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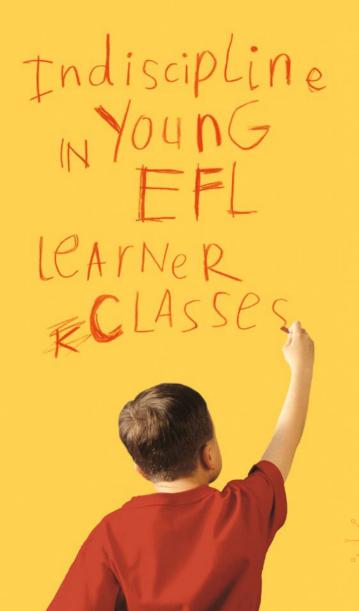
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Dedicated to my husband,
George

Acknowledgments

I am indebted to many individuals who during my personal and professional life have helped me to follow my dreams.

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Contents

List of Abbreviations and Transcript Conventions

List of Abbreviations

ABA	Applied Behavior Analysis
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CS	Case study
EFL	English as a foreign language
EFLL	English as a foreign language learner
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
ESP	English for specific purposes
FL	Foreign language
ICT	Information and communication technology
L1	Mother tongue
L2	Second language
SE	Special Education
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TEFLYL	Teaching English as a foreign language to young learners
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
YEFLL	Young English as a foreign language learner (usually as part of a larger phrase)

List of Transcript Conventions

.	Falling intonation
,	Rising intonation (showing continuing contour)
?	Questioning
!	Exclaiming emphasis
<u>Bold</u>	Strong emphasis
:	Sound stretching
…	Pause (maximum 3 seconds)
+	Extended pause (more than 3 seconds)
[ ]	Overlap
m:::	Encouragement to continue
(*italics*)	Notes
(xxx)	Indecipherable utterances
X	Protected anonymity
(˷ word)	Unclear word that approximates the item given
" "	Others' utterances quoted by speaker
–	Interrupted utterance

1

Introduction: The Globalized TEFL Boom

1.1   Introduction

Before developing the actual subject matter of the book, that is the young EFL learning (YEFLL) indiscipline in educational contexts, it would be constructive to see whether it is truly worthwhile to show genuine, systematic interest (especially, in research) in educational problems connected with teaching EFL (TEFL), such as the central one of this book, by briefly mapping the global stance adopted for English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning, particularly in a young-learner context. Therefore, this book seeks to establish an evidence-based approach to the issue of the misbehavior of young EFL learners by first providing data in support of the international demand to raise instruction and learning standards in the TEFL sector and, consequently, to face the particular educational complication promptly and effectively.

More generally, the data here are going to reconfirm the importance of the English language for the development of countries worldwide and for one's self-improvement within this flourishing universal context. During an exploratory journey through this book, the readers and the author will

share common background knowledge with respect to the urgent need to regard TEFL as a significant, autonomous subject throughout the world, to consider important teaching and learning issues gravely and seriously, to examine these issues in detail and, on the basis of findings and conclusions, to target surmounting obstacles and improving the teaching and learning contexts.

Reference to EFL learning with children in individual countries across the globe is supplemented in section three with details about existing indiscipline problems in the learning environments of primary school-age children. So ultimately the book will document not only the focal issue worldwide but also provide international frameworks in which the educational problem can be studied and alleviated.

1.2   The Internationalization of EFL

An extensive bibliographic study illustrated the common understanding of English as a universal language medium. Besides the claim that it is spoken widely as a native language, that is, the third most common mother tongue (L1) after Chinese and Spanish according to Lewis et al. (2015c), statistical figures at the start of the twenty-first century prove that a constantly increasing quarter of the world's population speaks English effortlessly or proficiently (Crystal 2003). In Crystal's writings, English is recorded as the foreign language (FL) taught most extensively in more than 100 countries, in most of which it is also becoming the main FL in educational establishments like schools. Furthermore, TEFL knowledge and experience indicate that the positive stance of a large number of countries to English can influence educational decision making and practice targeted to the acquisition of the language in other territories.

Generally speaking, Crystal ascribed the international status of a language to the development of an exceptional role of that language acknowledged by all countries. Regarding English, he attributed its status to the spread of the British colonial power and the prestige of the United States of America (USA) as the principal twentieth-century power in economy. Following the development of his thinking and his extensive background knowledge, we see him capturing the added weight of

English, in particular, as a lingua franca by placing the focus on the social, cultural, educational, political, and economic value of the language universally, and on the role it plays as the L1 of a vast number of individuals (e.g., in the USA, the United Kingdom, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, and Australia), as an official language or second language (L2) such as in Hong Kong, Nigeria, Ghana, India and Singapore, and as the preferable FL in the European Union and at the United Nations.

At the yawn of the last decade of the twentieth century, Kachru (1992) also acknowledged the universality of English and put it down to a number of similar factors such as the large number of English speakers who had a different mother tongue, and the variety of sectors in which it was used (e.g., commerce, banking, tourism, technology, and scientific research). To these sectors, Crystal added communication, education, international relations, and travel, and Dahbi (2004) added aviation, petroleum engineering, and diplomacy. Fishman (1992) mentioned popular media, technical publications, and teenage slang too, and underlined the importance of English by referring to the positive role that non-native speakers of it, rather than the English L1 world, play in its expansion. Last, but not least, Brown (1991) identified the emphasis on English as a world language and the resulting sociopolitical issues (e.g., language policy and international varieties of English) as one of the major topics of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), and not surprisingly called the increase of English language use "staggering" (p. 250).

Since then, a large number of authors have been providing supportive data to the preceding claims to the extent that, despite the existence of opposing critiques (e.g., see Pennycook 2007), the notion of English as a global language has become a highly unquestionable fact around the world. As a result, governments sharing the belief that English is a powerful tool for the growth of their countries and the improvement of the standards of their citizens' lives have been proceeding with adaptations of their educational systems and, in particular, of their EFL learning policies and practices, to current worldwide demands. It is astonishing that this has been taking place even in countries where EFL does not emphasize or enrich, but is perceived to threaten, its learners' cultures or the local curricula, as is the case in Islamic countries (Fredricks 2007).

A study of local political, economic, and social developments around the world in relation to the globalization of English is obviously beyond the scope of this book. Nevertheless, mention can be made that is indicative of examples of countries that have responded to the need for what can be called the "TEFL boom." This can further substantiate the existent need for teaching and learning English in creative, well-managed environments, and for studying relevant issues intensely and in reliable ways so that problems can be alleviated, instruction is improved and the aims of a population's language development and the relevant dependent country's advancement can be achieved.

Because of the TEFL-centered topic of this book, attention focuses on what Kachru (1992) has called "the outer and expanding/extending circle" (p. 356), where English is not granted official status but is recognized as a universal language and is prioritized as a foreign one. For this reason, no mention will be made to "inner-circle" territories, where the dominance of English is a status because of the mother-tongue feature attached to it (e.g., the USA, Britain, Canada, and Australia), or to "the outer-circle countries" that have experienced lengthy colonization periods, and where English is spoken as a second official language (e.g., Botswana, Cameroon, Gambia, India, Malta, Namibia, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, and the city of Hong Kong). Readers interested in these two sectors can study other sources such as Abdulaziz (1991), Adika (2012), Brown (1991), Crystal (2003), Kachru (1992), and Nunan (2003).

1.2.1   Asia

Starting from the Asian countries, it is worth pointing out Crystal's precise claims that all over South Asia English is adopted as "the medium of international communication" and that in the community of young South Asians it is understood to be "the language of cultural modernity" (2003, p. 49). Regarding the Asia Pacific region in particular, Nunan's (2003) qualitative research on the influence of English as an international language on Asian schools' educational policies and practices provided a detailed picture of the innovations implemented as a result of the domineering power of it. Nunan's multiple case study involved the collection

and analysis of 68 guided interviews and of a variety of documents. The researcher identified a common interest in these countries in the reinforcement of TEFL in state education, and the rising importance of proficiency in English for employment, occupational promotion, and university studies.

China, for a start, exemplifies the case of a country that has experienced the influence of an English-dominant culture. Since the 1980s the country's economic advancement has attracted foreign financial activities, technological influences, joint ventures, tourists from overseas, and profit-making imports. This has led largely to a multiplying number of chances to show one's English proficiency (Cortazzi and Jin 1996; Hu 2005a, b) by using it for social and vocational purposes (Nunan 2003). Moreover, China participated in the World Trade Organization and was awarded the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing, both of which heavily influenced the course of development and governmental decision making, and led to an increased demand for EFL learning. Soon, large investments were launched for private English language institutes, and the teaching of EFL in secondary schools was encouraged more.

In the early 1990s, elementary school EFL education was introduced too (Hu 2002), with the starting age for learning the language lowered from 11 to 9 in 2001 (Nunan 2003), and started spreading swiftly in the socioeconomically developed areas (Hu 2005a, b). University studies with bilingual tuition (in Chinese and English) started being offered from foreign universities in China (Nunan 2003). Last, but not least, according to Nunan, in September 2001 the Chinese Ministry of Education introduced content-based instruction in English at the tertiary level for certain subjects (e.g., finance, foreign trade, law, and economics).

Moving eastward to Korea, English proficiency has been regarded as such a strong cause of concern in education, government, and business (Nunan 2003) that at tertiary level and in the employment sector, the language has become a requirement. Thus one can understand the reason why some instruction has been provided in both content and language in English at the university level. At the same time, large sums of money have been spent by families for their children's EFL private tuition, and compulsory English instruction was lowered from age 13 to 9; as of 2001, the school policy of teaching English using English was adopted.

Korea's eastern neighbor, Japan, is an additional example of a large investor in school learners' development of EFL skills. According to the 2002 policy statement of the Japanese government (JGPECSST 2002), a series of policies were launched in education, culture, sports, science, and technology emphasizing the significance attached to school EFL learning. More specifically, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has made efforts to realize the aim of improving "an individually targeted teaching approach" through a policy that designates upper secondary schools as "Super English Language High Schools" (SELHi).

Besides doing practical research and cooperating effectively with universities and sister schools overseas, the Ministry entrusted these schools with the responsibility for developing a curriculum focusing on English education and teaching certain subjects in English. Furthermore, it developed a strategic plan to cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities" because, as stated, within the context of globalization in the economic and social sectors and of the use of English as a shared universal language, they considered it necessary for their children's future and the future of the Japanese nation to help the young become skillful at communicating in English. For these reasons, the Ministry forwarded an action plan with the aim of helping English teachers become more qualified, utilizing English native speakers, encouraging overseas study, upgrading foreign language education, multiplying the number of SELHi, and offering English-speaking activities in primary state schools.

With regard to elementary school education, statistics in this country indicate that in 2004 the offering of English programs took place in more than 90 % of the 22,481 schools (Nakamura 2005). Besides this, parental pressure on their young to make an early start in using English became almost a craze with, for example, daily home conversations in the language, enrollment of children in international elementary schools, purchase of English study materials for preschoolers, and parents' participation in English-speaking activities with their toddlers. As a consequence, the market in EFL education for children was expanded and thrived, with a rise in the number of English conversation schools for young learners, new branches of English schools, and the introduction of English classes in nursery schools.

English is a common foreign language in Taiwan as well. According to interview data from Nunan's research (2003), this country was influenced heavily by the status of English as an international language because of its aspiration to become one of the important economic players around the globe. One of the key initiatives taken by the Taiwanese Ministry of Education was the recruitment of qualified native English-speaking teachers to teach English in primary schools in the third grade, with the objectives of filling relevant teaching positions, of improving the learners' abilities and skills in EFL (with a special focus on communicative skills), and of enhancing teaching methods and materials (MERCT 2015b).

Besides this, in 2006 the Ministry established the Overseas Chinese English Teaching Volunteer Service Program in collaboration with the Overseas Compatriot Affairs Commission. Its objective was to advance English education, to decrease the urban–rural disproportion in English learning, and to help improve learners' proficiency in the language in line with international standards. Under this program, in 2009, 300 young overseas Taiwanese with exceptional accomplishments were employed, trained, and appointed to 45 schools in 17 counties to teach 2250 students during a summer English camp (MERCT 2015a). Additionally, the Ministry implemented the integration of Chinese, English, information technology, and social studies in primary and junior high school curricula within the framework of the "Nine Year Program" and lowered the school age for compulsory EFL learning from Grade 5 to Grade 1 (Nunan 2003).

Despite being a country with limited finances, Vietnam also has promoted proficiency in English as a requirement for succeeding in studying and in employment (Nunan 2003). The language is compulsory at primary and junior high schools and at the universities. It is first introduced at primary Grade 6 (ages 11–12); the Ministry has been thinking about lowering this age because some private schools introduce it as early as age five or six. There are also a large number of English language schools offering private tuition.

