurs' were seen to support 'workers' who

felt more content in well-defined activity responsibilities. Negotiation also allows children to experiment with the responsibility of self-determination by adopting strategies with which they feel safe (e.g. 'trainee'). With some irony, however, it was shown in the last study that even an imposed autonomous environment remains an <u>imposed</u> environment, and that true autonomy lies in having the child not make a formula choice but a personal choice that fits his or her current World Two.

## 9.6. THE NEGOTIATED PARTNERSHIP: Developing Together

The aspects of the child's individuality discussed above highlight the issues that any classroom design must address if it is to offer children an institutional environment within which they can develop towards their potential and in a manner that best suits them. In keeping with the social cognitive position held by influential theorists such as Dweck (1986) the discussion addresses the relationship between the classroom's social ethos and the children's cognitive structures. The discussion adapts the views of such theorists to the extent of recognising that while a child's perceptual framework is important in structuring a classroom world, this world is not to be seen as fixed. As Chapter Eight illustrated, far from being a fixed perspective, a child's motivational orientation, be it couched in terms of learning and performance goals or intrinsic - extrinsic motivation, can vary across days or a single day. Conceptualizations such as Dweck's that function

from a single typological model do not address how individuality and temporal changes are forces acting to maintain the individuality of the child within the World Two of private knowledge. This is better treated from the perspective of researchers such as Deci et. al. (1981) and DeCharms (1976) who emphasise the need in considering classroom processes to account for individual responses that change in step with environmental changes. The design of the negotiating classroom actually attempts to bring these issues to the fore and the account in Chapter Five suggests there has been some success in doing so.

As argued in Chapter Five, the strength of the negotiating classroom model is its use of a variety of tools to create an environment within which the child can openly express individuality, and one within which the teacher constantly strives to move the child in this direction. The advantage of developing such classroom environments based on learning goals is an increase in effort, involving the child in developing strategies of learning to overcome difficulties, and initiating the same child in exploring and pursuing tasks that promote intellectual growth. But more than this the negotiated classroom also looks beyond task skills to social skills since a degree of self-confidence and occasional assertiveness is needed for the child to be effective in sharing with the group what has been accomplished that session.

The findings in Chapter Eight indicate the wide variety of preferences that children have toward

individual styles of learning, and the negotiating classroom moves towards catering for these preferences. It is proposed that an emphasis on the teacher and child forming a classroom partnership would lead to establishment of their own micro-climate within which the teacher supports the child's preferred form of learning and the child supports the teacher's professional goals. Within such a relationship the child and the teacher can openly experience 'failure': in a context of retraining, children can be taught strategies based on learning goals to cope and increase effort so as to overcome difficulty with the activities present or even with feelings of classroom failure. This diagnostic approach inherent in the negotiating model as being put forward demotes 'success or failure' from it's traditionally dominant position as a classroom index.

On the matter of the teacher-child partnership Chapter Seven made a distinction between the 'forced curricular diet' of the directive classroom and the 'natural curricular diet' available in the negotiating classroom as developing from such a teacher-child partnership. Part of this partnership must be a constant striving by the teacher to increase the child's confidence in self-determination and responsibility for learning. From a purely academic standpoint, Chapter Five presents evidence that the child moving through such an environment does not appear to fare any worse than peers in other types of classroom in terms of traditional 'basic skills'.

On the contrary, Chapter Seven indicated that the child gains in motivational commitment by spending longer on activities than allowed for under a directive regime. An added bonus noted in Chapter Eight was the greater feelings of self-worth that developed in the partnership-based classroom.

These advantages over traditional classroom design also involve the child and the teacher in redefining together the concept of 'basics'. Whereas this concept has traditionally focussed on the 3 R's as the foundation stones of the curriculum, the shift in basics perspective arising from a negotiating framework now includes social skills as developed within a shared partnership. This change suggests a new and different set of 3Rs, relevance, responsibility and reciprocation:

a) **RELEVANCE:** educational policy needs to allow the child access to notions which have meaning and value for the child.

b) **RESPONSIBILITY:** the child needs to be encouraged to share responsibility for developing his or her curricular experience.

c) **RECIPROCITY:** the child and the teacher need to work for greater congruence in their perceptual worlds (World Two) so that not only the child but the teacher finds sustenance.

APPENDIX 1:   CHRONOLOGY OF STUDIES REPORTED IN THIS THESIS,
SHOWING DATES, SCHOOLS AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS.   (Total
Children = 178, Total Classrooms = 5.)

| YEAR | TERM | SCHOOL | NUMBER OF CHILDREN | AGE | CHILDREN USED IN OTHER STUDIES ? | DISSERTATION STUDY NUMBER AND CHAPTER |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1984 | AUTUMN | ROEHAMPTON GATE PRIMARY | 15-20 | 7-8 | NO | STUDIES: 3/4/5, CHAP. 6 |
| 1985 | SPRING | " | 16 | " " | YES, AS ABOVE | STUDY: 6, CHAP. 6 |
| 1985 | SUMMER | " | 15-20 | " " | YES, AS ABOVE | NEGOTIATING C'ROOM 1 |
| | | | | | | |
| 1985 | AUTUMN | " | " " | " " | NO | NEGOTIATING C'ROOM 2 |
| 1986 | SPRING | " | " " | " " | YES, AS FOR AUTUMN '85 | " " |
| 1986 | SUMMER | " | " " | " " | " " | " " |
| | | | | | | |
| 1986 | AUTUMN | SHERINGDALE PRIMARY | 20 | 7-8 | NO | NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM 3 |
| 1987 | SPRING | ALDERBROOK PRIMARY | 14 | 9-10 | NO | STUDY: 7, CHAP. 7 |
| 1987 | SUMMER | " | " | " " | YES, AS FOR SPRING '87" | " " |

| YEAR | TERM | SCHOOL | NUMBER OF CHILDREN | AGE | CHILDREN USED IN OTHER STUDIES | DISSERTATION STUDY NUMBER AND CHAPTER |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1987 | AUTUMN | ALDERBROOK PRIMARY | 20 | 7-9 | NO | NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM 4 STUDIES: 1/2, CHAP: 3 |
| " | " " | " | 12 +(5 TEACH'S) | 9-10 | NO | |
| 1988 | SPRING | " | 20 | 7-9 | YES, AS FOR AUTUMN '87 | NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM 4 STUDY: 2, CHAP: 3 |
| " | " " | " | 25 (PILOT SAMPLE) | 7-11 | NO (PILOT GROUP) YES (12 OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, AS FOR AUTUMN '87) | |
| | | | 53 (EXPER. SAMPLE) | | | |
| 1988 | SUMMER | " | 20 | 7-9 | YES, AS FOR AUTUMN '87 | NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM 4 READING AND MATHEMATICS SCORES, CHAP: 5 |
| 1988 | AUTUMN | " | 24 | 7-9 | NO | STUDY: 8, CHAP: 8 |
| 1989 | SPRING | " | " " | " " | YES, AS FOR AUTUMN '88 | " " " |
| 1989 | SUMMER | " | " " | " " | YES, AS FOR AUTUMN '88 | NEGOTIATING CLASSROOM 5 |

**APPENDIX 2: NUMBER OF TURNS TAKEN BY CHILD AND TEACHER IN EACH NEGOTIATIVE INTERACTION (two sessions, n=22)**

| | Number of Turns | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Session A Negotiation | Child | Teacher | Difference |
| 1 | 11 | 12 | +1 |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | +1 |
| 3 | 5 | 5 | 0 |
| 4 | 8 | 9 | +1 |
| 5 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 6 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| 7 | 1 | 2 | +1 |
| 8 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 2 | +1 |
| 10 | 3 | 4 | +1 |
| 11 | 4 | 2 | -2 |
| 12 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 13 | 1 | 3 | +2 |
| Session B Negotiation | | | |
| 14 | 5 | 5 | 0 |
| 15 | 4 | 5 | +1 |
| 16 | 4 | 5 | +1 |
| 17 | 1 | 2 | +1 |
| 18 | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| 19 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| 20 | 7 | 8 | +1 |
| 21 | 2 | 3 | +1 |
| 22 | 5 | 8 | +3 |

**Appendix 3: NUMBER OF CLOSED AND OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS USED BY CHILD AND TEACHER IN EACH NEGOTIATIVE INTERACTION (two afternoon sessions a and b, n=22)**

| | CLOSED QUESTIONS | | | OPEN QUESTIONS | | |
| | Child | Teacher | Diff. | Child | Teacher | Diff. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Session A | | | | | | |
| Negotiation | | | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 10 | +8 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 3 | 2 | 3 | +1 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 4 | 0 | 8 | +8 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 7 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 2 | 1 | -1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 10 | 2 | 1 | -1 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 11 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | 0 | 2 | +2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| Sum | 14 | 28 | +14 | 0 | 8 | +8 |
| Session B | | | | | | |
| Negotiation | | | | | | |
| 14 | 1 | 3 | +2 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 15 | 2 | 3 | +1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 | 1 | 4 | +3 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 17 | 0 | 1 | +1 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 18 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| 19 | 0 | 2 | +2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 21 | 2 | 1 | -1 | 0 | 2 | +2 |
| 22 | 2 | 5 | +3 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sum | 12 | 23 | +11 | 0 | 7 | +7 |