As one travels on westwards in the South Asia-Pacific territory, one reaches Thailand, where the most popular foreign language is again English because it is recognized as a tool for information, news, knowledge, and communication and is believed to be seminal for the

increase of the country's competency. So, in preparation for the year 2015 when Southeast Asia was to become one economic zone with one global language for its business and communication, the Thai government launched the voluntary 2012 English Speaking Year project, part of which was the program to help Thai learners from pre-primary to university age across the country to improve their speaking skills in English through educational tools such as TV, radio, and the Internet (Hodal 2012).

Within the framework of the reforming policies of the Thai Minister of Education in the sector of the teaching and learning of the English language at a basic educational level, the Ministry also focused on the ability to use the language for communication and education (MET 2014b). As a result, the Office of the Private Education Commission (OPEC) undertook the role of supervising language institutes to ensure quality teaching and learning. Also, the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) presented strategies for teaching and learning English from 2013 to 2018 through teacher training, curriculum development, management development, development of media and innovation, organization of various learning activities, achievement evaluation, and research (MET 2013). The Ministry also decided to give Super Premium Scholarships to graduates of a Bachelor of Science program to support their studies for a master's degree. These scholarships, however, were to be provided to upper secondary students of schools where English was a medium of instruction (MET 2011).

The Ministry launched various useful educational cooperative projects with the United Kingdom (UK) too. An example of these is the Thailand English Teaching Program, which helped students learn from native English speakers (MET 2015). As a result, student participants from the UK arrived in Thailand as teacher assistants at educational institutes despite an insufficiency in the required teaching skills. A second example is the Thailand-British Council project on the development of English language skills for teachers and students in vocational education, and on the training of vocational teachers to teach English courses (MET 2014a).

In the private sector, the speaking competency of Thai EFL learners is developed through courses offered by private institutes (e.g., the British Council) (British Council 2010) and by volunteer organizations such

as the "Friends for Asia" (2015). The British Council claims to employ a variety of child-friendly, engaging, fun activities to teach children the language and to help them develop confidence while practicing English and cooperating with their classmates in a safe, supportive environment. The Friends for Asia's aim is to connect volunteer EFL teachers with Thai learners who otherwise would not have the opportunity to practice speaking English. Instruction may take place at regular schools, children's homes, orphanages, and Buddhist temples.

In the former Asian Soviet Republics, such as Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan, English has replaced Russian as the FL of choice, as a status symbol and as a communication means in the business and commerce sectors. In the diverse multilingual nation of Tajikistan, English language learning was started and promoted so quickly that there is a great demand for native English-speaking teachers. One can comprehend the power of EFL learning in this territory for sustainable economic growth by taking into consideration two factors. On the one hand, there is the upgraded, prestigious ranking and promotion of the English language. On the other hand, there is the claim of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation that their goals conform to the recognized need of the Russian people for a high-quality education, and the need of the economy for a first-rate workforce, for blended educational and scientific/technical studies, useful attainments, scientific improvements, and ingenious activities (MESRF 2015).

A key endeavor that resulted from the preceding perceptions was the so-called "Textbook Project" made possible through a collaboration between the Russian Ministry of Education and the local British Council (British Council 2015). Following an analysis of local EFL teaching and learning needs, the project concentrated on the compilation of contemporary EFL materials, tailor-made to the Russian context, by Russian school teachers trained in text writing within the project framework. The textbooks were focused on Grades 2 to 11, and claimed to foster communicative competence and to be issue- and task-based, effective, and motivating. This project is believed to have influenced EFL teaching and learning across Russia too; an example of this being the original project in the North Caucasus on the theme of tolerance through languages.

Concerning western and southeastern Asia, attention is drawn to the Arab countries. The literature about language learning there reported a reality that can be perceived as controversial. More specifically, in these countries it was decided that Arabic would be used as an official language (Dahbi 2004)—for example, in Lebanon, the United Arab Emirates, Syria, Saudi-Arabia, Jordan, Kuwait, and Bahrain (Wikipedia 2015c). This is largely, according to Dahbi, because of its association with Islam (i.e., it is the language of the holy book of the *Qur'an* and the language of praying) and the compelling cultural motivation of individuals to become informed about Arabs and Muslims. Despite this reality, and despite the fact that Arabic is claimed by Dahbi to be learned by an increasing number of children, he gives prominence to English characteristically as "the language of globalization" (p. 628). Especially since the terroristic events of September 2001 in the USA, Dahbi claimed its power appears to be more noticeable through, for instance, the public declarations of American officials against terrorism and the detailed reports in English on TV about the wars in Afghanistan, Iraq, and Palestine.

Consequently, there has been an intense interest in English language learning. Kachru's (1992, p. 355) work helps one understand the controversial reality experienced in the most fundamentalist, anti-Western governments and/or anti-English movements (e.g., Libya, but also Iran and some Asian and African countries). On the one hand, there is an intense dislike for the West and/or the English language, while on the other governments consider it beneficial to use English for presenting views at an international level; even anti-English parents ensure that their children become proficient users of it so that they are armed with this dynamic qualification.

Indicatively, Lebanon, a historically multilingual society because of European colonization and the actions of missionaries (Nabhani et al. 2011), is an example of a Middle East country that favors FL learning as a competency that can increase access to jobs locally and internationally (Bahous et al. 2011). As a result of the country's independence in 1943 and of the influence of globalization on it, the use of English was introduced in the social, economic, and educational sectors (e.g., see Kobeissy 1999). The 1994 National Curriculum made it imperative that, besides French, English be adopted by schools as a first FL and medium of instruction or as a second FL (Shaaban and Ghaith 1999).

More specifically, the situation recorded by Shaaban in 1997 was that either of these two foreign languages were to be taught at the nursery level in private education and in the second year of kindergarten in schools supported by the state; the weekly instruction hours were to be eight in the primary, six in the intermediate, and four in the secondary schools. English also has been claimed to be in the leading position in higher education, business, science, and technology (Aki 2007). According to ministerial data (Zakharia 2015), 21.6 % out of all the 2788 Lebanese schools adopted English as the medium of instruction; this rate was recognized as rising rapidly. It is characteristic that most of the participants in Bahous et al.'s qualitative case study of 2011 perceived the learning of English through other school subjects as vital for supporting the acquisition of this FL and in the long run for helping learners build towards a successful international career.

In another case of a Middle East country, the United Arabian Emirates (UAE), English language learning has been eagerly accepted as a result of the promotion of the policy of linguistic dualism, whereby English is connected with business, modernity, and internationalism, and Arabic with religion, tradition, and localism (Findlow 2006). The Minister of Higher Education and Scientific Research openly supported the importance of English for the communication with divergent societies, and defended the right of students on Arabic and Islamic Studies courses to take English courses and exams on English by claiming the status of the language as a requirement for entry to all federal university courses (Salem 2012).

Within the framework of adopting this language as universal, the UAE proceeded to found the English-medium establishments called "Higher Colleges of Technology" (Clarke 2007). This system includes a number of colleges in various UAE cities; it provides Emirati women with a four-year education in the field of TEFL in primary school and aims at forwarding learner-centered pedagogies and the learning of English within the UAE. The scheme is developed and evaluated locally, thus supporting and promoting the value of the local culture through EFL instruction while simultaneously making constructive use of field knowledge. Young children have also been introduced to English from quite an early age through private schooling (e.g., from age six at the British Council in the

UAE; British Council 2016); obviously with the long-term goal of supporting them in their current fierce effort to achieve the English scores required for the start of a degree (Salem 2012).

Last, but not least, in Jordan, where a high-quality educational system has been designed to develop its population's knowledge and skills to make them valuable for its economy, the teaching of English starts in Grade 1, based on the latest policy reform plan for 1998–2002, and comprises one of the basic school subjects taught in secondary education. In addition, it is a subject for which programs on educational television are provided (Jordan 2015a, b; Wikipedia 2015a).

1.2.2   Africa

Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia, Libya, and Algeria also have experienced the controversial reality found in the Arab countries of the Middle East. In Libya, the population perceives English as the most distinguished FL for commerce and finance, and a very large number of young citizens prefer to study at British universities (Lewis et al. 2015b). Additionally, Morocco has seen developments in the trends of its citizens' FL learning preferences during the last decades. Although French continues to be used extensively as one of the main means of communication and as the preferred medium of instruction at certain schools and universities, it has failed to maintain its position as a preferable FL. This is acknowledged to be because of, on the one hand, Arabization, which has given prominence to Arabic, and on the other hand the headway English has made and the consequent influence it has exerted on Moroccans (Kyriacou and Benmansour 2002), a large number of whom accept English as the dominant international language of high esteem (Ennaji 2002).

As a result of this influence, English is seen as the gateway to success in science, technology, and employment, the language has penetrated the Moroccan educational system, scientific research, and the social and economic strands of life, and the number of English language learning institutions has increased (Ennaji 2002; Kyriacou and Benmansour 2002). In the formal educational system, in particular, the Ministry of Education placed emphasis on introducing EFL at Grade 5 (previously taught only

in Grades 10, 11, and 12) and on providing quality training to an adequate number of EFL teachers (Dahbi 2004).

Djibouti can be a supplementary example of an African country that attaches remarkable importance to the international status of English and to its teaching as a FL. This is so partly because the country wishes to prepare its population for economic growth not only within its difficult multilingual, cultural, and social context, but also within the environment of other competing, bordering African countries that usually speak English, the establishment of a USA military base, and its membership in world organizations (Dudzik et al. 2007). Consequently, a number of changes have taken place. For instance, English language learning has been introduced earlier (from Grade 6). Subsequent to an investigation of educational quality and the implementation of a competencies-based curriculum reform in all school subjects of compulsory education, the country also piloted an English curriculum, with the aim to improve the quality of TEFL and of EFL teachers and to decrease dropout rates. Realistic and meaningful communication tasks, problem solving, and projects that make sense were introduced in EFL learning practice together with the teaching of language forms and functions.

1.2.3   Latin America

Latin America has perceived the significance of English in various sectors (e.g., education, technology, and information flow) through innovations that forward-looking governments tried to introduce and implement with the aim to participate in the international economic game (Usma 2009). To illustrate this, one can refer to Colombia, where English is taught as a FL—except in San Andrés, Providencia, and the Santa Catalina islands, where it has official status (Lewis et al. 2015a). Concerning FL teaching and learning, the National Education Law of 1994 promoted the urgency for Colombians to learn other languages and introduced FL learning as a mandatory primary school subject (Usma 2009). Although the plan did not succeed in practice because of reasons that Usma presented in a very convincing and well-grounded discussion, nevertheless it can be characterized as extensive and as indicative of the role English can play in Colombia's economic developmental process.

More specifically, the National Bilingual Program introduced the sense "bilingualism" at the place of FL teaching and learning, with English and Spanish in the center of the meaning of the term, appointed the British Council as developers, implementers, and controllers of the plan, and updated teaching and learning according to international standards. This was done, for instance, by adopting the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, by employing international standardized tests on communicative competence, by legalizing globally approved language approaches, methods, and practices, and by giving the green light to private organizations to become active providers of education. As Usma (2009) concluded, in Colombia English language proficiency will be an advantage, while monolingualism will be largely a shortcoming to those who are not privileged socially and/or financially.

According to recorded experiences with the Cuban English language teaching (ELT), a sudden and quick spread of English language learning has been witnessed since nearly the 1990s as a governmental response to the urgent need to establish a nationwide FL acquisition plan to prepare those serving tourism as a source of national income (Martin 2007). As a result of this, the English language is currently taught, within an English for specific purposes (ESP) framework, in the country's schools of tourism. Besides the tourist sector, ESP is claimed to be seminal for business and aviation, as well as for the medical sector as a means of accessing relevant publications in English and of accomplishing medical missions in countries of the developing world, where English is the global language.

In terms of general English, Martin reported that the overwhelming majority of all the students across the Cuban educational system learn English, starting in Grade 4. Additionally, he noted that within Cuba's universalization policy (i.e., aiming to make education available to people of all ages and conditions), and within the country's municipalization policy (i.e., planning to offer courses tailor-made to the needs of the members of local communities), the Cubans are provided, respectively, with televised courses (one of them on learning English at various proficiency levels) and with local English learning programs.

A third example of a Latin American country in which English is held in high esteem is Argentina. There, English is the FL used most extensively (Tocalli-Beller 2007), while a number of innovations also have

been introduced in TEFL within the extensive educational reform of 1993 (Zappa-Hollman 2007); this was done to harmonize Argentinian education with global developments and current educational needs. Indicative examples of these changes are, according to Zappa-Hollman, the introduction of English in Grade 4 and the innovative EFL curriculum, which forwarded the idea of English as a seminal global communication medium and as an instrument that can help Argentinians gain access to many divergent cultures and markets.

Latin American countries have largely benefited from collaborations they have pursued with knowledgeable and experienced TEFL professionals. A key example is the variety of partnerships launched with local British Councils, aiming to improve the level of English language teaching and learning at schools and to make it more effective (British Council 2015). For instance, in Ecuador the government asked for the Council's help to reform and develop the EFL curriculum, Colombia received support and guidance in reviewing and reforming the state school ELT policy and practices, and Tucumán, Argentina, sought help with teacher training and the use of technologies in primary EFL education. Last, but not least, Brazilian ELT professionals developed themselves by obtaining information about various local ELT projects and/or events and by joining a local community run by the British Council to connect with colleagues.