APPENDIX 4: DIRECTIONAL, TRANSITIVE AND NEGOTIATIVE CLASSROOM CURRICULAR EXPERIENCES OF CHILDREN (Number of periods in each curricula area; weekly mean (m), block range (r) and % change of total periods between each 5 week block, n=12).

CURRICULAR AREA>>>>>>>>>>

| | | Maths | | Reading | | Art | | Swimming | | Music | | English | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | m | r | m | r | m | r | m | r | m | r | m | r |
| CLASSROOM | Dir. | 68 | 22 | 49 | 9 | 25 | 13 | 5 | 5 | 19 | 9 | 25 | 10 |
| | Tran. | 21 | 4 | 18 | 14 | 18 | 14 | 10 | 2 | 9 | 4 | 7 | 7 |
| TYPE | Neg. | 23 | 7 | 24 | 14 | 25 | 13 | 9 | 3 | 16 | 12 | 22 | 9 |

CURRICULAR AREA>>>>>>>>>

| | | Free Choice | | Games | | Project | | Science | | Computer | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | m | r | m | r | m | r | m | r | m | r |
| CLASSROOM | Dir. | 30 | 10 | 13 | 8 | 21 | 13 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| | Tran. | 9 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| TYPE | Neg. | 11 | 10 | 15 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 11 | 8 | 5 | 5 |

What did you do today?

1. How much did you enjoy the way we worked today?

lots and lots    a lot    o.k normal    not a lot    not at all

2. How hard did you work today?

very hard    hard    normal    not hard    not at all

3. What do you think about the amount of work you did today?

not good at all    not very good    o.k    good    very good

4. What do you think about the quality of your work today?

not good at all    not good    o.k    good    very good.

APPENDIX (6):
CHILDREN'S QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDY 8 (NOTE: Codings at end of
each statement did not appear on actual questionnaire).


On a day when you _enjoy_ yourself the most [the least] in the
classroom,
would

1a.your teacher would tell you what to do? (directed
   curriculum)
1b.you and your teacher would decide together? (negotiated
   curriculum)

2a.when you were working your teacher would tell you how to do
   the work. (teacher organized activity)
2b.when you were working you would decide how to do the work
   and sometimes ask your teacher for help.(self organized
   activity)


3a.you would decide where to sit? (open setting)
3b.your teacher would tell you where to sit? (fixed setting)

4a.you would be in classroom (A). (directive classroom, fixed
   setting)
4b.you would be in classroom (B) (Negotiating classroom, open
   setting)

On a day when you [don't] do your **hardest** work in the classroom
would:

1a.your teacher would tell you what to do? (directed
   curriculum)
1b.you and your teacher would decide together? (negotiated
   curriculum)

2a.when you were working your teacher would tell you how to do
   the work. (teacher organized activity)
2b.when you were working you would decide how to do the work
   and sometimes ask your teacher for help. (self organized
   activity)

3a.you would decide where to sit? (open setting)
3b.your teacher would tell you where to sit? (fixed setting)

4a.you would be in classroom (A) (directive classroom, fixed
   setting)
4b.you would be in classroom (B) (negotiating classroom, open
   setting)

**On a day when you do the most [least] <u>amount</u> of work in the classroom would:**

1a.your teacher would tell you what to do? (directed curriculum)
1b.you and your teacher would decide together? (negotiated curriculum)

2a.when you were working your teacher would tell you how to do the work. (teacher organized activity)
2b.when you were working you would decide how to do the work and sometimes ask your teacher for help. (self organized activity)

3a.you would decide where to sit? (open setting)
3b.your teacher would tell you where to sit? (fixed setting)

4a.you would be in classroom (A) (directive Classroom, fixed setting).
4b.you would be in classroom (B) (negotiating classroom, open setting).

**On a day when you do your best [worst] <u>quality</u> work in the classroom would:**

1a.your teacher would tell you what to do? (directed curriculum)
1b.you and your teacher would decide together? (negotiated curriculum).