1.2.4   Europe

Europe has been described as the most enthusiastic and advanced continent in language learning, with a huge number of learners achieving a high level of language proficiency and a wide variety of second languages employed socially (Modiano 2009). Within the European Union (EU), the accepted situation, and one of the basic ideas the Union was built on, has been multilingualism, which is defined as one's communicative competence in a considerable number of various languages, the coexistence of distinct language communities in one area, and an organization's practice of functioning in more than one language (European Commission 2014). As a result, not only has the language of each member

state been acknowledged as official, but the EU also stimulates its members to become multilingual so that in the long run they can speak at least two languages besides their L1 (European Commission 2012).

Among several initiatives that comprise the required preparation for the achievement of a pluri-linguistic context was the encouragement of the teaching and learning of languages at all levels of education (in adult education too), the establishment of a common framework for the compilation of language learning syllabi, curricula, guidelines, examinations, and materials across Europe, the definition of common reference language levels, the foundation of a European Center for Modern Languages in Graz, Austria to support the actual practice of language teaching and learning, research projects, and teacher training, and last, but not least, the development and implementation of a two-year action plan to encourage universities to promote multilingualism (Räisänen and Fortanet-Gómez 2008). Regarding the age an individual can start learning languages, according to a European language policy document (Commission of the European Communities 2003), priority should be given to successful language learning in kindergarten and primary school because it is at these ages that attitudes towards other languages and cultures are shaped, and the basis of language learning is constructed.

Nevertheless, English has been claimed to be the first and most fluent FL out of the five most extensively spoken foreign languages in the EU, and at a national level the most broadly spoken FL in 19 member states where it is not an official language or mother tongue (European Commission 2012). Also, it is taught and learned mostly as a FL in European schools and universities, tertiary level programs in English are more probable to entice prospective students into higher education studies than other languages, and TEFL at the university level has grown into a specialization to satisfy the particular needs of EFL learners (Räisänen and Fortanet-Gómez 2008). Additionally, according to Nikolov and Djigunovic (2006), many European countries are said to provide all children with chances to learn English from an early age, while the Council of Europe recommends the learning of one more foreign language in addition to English.

Regarding language learning pedagogy, a close study of national European curricula brings to light the priority given to multiculturalism

and to language learning for international purposes (Modiano 2009). The actual pedagogy adopted, however, is stated to be the promotion of a traditional role for EFL teachers as models and as agents of primarily British English; this is said to be in addition to promoting a specific Anglo-American culture to such an extent that Europe itself can be seen as encouraging the recognition of English as a world language and its support of other languages within the EU, either as powerful (e.g., German and French) or less frequently adopted (Modiano 2009).

Indicative of the encouragement of EFL learning in the EU can also be the professional assistance provided to local Ministries of Education by the British Council (2015) in the form of partnerships such as projects reorganizing school EFL teaching and learning in order to support, for instance, the introduction of bilingual education (Spain), EFL teacher training in the use of the Internet (Hungary), and teacher trainers in the teaching of heterogeneous classes and classes of young learners (Czech Republic).

Eastern Europe seems to be following the FL-learning path of the EU. For instance, in the Ukraine, Ukrainian and Russian have started losing ground to English as a result of the political and economic status of the latter, even though in this country the choice of a language as the nation's main means of communication is closely related to the shaping of their national identity. Despite the fact that, according to Goodman and Lyulkun (2010), Ukrainians see all three languages as significant for school education and recruitment, nevertheless they have been showing an inclination to learning Ukrainian for school education purposes and English for international business, travel, and employment; obviously, this is because it can increase the earning power of Ukrainians and of their children. Besides the need for skillful users of English, other major reasons for the increased importance of this FL in the Ukraine have been claimed to be the necessity for emigration to the USA, the government's aspirations for the country to enter international partnerships, the goal of becoming a member of the EU, and a harmonization with the European and the worldwide community (Smotrova 2009).

Consequently, English classes are offered at schools at the expense of the Ukrainian language (Friedman 2006, in Goodman and Lyulkun 2010), the language is being introduced as a medium of instruction in

some local universities (Goodman 2009), a more positive personality is recognized in English-speaking individuals (Bilaniuk 2003), and there appears to be a rising trend towards mixing English with Ukrainian in speech. In education, the Ministry has made an organized effort to bring TEFL in the country in line with European standards, so it launched FL instruction from Grade 2, provided teachers with new syllabi for Grades 2 to 12, and forwarded the introduction of the communicative approach. Moreover, the Ministry took advantage of the potential of independent bodies for the reinforcement of TEFL (Smotrova 2009)—for example, Peace Corps volunteers, who served as English teachers, and the British Council, that launched cooperative projects. Such projects include in-service teacher training and the compilation of textbooks and teaching materials (Smotrova 2009), as well as the assessment of English learning outcomes in Ukrainian schools (British Council 2015).

Besides Ukraine, other European countries have sought and received professional support and guidance from the British Council in the form of cooperative projects. Although the project foci differed, nevertheless all partnerships aimed at improving the level of EFL learning provided in each country. Indicatively, one could mention in-service EFL teacher training (as in Turkey), training of teachers of young EFL learners (as in Latvia), and training of EFL writers and the compilation of EFL text-books (as in Russia).

A closer study of the EFL learning situation, specifically in the Republic of Latvia, has shown that, besides the introduction of English at the elementary education level and the serious efforts made by the Ministry of Education and Science to ensure EFL teachers were updated with the latest ideas for teaching children (British Council 2015), a lot of programs are offered in English at university level, which makes it possible for citizens of other countries to study at the tertiary level in this country.

With regard to Georgia, in the Caucasus region of Eurasia, Brooke (2012) and Gusharashvili (2014) reported a fundamental change in the country's school FL policy—namely, the freedom given to schools from 2005 onwards to select the foreign languages they would teach (Gusharashvili 2014), as well as the compulsory character designated from 2010 to English as the compulsory first FL for all students and the degradation of Russian to a second FL of free choice (starting with Grade

7) after almost two centuries of Moscow rule (Brooke 2012; Gusharashvili 2014). Gusharasvili attributed the increase in the proficiency of English to globalization, which in his view demands a common language for people around the world to communicate with each other; because this language appears to be English, he believed its knowledge has become very useful. In addition, the writer argues that a higher proficiency level in English will influence the country's economic advancement positively.

Brooke reported that Georgian parents insist on the teaching of English right from the first grade of primary school, whereas students are said to be very enthusiastic and to have decided to learn English even on their own if any undesirable language policy were to take place. The use of the social media by Georgian youngsters seems to have revealed the truth about other students around the globe, who were found to "know perfect English." Additionally, the English culture (e.g., American dances and songs) has influenced their lives because the young listen to more English songs than do followers of Russian pop music.

Changes in the TEFL sector also are being experienced in the Balkans as a result of political changes—that is, the transition from communism to democracy (Anastasakis 2013), EU membership or potential membership, and the acceptance of the international power of English. Their turn to the West (consequently, to English) has brought about strong parental demands for EFL instruction at schools, and a swiftly increasing clearcut need for educational reforms and English teachers, especially in those countries that have already become members of the EU.

In Croatia, for instance, parents protested in 2003 because due to the compulsory introduction of a FL in Grade 1, their children were placed in German classes instead of English ones (Nikolov and Djigunovic 2006). In addition, the request for qualified FL teachers (and more specifically EFL educators) has had as a result the close study of international tendencies and changes in FL teacher education, and the application of these to their own education more briskly than to the education of teachers in other school subjects (Djigunović and Vilke 2000). In this country, as in other Balkan countries, the Bologna reform was intended to provide similar standards and quality in European higher education, and contributed to this direction through the reorganization

of the implemented curricula and the consequent increase of the time devoted to the development of teacher expertise (Djigunović 2008).

In Bulgaria, where the educational school system moved from compulsory Russian to compulsory English, the Ministry of Education entered a cooperation project with the British Council to implement a four-year scheme for the training of new state school EFL teachers (British Council 2015). During this project, trainers were developed in order to educate prospective EFL teachers, continuous professional development courses for these trainers were organized, and three ELT resource centers were created. Subsequent to these, a set of laws recognized these trainers officially, and key positions were offered to them.

In Romania, a new EFL curriculum for compulsory education (Grades 1 to 9) was compiled as a result of the more general 2001 Education Reform Project (Mihai 2003). This reform reflected the governmental response to globalization, and particularly to the need of the country to react to the demands of universal competition and to support its fast assimilation into world trade and economy. The wish of Romania to harmonize itself specifically with the EU and more generally Western Europe in political, economic and cultural terms can be seen in the fact that the new EFL curriculum was partially based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. So, EFL teaching and learning was no longer incorporated into the wider category of modern languages, as was the case in the past. Therefore, it was no longer based on the goals, curriculum, syllabi, and methods pertinent to all modern languages of the school curriculum, but comprised a separate school subject with its own set of teaching and learning tools, aiming substantially at the development of communicative competence, of cultural representations, and of a motivation for the study of Anglo-Saxon culture.

Like in Bulgaria, the British Council cooperated with the Romanian Ministry of Education to support and guide the EFL learning reform. So, projects were carried out on the design of new school EFL textbooks, the in-service distance training of EFL teachers, the improvement of the teaching and learning of English for specific purposes in higher education, the combination of citizenship education and ELT, and the enhancement of the English language skills of groups in key areas (British Council 2015).

Greece is the European Balkan country in which EFL has enjoyed a high status for decades. Here, English is considered an international vehicle for global communication, a status determined by the leading role of the use of the language in the international spectrum of key human activities such as politics, diplomacy, economy, trade, education, entertainment, and communication. Its prominence in the country has been reinforced by the privilege of the country to enjoy full EU membership (in the former European Economic Community) in 1984, and in Prodromou's very concise statement by "…the increased integration (of the country) with Western industry and commerce, in addition to the increasingly sophisticated Greek tourist industry" (1990, p. 33). Within this context, English has become the dominant FL learned by the majority of Greek people from as early an age as possible.

Acknowledging the social needs in Greece and the importance of English, the Greek Ministry of Education, Research and Religion advanced this FL to the position of a mandatory school subject in full-time compulsory state education. So in the primary sector, EFL learning was introduced to Grades 4, 5, and 6 in 1994; that was 20 years after the incorporation of the language into the secondary school curricula (Eurydice 2005a). The European tendency for earlier FL learning (Eurydice 2005a) and the increased teacher and parental demand for such an early start (Saltou 2009) resulted in the introduction of this school subject in 2003–2004 to Grade 3 too (Eurydice 2005b) and to Grades 1 and 2 of certain All-Day Schools in 2010. As a consequence of the previous reforms, a huge increase of 49.3 % had been brought about between 2002–2003 and 2005–2006 in the number of primary school children learning English as their first FL—the 44.3 % of these ages was raised to 93.6 % (Eurydice 2005a, 2008). Research data also showed that in many cases children come into first contact with the target language even in the nursery (Saltou 2009).

In the Cross-Thematic Unified Curriculum Framework for compulsory school education (Official Gazette 2003), the main objective of the teaching of modern FLs (therefore, of EFL too) was set as the development of language skills that will enable learners to communicate in various linguistic and cultural contexts effectively. The notions of polyglossy and multiculturalism were forwarded too as basic guiding principles for

the development of cognitive and social learner skills. Additionally, the view of language as a tool for the acquisition and management of knowledge from a variety of subject areas and topics was enhanced (Koziori 2007). In the realm of TEFL, it also has been specified that learning in the language lesson should be participatory, and that through this lesson the learners' socialization and the acquisition of life attitudes and behaviors should be achieved (Official Gazette 2003).

Nevertheless, past and present inadequacies of the Greek state educational system of EFL learning have turned a very large number of dissatisfied learners to private FL institutes (i.e., "frontistiria"), which besides their efforts to offer a higher quality of learning, can also satisfy primarily (if not solely) the extensive paper chase for FL certificates to which the state FL learning system still has failed to respond. A last count of these institutes showed that more than 7100 frontistiria exist, from which almost 2030 were found in Athens and Piraeus only (Saltou 2009). Moreover, nearly 160,000 candidates participate annually in English language exams in Greece, while according to Saltou, the Greek children have been proved to be the youngest learners in Europe who take exams for the purpose of obtaining a language certificate.

Greek parents have played a large role in the support of the thriving private market by giving in to their fears about their children's future unemployment. Their wish, which has been satisfied by many frontistiria, always has been that an early start in their children's EFL learning will raise the possibility for obtaining by the end of their compulsory school education (i.e., year three of high school) the certificates that will make them more eligible to successfully claim a postition in the Greek employment market.

Still, the flourishing of this market contravenes provisions of the Constitution of Greece (2001) about the right of the Greeks for free education (Article 16.4) and about the basic mission of the state to educate its citizens (Article 16.2). In response to parental and EFL teacher complaints about the situation, the Ministry has been making efforts to reinforce the public character of EFL school education and improve its quality—for example, with discussions about the educational problems, regular teacher training seminars, encouragement of the mobility

of school advisors for the teaching of FLs, and compilation of a new EFL course book series.

The design and compilation of e-materials for the teaching of EFL for Grades 1 and 2 has been the most recent development in the realm of EFL teaching in the public sector. The "English for Young Learners' Project", financed by Greece and the EU, was achieved by a team comprised of scholars, of the University of Athens and the University of Thessaloniki staff members, of research associates, of ELT school advisors, of highly qualified Greek EFL teachers, and of language teaching experts from Greece and abroad. Following the development of FL education in Greece, the project focused on the design of the curriculum, the development of the syllabi, and the compilation of the required teaching and learning materials. It also aimed to provide instruction to trainers and teachers for implementation purposes, as well as to monitor and evaluate the various aspects of the EFL program. (For more details, please see PEAP 2014.)

1.3   Summary and Looking Forward

In this chapter, readers have been presented with a succinct, brief report on the international developments with respect to the recognition of English as the preferable primary FL code to be acquired and the consequent innovations introduced in the related educational areas, with particular emphasis on the primary school context. They thus should be able to perceive the logical prospect current tendencies and practices indicate.

The English language seems well established in the world as a medium that can help individuals and countries shape and realize a successful future. This intense global interest in the language, and in particular in its early instruction, has created the need to safeguard good quality in EFL tuition and learning. In addition to promoting an early start in learning, authoring suitable EFL materials and training EFL teachers, good quality means encouraging specialists to develop a keen eye for classroom processes, to concentrate on constituent educational parameters, and to identify obstacles and complications, scrutinize them, and take initiatives towards effectively surmounting them.

One of the impediments that interferes with the smooth progress of an EFL lesson and the achievement of the aims established, has long been the learners' undisciplined behavior in their classroom environments that, as acknowledged by Wadden and McGovern (1991) "has plagued the classroom teacher." Good quality in TEFL also means making the utmost effort to prevent and/or overcome this barrier. It is therefore the goal of this book to contribute to the increase of high-quality early EFL learning by exploring the issue of learners' lack of discipline (i.e., indiscipline) and documenting and analyzing it within those contexts that are considered seminal worldwide for the development of individuals—namely, within primary school EFL education. By looking closely at the level of indiscipline types, causes and management practices, EFL educators, teacher trainers, EFL policymakers, academics and researchers can be motivated—through a better understanding of this educational difficulty—to support the improvement of the conditions of early EFL tuition around the globe and the consequent effective acquisition of this lingua franca.

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2

Child Education, Discipline, and EFL Learning

2.1   Introduction

The theme of child education has always been a concern of vital importance for humanity throughout the centuries. Especially so is the shaping of child behavior and personality, which have seriously preoccupied a variety of studies, cultural systems of behavior, views and practices, and decision making (e.g., philosophy, religion, politics, and science). As a result, the history of education is characterized by a multitude of influential mental constructs and diachronic values that determine educational goals and practical pedagogy. So, educational systems subscribing to, for example, particular scientific theories, political beliefs, and/or religious faiths may well be influenced by these value structures, objectives, and methods. Thus, in particular with regard to misbehavior, Porter's claim (2006) that "[v]alues pertaining to education and discipline comprise one of the components of teachers' disciplinary practices" (p. 11) proved to be well-founded and valid, and gained central relevance not only to teacher resolutions but also to the purposes of this book.

It is an experienced reality that the identification of negative learner behavior, explanations about misconduct, and disciplinary mechanisms

normally are based on a body of personal wisdom and guiding ideas resting with seminal systems addressing human matters like the aforementioned ones. In addition, lack of discipline (i.e., indiscipline) in learning environments frequently mirrors the absence of or simply the nonadherence to principles that a certain society favors, and that thus the teacher's management of child misbehavior will often have to address for the cultivation of moral standards. As a point of departure, therefore, readers will be provided with a bird's-eye view of a concrete, but not exhaustive, set of sources that have shaped child upbringing and schooling significantly in various cultural contexts. The sources selected are related to education, within the wider field of which this book falls.

Readers will notice an emphasis on those of Greek origin because the bulk of the book's content is based on research data from that country. This priority is believed to contribute to a better understanding of those contexts and of similar ones in which young English as a foreign language (EFL) learner (YEFLL) indiscipline may appear and need be managed. Nevertheless, the more extensive international scope of the book has led to a consideration of sources initially located in various geographical areas too in response to the varied interests of the readership and to this author's wish to depict the mind of a citizen of the world, independent of nationalities and/or citizenships.

2.2   Perceptual Constructs in Child Education and Behavior

Within the construct of educational and teaching philosophy, the bibliography abounds in ideals and in understandings of the what, why, and how of human behaviors expressed throughout the history of humankind. Because of the large number of points of origin and the main, restricted theme here, a selection had to be made by giving the floor to only some of the dominant deep thinkers.

Starting with Ancient Greece, a great number of philosophers dealt with the issue of education and behavior profoundly and passed their wisdom on to future generations, helping them thus truly understand the importance of considering and working persistently on the devel-

opment of child behavior. The Greek historian, biographer, and essayist Plutarch is claimed to be a characteristic representative of "Paedeia" (i.e., "Παιδεία"/Education) of his time; this is why, although other seminal Ancient Greek philosophers left their own mark of wisdom on Ancient Greek works about child upbringing, his writings were selected to focus on in this section.

In his work entitled "Moralia" ("Ηθικά"; Kritikou 1975), he attached great importance to human education, to the acquisition of virtue, and to becoming "good and virtuous citizens" ("καλοί κἀγαθοί πολίτες"). Only education, Plutarch stated, is an immortal acquisition. In his Moralia essay "About Child Education" three main parameters were emphasized as absolutely necessary general goals in child upbringing—namely, a child's good physical situation ("φύσις"), proper teaching and learning ("λόγος"), and training in virtue ("ἔθος"). As is obvious, Plutarch linked child education not only with biological and physical specifications, but also with the educational processes of passing on knowledge to children (i.e., teaching), and with helping them acquire knowledge and skills (i.e., training and learning). Indirectly, he also associated goal achievement with the quality of the educators themselves, as it is common knowledge and experience that children need the guidance of an older, educated, skillful person for teaching, training, and learning purposes.

Within the framework of the general or world philosophy of realism, the acquisition of virtue through education also was supported by Aristotle (Hummel 1993). More precisely, Aristotle divided virtue into the two categories of intellectual and moral, and supported the necessity for humans to develop both to become happy. He also claimed that education is responsible for bringing about the conditions required for forming and establishing the virtuous and, consequently, for promoting the creation and long-term existence of the social unit to which humans belong by nature and within which they can be happy (i.e., of "πόλις", /polis/, "community"). As seen by Aristotle, the teacher symbolizes the systematic leader for learners' acquisition of good behavior through repetition and reason.

A Greek education theorist who also left his imprint on education is Socrates (Cordasco 1970). Socrates's legacy to humankind has been the emphasis on the human's obligation to know one's self, the value and vir-

tue of knowledge, and the importance of conversation for the acquisition of objective knowledge; this is in addition to reflection and classification of experience for reaching subjective knowledge. Socrates suggested the development of powerful thought as the main aim of education.

The cultivation of virtue in children through their careful nurture in education also was supported by John Locke, a leading philosopher of British empiricism (Mastin 2008), who defined virtue as self-denial and rationality, and who strongly believed that education can make humans. As Locke characteristically stated: "I think I may say that of all the men we meet with, nine parts of ten are what they are, good or evil, useful or not, by their education" (Grant and Tarcov 1996). Locke was a supporter of the active seeking of knowledge and of acquiring (or being taught how to develop) the habit of thinking rationally, and he approached the opinion individuals receive from others with consideration.

Inspired by the Greeks, humanistic educational principles appeared during the period of the Renaissance when Erasmus emerged as a key thinker in the realm of education. As a consequence of the influence he acknowledged from classical literature, Erasmus posed the shaping of the good human as the basic goal of education, and he stressed the role of personal individual differences in successful learning and in aptitudes among children.

Rousseau, an enlightener, anti-comformist, and supporter of collectivism set the basis of contemporary pedagogy, was a representative of the individualistic ideal of education, and purported that the art of education lies in enabling children to perceive their limits without reminders from an authority. His pedagogic views promoted a kind of child education away from punishments and ethical sayings, based rather on the instructors' love, on the learners' trial-and-error and experiential learning (not rote learning) and thus on gradually reaching knowledge by themselves, on the development of child reasoning, critical thinking and an autonomous personality, and on learning how to learn (University of Athens 2016).

Besides philosophy, another powerful determinant of child education has been religion, which profoundly shapes adult expectations and practice regarding child development, as well as teacher and learner behavior. The metaphysical or religious ideal of education thus is characterized mainly by humans' relation to an absolute being that is independent from

experience. Considering Christianity, in which this ideal is claimed to be particularly manifest (University of Athens 2016), one indicatively could refer to Orthodoxy, which stresses true, selfless, impartial (but sometimes also austere) love as the capital and source of the correct mode of life and as the one and only driving force that can transform one's behavior and ethos (PG, Theofylaktos the Bulgarian). Love and its associated constructs succinctly express the core of both the educational instrument and the educational goals for child development and cultivation and for model behavior. Representatives of the Orthodox Christian religion set the shaping of child behavior and of the behavior of the young as the center of their attention and, consequently, continuously offered parents and educators guidelines for fostering child development effectively. John Chrysostom is considered the leading Christian educator and founder of counseling and "guide-ship" (Kolerda 2014; Svolopoulou 2008).

This educator's work thoroughly addresses the virtues children should master willingly under the guidance and support of parents and educators. The objective should be the recognition, understanding and treatment of negative behaviors and human weaknesses, and the reinforcement of positive behaviors that can turn naturally free and virtuous human beings into determining agents of their own acts, capable of retaining the proper order by disciplining themselves. A Saint, theologist Hierarch, Father of the Orthodox Christian Church and pioneer in child education, St Chrysostom approached the pedagogy of young learners as an educational love process well-grounded on solid anthropological and pedagogical knowledge (Yorda 1999).

St Chrysostom regarded this pedagogy as extremely serious, but arduous and tough, work with high scientific demands, and as the most major art, in light of his understanding that there is no equal to regulating the young soul and nurturing and shaping the young mind (PG, John Chrysostom). Its general goal, he believed, is molding children's minds and educating their souls (Yorda 1999). As Yorda pointed out, the objectives Chrysostom set are the exercise of virtue and the purge of indolence, harmful wishes, and intense bonding with materials. St Chrysostom proposed a long, methodical, systematic procedure in which experiential learning by the children comprises a central section and educators create the model. After parents, he considered educators the absolutely essen-

tial transmitter for child education, bearing the responsibility for child development.

In his educational model, St Chrysostom put forward proaction, prevention, and differentiated pedagogy as effective methods for catering to individual needs and abilities. Besides these, he claimed that child progress requires a framework regulated by norms consistently applied by children and educators alike. Children should be well aware of these norms, but when they violate them, their educators should make the violation clear to them. Some of the advantages of punitive management styles are acknowledged, but to a limited extent, so that children do not get used to these learning modes. He also emphasized the importance of advice to children and of its contribution to their development on the condition that they feel free and that their freedom is respected. Last, but not least, St Chrysostom stressed the need for the early development of self-awareness and of effective strategies in young learners.

In other religious and cultural frameworks, it is the Chinese philosophy of Confucianism, Taoism, and Legalism (Hue 2007) that exerts particular influence on model teacher and learner behavior, as well as on teachers' responses to classroom indiscipline. Specifically, key principles of these philosophies constitute the background on which educational and cultural goals and teacher strategies of managing student misbehavior are based. According to the doctrines of Confucianism, individuals should grow to be moral, eliminate their egocentricity and show concern for the interests of the others, display proper behavior socially, be empathetic and develop harmonious relationships, and be fair and sincere. In light of these, in unruly classroom contexts, teachers (e.g., in Hong Kong) are eager to understand how their learners feel, care for their distinctive needs, and treat them in ways that encourage each one's potential and guide them to self-change. In addition, they are interested in encouraging misbehaving students to learn to be polite, to respect others, and to behave appropriately in all social contexts.

Taoism places an emphasis on the importance of an individual's spontaneity and on the gentleness human beings should exhibit to others. This can lead Chinese teachers to tolerate their learners as well as encourage and help develop learners' natural potentials, and in the case of indis-

cipline to act proactively by helping students reach their full capability and satisfy their desires. Furthermore, teachers can be guided to hold a relative view of teacher and learner roles in the classroom and, consequently, to avoid teacher authority and domination and learner subordination and conformity, to refrain from strict measures to indiscipline, and instead to be tender. Taoism's principle that things can be changed by doing nothing helps educators retain a balance in their feelings in the face of negative learner behavior.