2a.when you were working your teacher would tell you how to do the work. (teacher organized activity)
2b.when you were working you would decide how to do the work and sometimes ask your teacher for help. (self organized activity)

3a.you would decide where to sit? (open setting)
3b.your teacher would tell you where to sit? (fixed setting)

4a.you would be in classroom (A) (directive classroom, fixed setting).
4b.you would be in classroom (B) (negotiating classroom, open setting)

for negative measure, word (don't) inserted.

## APPENDIX 7:
## List of Childrens names and intial(s);

| NAME | CODE |
|---|---|
| Shemyla | S |
| Michelle | M |
| Komal | K |
| Charlene | C |
| Natasha.B | N |
| Linda | L |
| Kelly | Ke |
| Esther | E |
| Melecia | Me |
| Jahan | J |
| Humayra | H |
| Natasha.W | Nw |
| Sima | Si |

| BOYS | |
|---|---|
| Barlas | B |
| Sandeep | Sa |
| Yakoob | Y |
| Ramzan | R |
| James | Je |
| Rickey | Ri |
| Kaleem | Ka |
| Shazad | Sh |
| Javed | Ja |
| Ashfaq | A |
| Majid | Ma |

From an original sample of 26 children, intermittent absences of two children demanded their removal from data analysis.

APPENDIX 8: ANALYSIS OF MATCH BETWEEN CHILDREN'S CHOICE
OF BEST/WORST CLASSROOMS ON THE FOUR CRITERIA,
INSITU AGAINST QUESTIONNAIRE ( n=20).

### 'BEST' CLASSROOM

| Criteria: | Number of choices | Number of matches | Number of non matches | % Fit |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Enjoyment | 40 | 5 | 15 | 25% |
| Effort | 40 | 6 | 14 | 30% |
| Amount | 40 | 5 | 15 | 25% |
| Quality | 40 | 7 | 13 | 35% |

### 'WORST' CLASSROOM

| Criteria: | Sum number of choices | Number of matches | Number of non matches | % Fit |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Enjoyment | 40 | 1 | 19 | 5% |
| Effort | 40 | 5 | 15 | 25% |
| Amount | 40 | 5 | 15 | 25% |
| Quality | 40 | 6 | 14 | 30% |

Overall fit across all four criteria never greater than 1/3
fit.

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# POSTSCRIPT ON THE METHODOLOGY OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

The major approach to the study of the classroom in this thesis has been ethnographic action research. It has not set out to say "this is how it is" in every classroom but "this is how it could be". It therefore aims to offer a range of snapshots on the classroom process.

Early in the thesis it was recognized that the very nature of the research focus, namely to apply a new model of negotiation within existing schools and collect data on this application and related issues, would demand that many different facets would need to be observed (and noted) so as to generate a sufficiently global picture. To this end it was decided that rather than depend purely on quantitative or qualitative methods, each of which has been questioned in terms of limitations on data perspective when applied singly (Delamont, 1984), techniques from both approaches would be used. Interviews, questionnaire, classroom participant observation, self-report schedules, field notes, transcriptions, statistical analyses, projection techniques, repeated-measure designs and single case-studies can be found in a variety of combinations in the thesis. These combinations were varied where it was felt the relevant techniques focused on the question under

consideration and were practicable within the restraints outlined on the teacher-researcher.

## METHODOLOGICAL CONTEXT

The teacher-as-researcher in his own classroom faces a variety of problems when an honest attempt is made to understand applied classroom concepts as they affect children's cognitive and behavioural responses. These problems range from the possible confounding of teacher effect with classroom factor manipulation, questions of generalizability of data from small samples, and the scope for control or comparison group studies.

This thesis has outlined an approach to negotiation, based on single group classrooms in the main and therefore in principle susceptible to these problems, particularly in Studies 3 and 4. This however was not wholly the case and (recognition of) the author as 'pure' researcher (as far as that is possible within one's own school) can be seen operating in Studies 1 and 2.

It is recognized that in this type of study, where teachers look at and reflect on their own practices within their own school without financial support or University department facilities for research and development, one can not hope to reach the rigours demanded by classical research paradigms. Therefore the teacher-researcher is always open to criticism on questions of procedural rigour, and 'validity' of

findings.

However the multi-methodological approach used and maintained throughout this thesis has worked toward offering a variety of perspectives of the classroom processes studied to counter such criticisms and limitations.

Research must fit not only within the resources but within the first priority of the living school, the education of children. This limits the extent, the nature and the practicability of comparison groups. Against this, it was at least possible to avoid conclusions based on one-off measures and incorporate repeated measures over time as an index of data stability, while involvement of teachers other than the researcher in four out of the eight Studies also helped the validity question. Detailed discussion of these points and their implications for the validity of the data follow.