Last, but not least, in classic Chinese philosophy comes Legalism, which underlines the establishment of control and order by the leader through laws, control methods, rewards, punishments, and behavior manipulation. As a result of this doctrine, the management of anarchic situations at restless and tense times is based on unquestionable teacher expectations, limits, and consequences, on the employment of commands, orders, rewards, and punishments, and on the maintenance of teacher authority and leadership in classes.

An additional religion or philosophy that can affect the approach of the issue of child discipline and indiscipline, especially within the large population that supports it, is Buddhism. According to Rahula (1974), Buddhism recognizes no permanent, eternal "self" or "ego" and places human beings at a high level, at which they are their own controllers, consequently, attributing to them the powers needed for self-development. Therefore, it sees them as responsible for their acts, feelings, and thoughts. Besides the inner potential for taking ownership of problems and for self-improvement, Buddhism believes that human beings must search for the truth by investing their freedom of thought that this philosophy also acknowledges and by learning to see clearly, to know, to understand, and to develop confidence out of conviction. The ultimate goal is to reach security, euphoria, and calmness. What is required to achieve the targets set are, according to Buddhism, the investment of personal effort and intelligence, an emphasis on the practical and fundamental instead of the imaginary, an individual's fight against doubt, ignorance, or false opinion, the eradication of any kind of force, labeling, and prejudices, an acknowledgement of tolerance and respect for the different (e.g., for other religions), and an awareness of the spirit of understanding.

From the preceding main Buddhist doctrines, one can deduce the huge importance that discipline acquires within that particular framework of thought and practice as a process and later a state of principled responsibility and self-control, combined with solid efforts during one's struggle for personal growth. Also, human beings are expected to take ownership of their negative acts and of all the demands of physical and mental activities in order to see the truth beyond the surface, to learn, to improve themselves, and to reach peace and happiness.

In connection with Asian countries, where the previous three philosophical, religious systems have been developed, the traditional values that generally comprise a major concern for child education were depicted by delegates of Southeastern Asian countries in group work sessions of seminars on moral education during a 15-year period (Murray 1991). From the long list of values rendered, one routinely can mention love, equity, justice, truth, freedom, modesty, tolerance, self-esteem, self-reliance and self-discipline, responsibility and perseverance, compassion, cooperation and public spirit, peaceful conflict resolution, and respect for authority. In the related countries, such standards have been seen to shape the development of moral education programs and, more generally, the goals of education.

In the Islamic context, the Muslim religion and Arab-Islamic ethical conventions also influence educational values and processes (Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997). In Islam, children are treated as the valuable presents of Allah and the center of interest in families (Kahn 2012). Therefore, a good education becomes the focal point of parental provisions. Child education must be targeted at instilling in children at least respect, love, gratitude, mercy, tolerance, equality, obedience, truthfulness, kindness and feelings of justice as values and practices they should enjoy but also exhibit to others. Furthermore, in Islamic education, child upbringing still entails the cultural norm of placing importance on the group over the individual (Kahn 2012; Wikipedia 2015b).

In respect to psychological phenomena (e.g., indiscipline), these are understood to stem from, according to the *Qur'an*, the self, that comprises an individual, independent, spiritual entity (Kahn 2012). Personality and behavior are believed to be comprised of a number of selves that act for or against the sake of the individual. These are claimed to be the

self-reproaching self, the self that has a tendency towards evil no matter what, the pious self, the calm self, the appreciative and appreciated selves, and the perfect self. In the case of doing something bad (e.g., being undisciplined), the individual should mobilize the pious self and recall religious values, activate the remorseful self and feel apologetic, try to control the lower self and restrict evil intentions, and prompt the peaceful self to become happy and fulfilled. Thus, self-discipline and self-control will be achieved.

The process to this end is believed to involve teaching children good manners and habits, and training them in the skills of careful listening, reading, observation, self-reflection, and social interaction. Also, because in Islam children are believed to learn from examples, the positive behavior of teachers and parents becomes very important for their overall development, especially for becoming disciplined. An additional influential parameter is stated to be the environment, that defines which of the child's potentials will be reinforced. In the case of misbehavior, adults are expected to first explain what went wrong and to ensure that the child understands. When the indiscipline is repeated, however, then they are to penalize the child.

Last, but not least, the construction of behavior and, more generally, the education of children also may be determined, or at least affected, by the principles and purposes of international organizations the countries may have joined. Such organizations exhibit political thinking and action, in the sense of forming, expressing, supporting, and forwarding views about how the society should function and settle and/or avoid conflicts. An example organization is the United Nations (UN), currently joined by 193 member states, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). For instance, as a member, Jordan (and other countries sharing its context) ought to support and forward, through its educational system, the complete development of human personality and respect for human rights and for freedom (Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997).

In specific, from the Charters of the organizations it has joined, it is understood that the teaching and learning processes in the Jordanian educational system should sensitize and activate learners in current issues such as peace and security, sustainable development, human rights,

terrorism, gender equality, and more. This is in addition to enabling dialogue within the classroom, as this is promoted and experienced within the cooperative, negotiating mechanisms of the organizations. Besides this, its population should become conscious of and acknowledge the value of international understanding and peace based on justice and right. According to educational and life experiences, working issues like the preceding have the potential, in the long run, to shape child behavior towards oneself and towards others.

2.3   Discipline and Indiscipline as Key Themes

A particular central issue of educational concern has been that of disciplined and undisciplined learner behavior. The importance of the former has been raised not only because of constructs such as the ones mentioned in the previous section, but also because of its positive affect on learning. The latter also has been given a prominent position in the educators' and, more specifically, in the English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' agenda because of its educationally problematic nature (Ackerman 2006; Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000; Gibbs and Gardiner 2008; Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002; Wadden and McGovern 1991), of its reported frequent occurrence (it occurs "with alarming frequency" according to Anderson and Spaulding 2007, p. 27), and last, but not least, of its negative affects on learning and the classroom context (Merrett and Wheldall 1993). Especially in relation to management, student indiscipline is considered by teachers (and to a lesser extent by learners; Lewis 2001) a consistent challenge in all school subjects (Bergin and Bergin 1999; Maxwell 1987; Türnüklü and Galton 2001; Wadden and McGovern 1991) and a constant major problem working against child socialization and effective teaching and learning (Bergin and Bergin 1999; Lewis 1999).

Bibliographic data about the problem in geographically different teaching EFL (TEFL) contexts, although extremely rare in comparison with data on indiscipline in other subjects, can prove the existence of this problem and its demanding and complicated nature. For instance, to mention some indicative cases only, in the Indian TEFL context, disci-

pline is considered one of the paramount issues in heterogeneous classes that requires prompt consideration and an active response (Reddy 2013). Equally serious in this regard is Hong Kong, where young school learners are said to also engage in misconduct while doing EFL tasks (Carless 2002). In Greece, the problem is confirmed too through the description and/or analysis of Greek TEFL contexts, which additionally reflect the concern of English teachers about it; unfortunately, though, the evidence is too weak to construct the whole picture successfully.

More specifically, to the best of this author's knowledge, the only writer found who devoted one entire piece of work to learner misbehavior in Greek secondary school TEFL education is Ball (1973). Ball's meticulous description of misconduct conveys indirectly the general perception of it as behavior that destroys the smooth development of teaching and learning and harms teachers psychologically. Besides Ball, other Greek writers have expressed the significance of a disciplined EFL class indirectly by making scant occasional references to aspects of indiscipline. Such references include the reported concerns of Antonakaki (2008) and Zafeiriadou (2009) about the noise factor, respectively, during EFL games and during EFL project lessons with young learners, and Zafeiriadou's reported thoughts about the need for Greek EFL teachers to make the permissible behavior known to pupils during projects. In their rather superficial approach to the issue, however, these writers do not specify the way(s) in which noise becomes problematic during activities like the preceding, in which a certain degree of buzz and commotion is unavoidable.

This inadequacy is alleviated to a certain extent by Kuloheri's (2010) thorough investigation on young learner misconduct during EFL learning. The research contained a qualitative multi-case study that took place in four primary school EFL classes (treated as "the cases"). The four cases were equally distributed in two Greek cities, Athens and Volos, and in school Grades 4 and 5. The investigation stretched over five months and involved a total of 89 participants of Greek nationality. The main participants were four English teachers and 76 young EFL learners. Data also were collected from the four Greek teachers of the specific classes, three out of the four school principals, and two out of the four Special Education teachers—that is, those in charge of the instruction of learners

of the respective cases who had been officially recognized as having learning difficulties.

The research approach adopted (namely, the qualitative multi-case study) offered the researcher the space to apply a multitude of data-collection methods and thus to examine the problem through many lenses. Specifically, the main data source was deep interviewing, at an individual level with adults and at group level with the children. The supplementary methods and instruments were observation, a survey, teacher portfolios, physical artifacts (i.e., child drawings), brainstorming on video-watching materials, and the researcher's self-evaluative recorded analytical acts.

The focus of the study was two main and two subsidiary lines of inquiry. At the fundamental level, the researcher became occupied with the reasons why Greek children learning English would exhibit misconduct and with the portrayal and evaluation of the management approaches or techniques their English teachers would employ. At a backup level, Kuloheri's target was the rendering of a meticulous picture of the matter from the viewpoint of the children, their English teachers, the head teachers, the Special Education teachers, and her own experience in her role as an observer. After the data were collected, content analysis was carried out and interpretations were made.

The outcome of the research revealed a large amount of trustworthy data that are going to be presented later in this book. In light of the issues selected, the data collected and the conclusions drawn, this piece of the study can be considered ground-breaking and enlightening. It appears to be the first organized, systematic, deep research undertaken into factors linked with indiscipline in primary school EFL classes and the first of the sort in a particular country (Greece). Before this study, although educational research had been carried out on the issue of learner indiscipline in primary and secondary school grades in a variety of school subjects and in a number of countries, efforts to locate specific studies on child indiscipline during EFL lessons bore no fruits. Therefore, at the time of the study it can be claimed that relevant research was clearly nonexistent.

Second, the research involved both participant sides of the teaching–learning process: teachers and children. By doing this, and especially by capturing young EFL learners' own ideas about classroom indiscipline in their role as participants in classroom life (either as the recipients of bad

behavior, or as the undisciplined, or as both), it succeeded in breaking the dominance of mainly adult understandings found in the relevant literature. In this way, it threw more light onto the indiscipline problem and relevant issues, promoted more effective classroom management in divergent young EFL language (YEFLL) contexts, and advanced research into the TEFL sector. This study has been recognized as a major contribution to educational research and especially to the science of TEFL.

Nevertheless, Kuloheri's multi-case study comprises just a small section of the studies on demand, if TEFL specialists wish to address the problem promptly and successfully, and does not claim the formation of generalizations or theories from its data. It can amount to a solid basis for petite generalizations applicable in Greece and in TEFL contexts—in the same or in different locations—similar to those investigated. Additionally, within the context of the research scarcity in the field, it has paved the way for similar investigations in more primary school EFL contexts and in secondary ones in Greece and globally, on a large variety of themes it posed that are in line with YEFLL indiscipline. Investigations of this kind can lead, subsequently, to comparisons of data, to the enrichment, confirmation and/or modification of findings, and thus to the advancement of educational research and TEFL classroom practice.

2.3.1 Definitions

The particular educational and social issues of discipline and indiscipline have become the object of mental processing, the same as all the word items in the vocabulary system of various languages, and human perceptions have been attached to them. While studying the literature on discipline, one becomes aware of the fact that discipline and indiscipline do have international dimensions as educational topics, so an investigation into as many language systems as possible should contribute to pinning down shared and/or differentiated understandings among peoples. As evident in the following, the study of the term "discipline" in various languages revealed the subjectivity of human experience, which guides word formation and choice, and the convergent and/or divergent nature of human perceptions across the globe.

An overview of discipline-related concepts in languages can start with the lexical items and definitions found in dictionaries. A study of *discipline* in English reveals the Anglo-Saxon (*discipul*) and Latin (*discipulus*) roots of the word (The Cambridge Dictionary of English 1980) and its basic semantic elements—namely, those of systematic training in rule obedience, of training in and of the development and control of mental, moral, and physical faculties, and of punishing someone for something they have done (Oxford Dictionaries 2015; The Cambridge Dictionary of English 1980). In addition, the word also may denote the process through which one can be made more willing to obey or control oneself, as well as the actual controlled behavior shown (Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary and Thesaurus 2015).

In its extended use, the word *discipline* designates recognition of and respect to someone stronger and more powerful, and the allowance provided to this person to have power over another one—that is, conditions that are believed to lead to correct behavior and self-control (The Cambridge Dictionary of English 1980). In Spanish, the feminine noun "disciplina" (WordReference.com 2015; SpanishDict 2015) refers generally to the maintenance and guarding of discipline. In Italian "disciplina" includes the notions of strictness, constraint, and discipline (WordReference.com 2015) and those of regulating a situation and applying rules (Reverso 2015).

As one moves towards the Middle East, dictionaries may be said to demonstrate an emphasis on the inherent notion of control and of the result of regulation. For example, the Arabs employ "انضِباط" (i.e., meaning "discipline, order/control" (Arabic-English Dictionary 2016; Systranet 2015), and the Turks use "disiplin" as in "disiplin cezasi" (i.e., meaning "disciplinary punishment") (Turkish-English Tureng Dictionary 2016). Russians have the word "дисциплина" (i.e., "discipline") as in "В этой школе дисциплина вообще отсутствует." (i.e., "There's absolutely no discipline in this school.") and in "Первое—дисциплина, второе—уважение к начальству" (i.e., "One, discipline; two, respect for authority.") (Reverso 2015). But Asian language dictionaries, such as those in the following paragraph, contain the multitude of meanings English does.

In particular, the notions of the process of learning the skills to do something (i.e., of training), of control, of the effort to prevent someone

from unpleasant acts (and indirectly of the wished result of self-control), of punishment, and of controlled, disciplined behavior are also reflected in traditional Chinese words such as 训练 (i.e., to train, drill, condition), 自律 (i.e., self-discipline, self-regulation, self-control), 惩戒 (i.e., to discipline, reprimand), and 惩 (i.e., punish, warn) (Chinese-English Dictionary 2015; YellowBridge 2016). Similarly, the Japanese employ nouns such as "しつけ" (i.e., discipline, training, teaching manners) and "きんしん" (i.e., self-restraint, moderating one's behavior) (jisho 2016. The Koreans use the verb "훈육" (i.e., to discipline a child) and the noun "징계" (i.e., punishment) (WordReference.com 2015).

From the preceding short endeavor to describe "discipline" in various languages, it seems to be the case that the action of behavior control and the result of behavior regulation have acquired a central position in human thought. Besides this, the employment of the negative consequence of punishments and, generally, the austere manner in which control also may be sought seem to be prioritized in human minds as a basic means of achieving the desired results. Last, but not least, to a lesser extent the actual training process towards discipline also is regarded as a decisive element of the term, thus reflecting the recognized necessity for human guidance, effort, and development. So, the conclusion could be drawn that, despite the variety of philosophical and religious inspiration sources, there must be a prevailing common ideological basis for discipline in human minds around the world, making the graphically different forms in various linguistic systems converge semantically and attaching a universality to the word. Nevertheless, subtle diversities in the inherent underlying concepts among human beings of the lexical item may account for the divergent priorities in enacted plans experienced in daily life.

Of special interest for the portrayal of a worldwide understandings of *discipline* and *indiscipline* appears to be the relevant term in Modern Greek, where besides semantic similarities with the meanings presented previously, one can note striking differences and important concepts that may explain individual, probably culturally specific responses to indiscipline matters. In this language, the word "discipline" ("πειθαρχία") is compound and has its origins in Ancient Greek. It stems from the verb "obey" ("πείθομαι") and the noun "authority" ("αρχή") and denotes one's

submission to someone in a higher position, to an authority (Babiniotis 2009). As such, the Greek word signifies one's willingness to not prevent someone else in authority from having power over himself or herself, thus being in merely absolute agreement with the meaning attached to the extended use of *discipline* in English.

Consequently, in Greek the word can be said to lay emphasis on what the dominated, controlled, and governed does, not on what the controller and governor wishes to achieve. In light of this, it could be said to approximate the meaning of one of the equivalent Chinese words because of the notions entailed in the willingness and autonomy of the controlled individual. Nevertheless, it appears to be in sharp contrast with, for instance, its Arabic, Turkish, Russian, Korean, and Japanese equivalents, that seem to reflect mainly a priority to the act of the authority.

An interesting dimension of the Greek word for "discipline" is also that it may well imply the situation in which one is persuaded to accept, preach, and practice a set of principles. This is because in Modern Greek its constituents "πείθομαι" (verb) and "αρχή" (noun) can mean, respectively, "be persuaded" and "principle." So, although etymologically this derivation cannot be encouraged, because of the Ancient Greek origins of the word, the Modern Greek language may be claimed to provide support for thinking about discipline as the situation in which individuals behave positively—that is, according to social standards on the basis of the good reasons they have thought about and autonomously accepted as correct. These determining circumstances can lead to a more permanent, substantial, and lasting situation of self-discipline, in comparison with the discipline imposed by others. This interpretation of discipline in Modern Greek has been proved, surprisingly, to be consistent with the Bergin and Bergin (1999) rationale behind the word's meaning, whereby individuals exhibit "committed compliance" (p. 191) with internalized social values and self-control without supervision.

Besides these understandings of the word in Greek, it is noteworthy that in this language the words "discipline" and "classroom" are related semantically. The term used to refer to the school classroom ("τάξη—/taksi/") means "order." So, in this culture, the classroom is perceived as the learning environment where order and control are expected to prevail. Additionally, discipline and order/τάξη are conceptually related because

order can be the result of a disciplined learner and/or teacher behavior, the result of one's efforts to control the learning environment effectively, and the result of those component features of learner acts that can lead to a well-organized and smoothly functioning educational context. In both concepts, discipline and order/τάξη can mean that teachers are in a position to manage their classrooms efficiently, and that teachers and/or learners have developed the ability to control their inner impulses, depending on what is generally acceptable and desired, and so to be internally controlled. Thus, they are in a position to develop, within accepted limits, behaviors that facilitate the lesson process and peer relations in the school classroom (Matsagouras 1999).

Following the brief study of the meanings attached to *discipline* in languages, this chapter now proceeds to the understandings echoed in academic discourse. Professionals actively engaged in child development (e.g., psychologists, social workers, and teachers) have been particularly responsive to issues of discipline; they perceive it as a manifestation of a desirable kind of behavior and/or a strategic process of guiding individuals to appealing types of conduct that demonstrate their reliability as future citizens of the world. This is an aim of utmost importance for specialists in the social sciences and for parents alike, particularly nowadays. As is further evident in the preceding, the ideas of training, of teaching control, and of the positive end-product can connect professional understandings with the respective diachronic concepts manifested in languages across the globe. Furthermore, discipline attains an indisputably exceptional position in child development, as noted in the Bergin and Bergin (1999) publication.

Bergin and Bergin call it "a primary socializing event" influencing the children's gradual internalization and acquisition of sets of beliefs and of modes of behavior, which they are brought to appreciate by themselves, with the ultimate aim of becoming able to do what they are asked to without direct supervision (1999, p. 190). As mentioned earlier, perceptions like these are normally linked with management approaches and mechanisms. For instance, Bergin and Bergin's concept of "internalized compliance" reflects the perceptions recorded in authoritarian theories of discipline, whereby children are taught the behavior acts and values expected by others (Kohn 1996). This is in contrast to "autonomous

ethics" claimed by humanitarian theories, whereby children should be directed to develop their own principles and to behave accordingly.

Nevertheless, in spite of preset social beliefs and behaviors, in Bergin and Bergin's understanding of child discipline, one can definitely discern the identification of children as capable of processing input mentally, of accepting or rejecting it, and of eventually functioning autonomously. In this sense, autonomy—as a "multifaceted concept," according to Smith's apposite phrase (2008)—can be linked not only with foreign language (FL) learning but also with the acquisition of positive classroom behavior. Consequently, from the EFL teacher's perspective, the goal of an autonomy-oriented TEFL pedagogy should be to support children in the development of the ability to accept responsibility not only for their EFL learning but also for their own EFL classroom behavior, and to have control over both of them.

From the young EFL learners' perspective, and in light of what effective discipline may entail (Bergin and Bergin 1999), children need to enter a gradual dynamic process of change in terms of both how they learn English and how they behave in their English classrooms. This dual focus in child discipline can, in the end, indeed actualize the potential of controlled behavior that Bergin and Bergin saw in regard to language learning—namely, to increase the opportunities for successful acquisition of the target knowledge and for the development of language skills. In this learning process, children are seen as active agents of their improvement. This is a view related to the constructivist perception of children this author ascribes to as autonomous, self-reflective, intentional human beings, who can construct the direction of their own lives and can choose to adopt and pursue internal values (Clark 1998).

Coming to the more general realm of education, classroom discipline can be associated with three different, but interrelated and interdependent notions, that broadly speaking bear similarities with global perceptions of discipline. First, comes the notion of discipline as the actual proper behavior and/or the actual situation in which individuals exhibit self-control and efficient self-organization, and those learner acts that can ensure a smooth flow of the teaching process that can facilitate the attainment of lesson objectives and of the wider educational goals set. Second, it can be seen as the active process through which a set of management

tools and techniques can be employed in order for teachers to establish the conditions that will promote successful teaching and learning to handle learners productively and thus to promote their responsibility, self-control, and independent positive conduct.

Third, it can be perceived as the educational instrument for responding to pupil misbehavior by influencing, improving, readjusting, and/or motivating the development of suitable behavior—a view shared by Oyinloye (2010)—and according to Brewster et al. (2002), for providing quality instruction as a way of eliminating classroom disruption. In this sense, pupil discipline and its maintenance by teachers in classes fall under classroom management in Brewster et al.'s sense—namely, the teacher skills and strategies required to increase teaching efficiency, to organize the classroom, and to handle the learning environment in a way that will be effective for the pupils.

With respect to *indiscipline*, the word entails the central idea of discipline, the meaning of which refers to both learner classroom behavior and language learning. In light of the meaning of *discipline* in English (COBUILD 2003), "indiscipline" can mean the absence or limited presence of high standards of controlled behavior and work in the children. With respect to the Bergin and Bergin (1999) definition of *discipline*, "indiscipline" also can suggest the children's decreased ability to regulate their behavior autonomously and/or exhibit positive behavior that can influence their social development and language learning. Educators also understand indiscipline as behavior against the social norms they expect to see in classes (Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997), or as behavior that learners intentionally exhibit in the classroom for which they should be punished (Gieger 2000, in Oyinloye 2010).

Personal extensive teaching and teacher training experience indicates that traditionally educators also recognize a disquieting power of learner indiscipline because they see it as any act that disturbs other learners and themselves as instructors and individuals, and that threatens their own power as teachers, their role as the individuals responsible for the class, and/or their ability to make the teaching process work in the way they want without any hindrance. This was confirmed by the Houghton et al. questionnaire pilot study (1988), where the researchers defined disruptive student behavior as troublesome, as hindering classroom order, and as

an annoying, upsetting, or distressing activity for teachers that brings about their repeated comments. Along similar lines, Banja (2002) understood it as pupil action, verbal or nonverbal in nature, that impedes the learning aims at a certain time during classroom teaching. Additionally, in Kuloheri's 2010 multi-case study on the indiscipline of Greek young EFL learners, the investigator initially described her own teaching and learning experience and defined pupil indiscipline as actions, events, and language use that prevent the English lesson with young learners from operating in the required way for the achievement of the learning aims, as defined by the curriculum, the teacher, and/or the learners' needs.

In the research literature, the cross-European study of Lawrence et al. (1984) on disruptive behavior in schools showed that definitions of this kind of behavior are difficult to correlate. In particular, one of the questions the researchers posed to the respondents in six countries (i.e., Denmark, France, Germany, Switzerland, Austria, and Belgium) was how they defined "disruptive school behavior" and whether they agreed with the definition provided in the questionnaire; that is, behavior seriously hindering teaching processes and/or seriously upsetting the normal school operation. The findings revealed that, although many agreed with that definition, the whole respondent group faced difficulties in specifying the term and presented perceptual deviations among them. For instance, in Switzerland one participant, influenced by legal documents, associated the item with violent acts, while another one provided two word dimensions: that of misbehavior of a pathological state and that of maladjusted behavior characterized basically by violent and destructive tendencies.

In France, the issue of the varied French terminology employed for disruptive behavior emerged, such as "psychopathie" or "serious behavioral disturbances and conduct disorder," which made it difficult for the respondents to understand to what "disruptive behavior" really referred. A German participant confused the term with bad behavior and mental neurotic disturbance, and a Belgian one understood it as equal to a structurally or functionally disturbed personality in need of special treatment. Finally, the researchers claimed that in England equal confusion was experienced between "disruption" and "maladjustment."

Surprisingly enough, quite a few terms have been employed interchangeably in the literature on discipline and indiscipline that seem to emanate from actual teacher experiences in classrooms. The numerous

words can give rise, however, to the question of whether there is true synonymity among them, or of whether there indeed exists some confusion about terminology. Specifically, the first two words used as synonymous to *indiscipline* are "disobedience" and "dissent." Both of them, however, can be thought to be unsuccessful selections. *Dissent* may well not carry a negative meaning because disagreeing strongly on a subject (Cambridge Dictionaries Online 2015) is, at least nowadays, not thought to be a disadvantage as such, while *disobedience* has been found to be just one type of indiscipline (Kuloheri 2010).