## SPECIFIC ISSUES

### TEACHER-METHOD CONFOUNDING AND THE PROBLEM OF VALIDITY

The concept of validity must be seen within the frame that the user places it. Generally it is used in a quantitative paradigm to refer to the extent to which a test measures what the applier of the test says it is measuring. The problem for educational research is that while this definition is workable if you are using a mathematics test to measure say addition abilities in

the classroom, if you are using a technique such as the rating scales in Study Eight that deal with psychological concepts and processes it is not as clear cut.

A kind of validation for this approach occurs when the reader or teacher agrees with the observations and is given an element of insight into his own perspectives of experience. A second form of validation occurs when the teacher-researcher sets up a hypothesis and procedures (which embody the potential confounding of the approach) and then finds that they are clearly overturned by the findings which make more sense than those made within the confines of the original hypothesis forming situation. This form of counter-hypothesis validation occurs in the present study 8. If in addition the research is not only consistent with but provides complementary evidence for existing well regarded studies then this provides an external convergent validation for the data at hand. The relationship between the present findings and the various studies of Galton (1987a), Farquhar et al (1987), Desforges and Cockburn (1987) is in fact of this kind.

A range of research supports the position that the teacher is a powerful influence on the actions and cognitive framework of the child, as classically exemplified in the Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) 'Pygmalion' study. It could be argued that the main 'teacher effect' in studies which require extended and painstaking commitment from the researcher needs to be the

enthusiasm of the involved teacher in ensuring that the research contrasts are properly maintained. Nevertheless, having the same teacher design the research, then initiate and participate in its classroom application, therefore introduces the possibility of confounding teacher effect with data outcome. For example, the teacher-researcher in Study Eight was aware of this possibility and attempted to control any cues given out to the children indicative of his own feelings of preference. The classroom condition in which he had 'personal investment' actually came very low in preference ratings. This supports the view that the children were responding to their own preference orientations and not the teacher's. Secondly the very range of the data suggests in its diversity that children were making self-oriented choices. Thirdly, by having the same teacher common to all classroom climates and actively maintaining commonality of cues, any residual teacher effect would be a constant across classroom environments.

Finally, a teacher-researcher working within an ethnographic context can decide to tackle the validity question head on. This was done in the present Study 8 where the study adopted two measuring instruments that could be set against each other in order to test the validity of the rating scales. These were the questionnaires and subsequent individual interviews. This approach indicated as outlined in the main text the

validity mis-match between the rating scales and the interview data and the subsequent problems of validity for the questionnaire.

The thesis was also concerned with construct validity and set out to generate from the data, concepts such as the backmarker and frontrunner distinction (Study 2) so that any subsequent researcher could take these concepts and "theorems" and test-(reconfirm) their validity in his own working context.

As already suggested, when part of the research outcome throws a different light on pre-existing studies with whose main findings that research is consistent, then a degree of congruent validity is provided for the less expected findings. Thus, the present research suggests that the child's motivational orientation, individuality and prior classroom history, all interact with elements of activities, with the teacher and with the passage of time. There indications all have a secure base in a variety of literature such as Delamont's (1984) 'Readings on Interaction in the Classroom', Pope (1987), Grolnick and Ryan (1987), Bandura (1989) and Oxley and Topping (1990). Accordingly, when findings emerge which expand on published material they carry with them a common 'base' validity.

## TRIANGULATION

The emphasis in the thesis on the uniqueness of the construct frame of the individual and of the classroom situation would have been supported further by using a triangulation technique for data collection (Day et al 1987). This technique recognizes the individuality of perceptual standpoints and collates separate perceptions of the same experience, typically those of teacher, researcher and child. By gathering information from each unique epistemological position, a composite picture is constructed of the common experience. In addition the teacher's introspections on aims, goal and role, the child on the teacher's influence on his behaviour and the researchers view of both can also be examined.

The methodology rests on principles with which the present researcher is in complete accord vis-a-vis negotiating classroom processes:

i) That a single perspective on the classroom is not necessarily a correct one.

ii) That interpretation of classroom events and processes must be negotiated and agreed among the teacher, child and researcher.

iii) That children need to be given a more active role in classroom analysis than previously allowed.

iv) That a series of observations over time is needed to support any move toward generalizations of data.

It may, also, be recalled that much of the data was 'bi-angulated', as in the teacher-child, child-teacher perspective contingency tables as in Study 8.

## WIDER SUPPORTING DATA

This thesis claims that the children moved within the negotiating classroom toward an increasing ownership of the negotiative perspective in their development. Some of the wider supporting evidence outside the context of the study proper may also be of interest here:

1) Other teachers who for a variety of reasons were working at some point within the negotiating classroom, usually as special needs support, often commented on the involvement of the children in their tasks and the responsibility that they assumed, compared to the case of other teachers working with these same children in other classrooms.

2) One particular teacher and other supply staff who covered the class when the researcher was on courses commented on the way children took on the responsibility of explaining how 'their' classroom worked and then 'got on with it'. This information was of particular interest for comparison with sessions when the researcher was present and did not indicate any differences in terms of reported curricular diversity, or quantity.

3) Subsequent class teachers who 'inherited' the children when they moved on, commented on the distinct differences between those from the negotiating classroom and those not, in terms of active involvement both in putting forward ideas for classroom activities and actualizing them.

4) The log kept throughout the four years by the researcher shows frequent comments on his feelings of 'redundancy'. Often the children were so involved in their own organization of activities that he was not approached for considerable periods of time.

Although the foregoing observations are anecdotal, they do suggest that children were actively involved within the classroom methodology being applied.

A NOTE ON SELECTION OF TRANSCRIPTS

Only exemplary transcripts of the children's negotiative period with the teacher were included in Study 6. Those included highlight some of the major processes and strategies that the researcher identified as dominant during these sessions. What would have been of particular help would have been transcripts from different periods of the development of the children's experiences of the negotiating classroom.

A second point is that by concentrating exclusively on the opening transactional data of the negotiative period much of the richness of the eventual transactions between teacher-child and child-child during on going activities was missed. For similar purposes, it would also have been useful to have transcripts for the final feedback meetings. One example was an incident of misbehaviour where the children wished to and did discuss the sanctions that should be applied and used as a class rule from that point on. In fact, the feedback session was used as a general social forum, related to classroom issues rather than being a simple activity feedback session.

## THE CHANGING PERSPECTIVE OF CHILDREN TOWARD THEIR TEACHER DURING NEGOTIATION

During the negotiation period children interacted with the teacher in differing ways. The position is held that this interaction both on the part of the individual child and the teacher is developmental in character. From which ever perspective the actors start this negotiative relationship, both bring to bear their own history, and their knowledge and strategies as formed in prior classroom interactions with others. From this beginning a changing dynamic perspective of the other develops over time.

It would have been valuable to have these kinds of data for the present series of studies. However, a variety of

literature supports the view that such development will occur. The role of not just the teacher but the physical 'props' of the classroom, the type of activity provision and the nature of communicational and informational processes are all likely to be involved (Hamilton, 1984).

As noted in Chapter 8 and 9 this relationship is unique to different children and support for this view is indicated by observations of the Worrall, Worrall and Meldrum (1988) study that subgroups of 9-11 year olds develop different types of perspective interaction with their teachers. Girls and high achievers were noted to develop quite different types of reciprocal teacher-child perspective from low achieving boys and low achieving girls.

It would have been useful to have carried out a repeated measures approach across a year of the negotiating classroom to tap into this expected changing child-teacher perspective. One such technique could have been similar to Galton's (1987b) use of cartoon pictures focusing on the teacher in different roles and perspectives.

## POSTSCRIPT ON NEGOTIATION: CHANGING PERSPECTIVE

It has been noted that the experience of working in the negotiating classroom and the subsequent analysis of study data led to a conceptual shift by the researcher. The researcher has been led to widen his conceptualization of

'negotiation' to a more phenomenological position which starts from the individual child's 'view' and his or her actualization of the term in classroom behaviour.

The history of these changes is as follows:

i) It became clear that some children saw and demanded a definition of negotiation as including the right to request teacher direction in the negotiating period. They were thus not accepting the researcher's definition that negotiation meant all children negotiated their curricular experiences but that the teacher could be asked to direct.

ii) The final classroom run on negotiated principles, 1988-1989, began not with the children entering a prescribed environment arranged in the summer vacation by the researcher but with an empty room. Children were asked to take immediate responsibility for 'our' room by listing resources required, its possible organization and subsequent resources required during following days. This process gave ownership to the children and handed immediacy to their responsibility. It also acted immediately to question their role expectations as developed from other classroom and school experiences.

iii) As noted earlier, the children also developed an increasing role in bringing classroom discipline and rules discussion into the negotiating and feedback sessions. This process became increasingly present as time went on.

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