Wadden and McGovern (1991) refer to the issue of indiscipline in the EFL classroom by calling it "negative class participation," which can denote learner participation but of an unwanted, unpleasant kind. Nevertheless, although negative ways to respond to the English lesson (in the sense of not positive and not contributing to the attainment of lesson aims) could be considered indiscipline, extensive teaching experience shows that the phrase cannot cover all indiscipline types and therefore cannot be used interchangeably with *indiscipline*. For example, it cannot embrace the case of undisciplined (young EFL) learners who do not participate at all in the lessons (e.g., when chatting and/or when solving a mathematical problem for the following period). Additionally, the phrase fails to illustrate successfully all indiscipline forms quoted by the writers. For instance, sleeping in class and unwillingness to speak in the target language can be perceived as actions or events denoting merely no learner participation at all, while inaudible responses may well be considered positive participation (since the learner does respond) requiring further encouragement and/or guidance. For example, the learner may have a naturally quiet voice and/or may feel insecure, so he or she may need guidance in understanding, facing, and overcoming hindrances.

Other literature terms employed are "unacceptable" or "inappropriate" behavior. Unfortunately, these teacher-perceived concepts seem to result from the consideration of mainly one particular viewpoint, that of the educators' moral/social pedagogic values and principles, so they can only partially cover the parameters of indiscipline. (As will be discussed later in this book, "indiscipline" presupposes more principles of judgment.) In addition, these two terms can stress the teachers' own views about indiscipline and so indirectly highlight their dominant position in defining

child schooling. In this way, they disempower learners by putting child views about what comprises good and/or bad behavior into the shadows.

Moreover, the words sound as if they put the blame on pupils for acts that may be simple, natural reactions to stimuli from sources such as the lesson and/or the classroom context. They also may echo the teachers' moral strictness about misbehavior and carry negative connotations about the children they refer to, thus increasing the chances for creating guilt in these children and reinforcing pupil labeling (often refutable), both to the learners' disadvantage. Labeling, specifically, emphasizes child deficits rather than capabilities and may imply the impossibility of change (Porter 2006). However, any labeling-related practice should be avoided within a discipline-oriented educational scheme that wishes to make a difference.

In the course of the bibliographic study, the use of the descriptors "problematic behavior" and "deviant behavior" were identified too. Unfortunately, the terms have been used to signify the possible existence of deficits in children and the need for special psychological treatment (Sigafoos and O'Reilley 2005). However, behavioral disorders, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), oppositional-defiance, and emotional behavioral disturbance, do not fall within the scope of classroom indiscipline included in this book.

Last, but not least, "misbehavior" appears quite extensively in the discipline/indiscipline context. According to dictionary sources, contrary to previously described other words, this could be used as an umbrella term that encompasses indiscipline because of the broad meaning attributed to it as a behavior that educationwise is incorrect (i.e., the prefix "mis-" showing this according to COBUILD 2003). For this reason, this term is used in this book interchangeably with "indiscipline" or "misconduct."

2.3.2 Construct Determinants

Thus far, readers have had the opportunity to see how *discipline* and *indiscipline* may be defined for the purpose of responding to human development (e.g., setting behavior models, identifying unwanted conduct,

perceiving possible misbehavior causes, and/or deciding on how to face indiscipline effectively). This section's intent is to answer the question about which specific criteria educators may use to evaluate the variety of behavior-related notions available, to select the one(s) that best express themselves, their priorities, and/or contextual educational needs, to identify discipline and indiscipline as such, and to decide on related managerial classroom actions.

Concepts attached to the term, in particular, "indiscipline" are claimed to result from the employment of three basic gauges for judgment. The first is known as "the effective teaching/learning criterion" and relates to whether learner behavior hinders the teaching and learning processes. The second one is called "the personal-harm criterion" and refers to whether a behavior is psychologically and/or physically harmful to members of the school community. The third is known as "the material-harm criterion" and relates to whether it is damaging to the school property (Matsagouras 1999).

These understandings can be reflected, for instance, in the claims that learner misbehavior is considered to be equal to disruption (Maxwell 1987; Türnüklü and Galton 2001), a threat to how successful a class learning environment may be as a whole (Kullina 2007), and a constant major problem that hinders the pupils' social development and the teachers' and learners' effectiveness at school, with teacher stress being ranked high among its negative consequences (Bergin and Bergin 1999; Lewis 1999). A close study of the literature, however, showed that it is the first criterion of the three that is principally employed for perceptual purposes. This also has been confirmed by educational writers such as Matsagouras (1999), who pointed out that primary education research has substantiated the claims about the frequent employment of this principle.

Besides the three preceding touchstones, other understandings of indiscipline in the international literature reveal the application of the additional criterion of whether learner behavior is in agreement with the established ethos and, consequently, with the conventional, endorsed behavior types—this can be called "the social–cultural ethos criterion." In particular, in Bergin and Bergin (1999), misbehavior is understood to be unacceptable and equal to disobedience, while Porter (2006) and Clark (1998), respectively, call it "inappropriate behavior" and "dissent."

Study of the relevant literature led to the conclusion that this fourth criterion, unstated but concluded, can be reflected in a standard defined within the Greek culturally specific educational context, that of school ethos (Matsagouras 1999). This is specified to determine which behavior is appropriate for and acceptable by the culture of the school—in other words, by the set of ideas and moral attitudes that are typical of it.

Matsagouras stated a fifth, last perceptual, behavior-related criterion too, that of personal teacher needs (can be called "the personal teacher requirements criterion"), which specifies whether disruptive behavior clashes with the teachers' need for power, recognition, and dignity. He related this last criterion to the second one of whether misbehavior can harm school members psychologically and/or physically and to the third one related to school ethos. Study of the literature, however, did not confirm the application of these two last cultural criteria as generalizable around the globe.

Within the framework of TEFL, the emphasis is placed on the negative consequences on teaching and learning of learner misbehavior (first criterion). Indiscipline is perceived to be behavior that is equal to noise (Carless 2002) and, according to Wadden and McGovern's original perception (1991), "negative class participation" (p. 119). In spite of their view that it is also vaguely an ordinary event happening in the EFL classroom, the writers see it as "a quandary" that "has plagued the classroom teacher" (p. 119), and "a curse" (p. 126) that can slow down or stop the teachers' hard work to motivate and teach their learners.

From the literature on TEFL research, Kuloheri's findings supported the argument that not merely EFL teachers, but also young EFL learners adopt certain perspectives—or, as Türnüklü and Galton (2001) put it, approach behavior from particular aspects—to clarify what discipline or indiscipline is to them. Specifically, Greek EFL teachers and young learners avoid regarding pupil behavior as indiscipline arbitrarily and so apply their own criteria, those of EFL teaching and learning (Matsagouras 1999; Türnüklü and Galton 2001) and of social behavior norms; both of these were proved to be common across the cases and the participants researched. The criterion of social norms has not been mentioned as such in the literature; however, it can be considered to fall within Matsagouras's socially defined criterion of school ethos.

The criterion of teaching and learning in Kuloheri's findings was reflected in the empirical evidence provided by the English teachers in their definitions of *indiscipline*, where the association is drawn between pupil misbehavior and the subsequent difficulty in the achievement of learning and teaching goals. For instance, the English instructors concurred in recognizing misbehavior as learner disobedience to classroom rules, and as comprising forms of behavior that prevented the lesson from occurring as teachers wanted. One of the four teacher participants also understood it as the absence of the pupils' structured effort ("συγκροτημένη") to do what they know should be done to succeed in learning the language (e.g., doing their homework, working in pairs and groups, and listening attentively). Children shared teachers' views. For example, child participants saw learner indiscipline as inattentiveness and as a lack of learner effort to understand the language and to get involved in the lesson. When one child was asked what indiscipline meant to her, she too (like the English teachers) offered a clear perception of its opposite (i.e., discipline) as synonymous to obedience, and related it with improvement:

> "*This child, + who::: + I say, Lily::, fetch me that umbrella! + and put it at the board + if she doe:::s it, + this is discipline. + when I gi:::ve, + to a child, orders for the bette::r and they obey, + this is discipline.*"

Besides participant interpretations, reported indiscipline types reflected the view that it is related to classroom events that hinder instruction and learning; for instance, breaking in on the lesson, engaging in activities unrelated to it, refusing to do class work, being inattentive and not participating, among others. Children also connected negative EFL learner classroom behavior with child development and with the educational goals of an EFL course. So, it seemed to a girl participant that discipline is a process that involves hard effort and that aims at child development; thus, she reached the conclusion that indiscipline involves one's change for the worse. Other children were of the opinion that misbehavior was a symptom signifying learner inability to function within limits because, according to them, it was behavior that initially involved a break from the lesson routine, but to which certain pupils did not put an end when they should have.

After examining the possible reasons why aspects of EFL teaching and learning appeared the most frequently in Kuloheri's participant-rendered definitions and indiscipline types, the answer may well lie on the fact that in Greece a clear emphasis is placed on EFL education from quite an early age and on the eventual acquisition of EFL certificates. Furthermore, by associating Kuloheri's conclusions with claims in the existing literature, one can see that the criteria reached reinforced Lewis (2001) in that it is experience that increases teacher concern with teaching and learning issues, and Fischer (1995) in that pupil behavior is an indicator of effective teaching and learning in the area of primary school EFL education. This is especially so with the perceptions that determine disruption in English as something that obstructs learning and can confirm this behavior as a problem; as Scarpaci openly stated: "In classrooms a problem only exists if it impinges on learning." (2007, p. 111). This can be reflected, in particular, by the fact that the overwhelming majority of the negative consequences of peer misbehavior in class, which child participants across the four classes mentioned in their definitions, were related to learning (Kuloheri 2010).

The teaching and learning aspects of pupil indiscipline also align with those echoed in Ball's vivid teacher description of EFL high school student indiscipline in a Greek boarding school (1976). Ball delineated the pivotal role of group classroom indiscipline through her lengthy descriptive narration about the negative consequences it can have on significantly laying waste to class work and thus delaying children's progress in learning English and on bringing about teacher stress, nervousness, and anger. Later international research on primary school indiscipline showed that Ball's opinion about misbehavior in the Greek TEFL context was in line with the relevant indiscipline-related perceptions of English and Turkish primary school teachers. Specifically, the Türnüklü and Galton (2001) study with them about definitions, types, and causes of pupil misbehavior showed the teacher-participant understanding of indiscipline as being any kind of behavior that negatively affected the effortless progress of learning and teaching courses of action.

So, concerning Greece, a tentative argument can be suggested that there exist diachronic teacher concerns about the effects of student misbehavior on the smooth development of instruction and acquisition at

both school levels, compulsory EFL education and public, as well as private educational establishments. Moreover, the inference that the criteria employed agree with the aspects noted in the Türnüklü and Galton study of teacher-participant perceptions about pupil misbehavior can support the point that a perceptual similarity may exist among Greek, English, and Turkish primary teachers of various school subjects in the understanding that negative classroom behavior is a factor obstructing the flow of instruction and of obtaining knowledge and abilities. Kuloheri's findings, however, additionally suggested that this aspect has been adopted particularly by Greek *EFL* teachers of young learners and is shared by Greek EFL *pupils* too.

The comparison of the English teachers' definitions of *indiscipline* and indiscipline types with those of the young learners in the previous study can demonstrate an open-minded approach of the problem from both educators' and learners' perspectives because both sides thought and talked about teaching and learning parameters in classroom indiscipline seriously. Nevertheless, from the EFL teachers, one out of four showed a somewhat limited concern with learning in her definitions, which may be because she seemed absorbed with her concern about the effects of pupil disruption on her psychological state and on her decreased effectiveness in handling the problem. Namely, as that teacher said, she felt "sick" or "angry" before or after a lesson, she could not control indiscipline, and her lessons were "destroyed." Regarding the children's contributions, they did not note the teaching aspect to the same extent as their English teachers did, but viewed indiscipline issues as relevant mainly to their own and their peers' learning. This may support the general claim about children's egocentric attitude to life (Fisher 1995; Pinter 2006) and the understanding that the development of a variety of perspectives comes with age (Berk 2003).

Coming now to the criterion of social behavior norms, this can be represented with conceptualizations of indiscipline that bring to light the Greek social concern for making a good impression on others, the Greek social norms of politeness and respect, and the Greek teachers' and parents' belief that there is "acceptable" classroom behavior for the children between 9 and 10, which they are expected to exhibit. In respect of indiscipline types, the criterion of behavior norms is mirrored in the

participant-common notion of "disrespect," which embraces forms of misbehavior such as laughing at the teacher and/or peers, talking back to the teacher, disobeying, being ironic, grimacing, and revealing peer weaknesses in class. Child-reported determinants of their understanding of indiscipline—for example, adult-provided information, advice, and rules, which are encompassed in the child phrase "common truths"—verified the social influence on the interviewees' perception of good behavior.

The data in Kuloheri's investigation supported the additional conclusion that social behavior stereotypes can be passed on to EFL teachers and to young learners during their upbringing and can influence their understandings about pupil misbehavior during the learning process. This can strengthen the belief of Wood (1998) about the formative role of social interaction in the development of child thinking—namely, that the development of learners' certain ways of thinking is the product of communication in society between the growing child and the more mature individuals in her or his world.

Moreover, it can enhance the claim that reports on child behavior may be affected across cultures by generally accepted societal values and norms (Jones et al. 1995; Weisz et al. 1995). The children's understanding of negative classroom behavior as the opposite of the socially acceptable one they were aware of, and their ability to demonstrate the positive one, can emphasize the argument (supported by one of the English teachers during the case study) that children between 9 and 10 have developed an awareness of socially appropriate acts. This may strengthen the Laws and Davies (2000) assertion that the great majority of children can easily recognize what good behavior means.

Besides the main evaluative criteria adopted for the definition of "indiscipline" by Kuloheri's participants, some data from the main research participants and from one of the four Greek teachers interviewed may imply a concern about the supplementary criterion of peer relations. This principle of judgment is echoed in understandings about indiscipline and indiscipline types linked in some way with positive or negative peer relations (e.g., chatting, verbal aggressiveness, and hitting peers). An EFL teacher's definitions pointed towards the criterion of negative teacher feelings and self-concept in misbehavior management too. These two criteria

are not mentioned as such in the literature. Nevertheless, in light of their reported consequences, they can be associated with the criterion of what is psychologically harmful to school community members (Matsagouras 1999) because bad relations can harm learners' socialization process, and teachers' emotions can exert a negative influence on their self-concept and ability to manage disruption.

Concern about the teacher's well-being, as concluded by the multi-case study data, proved that effective management of undesirable behavior is a major challenge not only generally for teachers (Kokkinos et al. 2004) but especially for *EFL* teachers. It is also a problem that reduces teacher efficiency (Bergin and Bergin 1999; Lewis 1999) and teacher effectiveness in creating and retaining a positive learning environment (Kyriacou 1997). As a result of the weak representation of these last two aspects in the data, however, they are not discussed further here.

From this array of perceptions, one can understand that Porter (2006) was right in her brilliant claim: "Like beauty, 'misbehavior' is in the eye of the beholder." (p. 16)—that is, in the sense that a definition of *indiscipline* is person-centered and dependent on the viewpoint of the individual considering the matter. Given that its meaning is also situation-specific (Türnüklü and Galton 2001) in that it depends on the classroom context, and the time and place of occurrence, as well as culture-dependent, the preceding definitions also may reflect diversified prior knowledge and experience with learning environments and encounters with learner misbehavior in the classroom. For example, the perception of indiscipline as a behavioral challenge (Maxwell 1987; Türnüklü and Galton 2001) may be expressed as teachers' concern with the test they feel learner misbehavior puts on their management skills and/or their interest in facing the problem successfully; its perception as inappropriate behavior (Porter 2006) also may denote teachers' or administrators' value constructs that govern their perceptions of good classroom behavior. Therefore, from this perspective, a relevant bibliography may dispel the richness not only of cultural backgrounds but also of experiences with and concerns about pupil misbehavior. Additionally, it may imply the necessity to be open to various explanations of indiscipline and to design tailor-made management techniques for specific teaching and learning contexts.

2.4   Summary

Discipline has long since emerged as an indispensable target in educational systems and in learning contexts. Its importance has been noted as a major contribution to holistic physical, mental, social, cultural, and ethical human development to an autonomous, responsible, and capable member of society, and to the achievement of a stimulating environment where learning and language acquisition can take place unimpeded. These, discipline and indiscipline, render two of the most basic goals in learning, as well as priority issues in their study and discussion by educators, researchers, and the wider academic community.

Philosophical, religious, and political concerns and beliefs have left their mark on the way respectable behavior and education objectives have been perceived and planned for, and on the evaluation of the required qualifications for educators. Word meanings in different languages, and claims in psychology and education reflect the varied understanding of discipline as, for example, the actual preferable behavior acts, the training process in obedience, self-control, and autonomous compliance to values, the control exerted by educators, and one's willingness for subordination to authority. Indiscipline, on the other hand, is perceived as a state of lacking standards and principles, of uncontrolled behavior, of limited ability for self-control, of a threat to educators' authority, dominance, and class work, of an impediment to learning, and of a cause of distress. Still, the terminology employed by professionals and by the relevant literature has proved to a certain extent that there are perceptual deviations and confusion about to what discipline and indiscipline may refer.

Personal understandings of discipline and indiscipline are shaped by a multitude of mental constructs. The three main criteria for defining these terms are considered to be the effective teaching–learning criterion, the personal-harm criterion, and the material-harm criterion; to these can be added the supplementary ones of social–cultural ethos and of personal teacher requirements. The TEFL literature and research data have shown that EFL teachers and (young) EFL learners do apply their own concepts in determining the particular lexical items and indicate the teaching–

learning and the social behavior norms criteria as the dominant ones. To these, however, those of peer relations and of personal teacher needs can be added on the basis of relevant study data.

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3

YEFLL Indiscipline: Perceptions About Typology

In the teaching EFL (TEFL) literature, the areas in which perceptions or beliefs are most commonly explored are subject matter, self as teacher, and teacher's role (Borg 2001). Although these issues fall within the larger important thematic circles of teaching, learning, teachers, and learners, in terms of the serious issue of pupil lack of discipline (i.e., indiscipline), which touches on all four greater themes, the picture is extremely inadequate. This is not only with regard to whether the problem does exist but also where it does, the forms it may take, the causes that can be identified, and the management approaches and/or techniques to be employed.

Chapters 3, 4, and 5 present the perceptions of educational writers and/or research participants about the typology, causality, and management of indiscipline in child English as a foreign language (EFL) classes, where the words *perceptions* or *beliefs* are used in the same sense employed in the TEFL literature—namely, of those ideas or statements that are accepted as true by the individuals expressing them, even though they may recognize that alternative beliefs may exist (Borg 2001). The chapters descriptively present the kinds of indiscipline, its causes, and some management strategies (whenever possible, these also are classified) mainly

on the basis of spoken narrations of classroom events and of interpretations by EFL teachers and children learning EFL.

With reference to the investigations consulted, for the purpose of initiating a credible approach to the presentation of indiscipline types, causes, and management techniques, the source of information was fundamentally trustworthy research data collected from EFL teachers and young learners who experienced the undisciplined behaviors themselves. In light of what comprises, to the best of this author's knowledge, an absence of other studies on the particular matters, the main research taken into consideration was that of Kuloheri (2010); however, where feasible, the findings also are compared with relevant reports in the educational (research) bibliography.

3.1   Introduction

As is the case with a multitude of difficulties, problems, or even illnesses, the first step towards facing them is the recognition of those features that form the complication or of the symptoms that arise. In spite of the severity of the inconvenience of learner indiscipline in the EFL classroom, the literature on teaching EFL to young learners (TEFLYL) provides quite a restricted number of forms of classroom indiscipline, some of them subjected to the exploration of general ideas for managing classrooms and/or disciplining children; this is a concern that appears to be more crucial than what may encompass child misconduct in a TEFL context. In addition, the informants about kinds of child misconduct are usually either the English teachers or unknown sources.

This may well mean that TEFL writers and/or researchers place marginal weight on whose viewpoint and experience is recorded, and that when they consider this, they are interested mainly in mirroring educators' experiences, while leaving the opportunities to tap the experiences of young English learners basically underexplored. Still, extensive TEFL and teacher training experience suggests that English teachers and child learners are very likely to be experiencing a great variety of negative child misconduct that has not yet been recorded in what is seen as a limited number of studies on young EFL learners (YEFLL) misbehavior. Should

these individual subjective experiences of both sides of participation in the learning procedure be uncovered, they may contribute to a greater understanding and to more successful interventions.

To these two limitations, the third drawback is added the one of a concrete, meticulous portrayal of child indiscipline in EFL learning contexts; details of it are still lacking. So, misbehavior is presented in brief descriptive terms as cases of learner actions that generally occur in EFL classes or, in the case of the bibliography on general education, that may happen during any other school subject, disturbing teachers, colearners, and/or the teaching and learning procedure. Moreover, beneficiaries of the educational (TEFL/research) literature on this problem are deprived of information central to the contextual parameters of teaching and learning within which the problem is observed. Consequently, questions are posed such as how young learners become undisciplined (e.g., how their disrespect and/or nonparticipation are actualized), what they do when engaging in activities irrelevant to the English lesson, which peer relationships may affect learner behavior in class, which teaching approach is employed during its appearance, and whether indiscipline occurs during certain activity types and/or lesson stages. Equally important is the deficiency in categorizations of misconduct, and the either nonexistent or too limited comparisons of acts of misbehavior across, for example, different EFL classes, different subjects and/or grades, or even across the whole of the educational system in a country or internationally. Last, but not least, no information has been provided about the perceived frequency of occurrence, extent of the disturbance, degree of importance, and/or management difficulty of YEFLL misbehavior.

Of course, within the context of the sketchy depiction of learner misconduct in the TEFL literature and research, the ethical code of conduct requires acknowledgment of the particularly seminal contribution of Ball (1973) and of Wadden and McGovern (1991) to the construction of the picture of indiscipline in the EFL classroom (although not that of the *young* learners), because both experience-based reports have provided an initial, satisfactory account of the difficulty. Ball was, to the best of this author's knowledge, the first to have rendered a very vivid, detailed, and context-targeted description of indiscipline (i.e., within the learning context of a Greek boarding high school, male, relief EFL class). Although

her report left the reality of regular primary school EFL classes of mixed genders intact, it proved to be of special interest as a description of the misconduct taking place in adolescent English classes within the very limited literature and/or research about this serious education problem.

The Wadden and McGovern work also has been revealing. This is because the writers publicized the diachronic, serious nature of the English teachers' experiences with classroom indiscipline with surprising boldness, directness, clarity, and precision. By linking misconduct with a particular part of the EFL lesson (i.e., speaking), they also raised awareness in researchers of the necessity to probe into whether indiscipline in an EFL classroom can be related to certain lesson stages, activities, and/or tasks. Unfortunately, though, this association was extremely uncommon in their article—noted to occur for only one misbehavior type—and, as in Ball's case, the depiction of primary school EFL classes was not one of their focal issues. Regrettably, learner views and experiences of classroom indiscipline were not considered either. So, for example, one cannot know whether the learners considered their behavior undisciplined too, and/or whether they could identify more negative behaviors that probably did not reach their teachers' eyes.

Those writers who showed a concern for the typology of EFL learner indiscipline have addressed it in dissimilar ways in the literature. Specifically, Ball and Wadden and McGovern launched two different approaches for its presentation. The former opted for describing what happened in the classroom, while the latter authors' report chose to classify it. The Wadden and McGovern classification system was based on the understanding of negative behavior in high school and adult EFL classes as passive and active—in both cases, as harmful for classroom learning—which, in their opinion, foreign language teachers have had to tolerate throughout history. Considering this, they seem to perceive misbehavior in accordance with who and/or what the consequences of indiscipline influence negatively. So, active indiscipline may be negative behavior that originates from a specific person and also has unfavorable effects on learning procedures and on individuals, while passive indiscipline may be that misconduct with repercussions that are directed to the undisciplined persons themselves.

Mention to active and passive undisciplined behavior also is made by Haroun and O'Hanlon (1997) in the general literature about learner indiscipline when they refer to the disturbance teachers experience, by active rather than by passive misconduct, in secondary male classrooms in Amman, Jordan. For instance, from their perspective, talking out of turn is understood to be a disruptive active behavior type that distracts and annoys teachers and/or learners and hinders the smooth progression of the teaching and learning process; this is contrary to daydreaming, which can be considered passive because it affects just daydreamers by carrying them away from the lesson, by limiting their achievement potential, and thus by not threatening class management.

In spite of the fact that in many situations this distinction between activity and passivity can indeed be identified as realistic and thus justifiable, it is difficult to accept it as a categorical one and to adopt it in the context of this book. A comparison of the examples given in the literature with other teaching experiences indicates that the borders between affecting one's self only and affecting others are often too narrow and sometimes not easily discernible, and indiscipline that seems to have an impact merely on the misbehaved may potentially affect others too and thus acquire an active character. Someone's daydreaming, for example, may be noticed in class by other learners who may seek to find out what their classmate is looking at or thinking about, and the end result being their loss of concentration too.

Besides activity and passivity, forms of indiscipline are additionally classified in disseminated research findings on primary school learner misbehavior from the international spectrum in terms of frequency of occurrence, degree of teacher disturbance, perceived seriousness of the problem, and level of management difficulty (e.g., see Durmuscelebi 2010; Johnson et al. 1993; Jones et al. 1995). These classification principles are understood to cover, respectively, types of indiscipline reported to often or rarely happen in class, to trouble recipients (mostly teachers), to be considered serious, and to present educators with hardships in the way(s) they try to face them. These categorizations undeniably can compliment the picture of the matter in question. Furthermore, they can prioritize the foci of attention by indicating those varieties of indiscipline that need urgent intervention. However, because of their potential to

lead to subjective presentations of indiscipline—that is, each factor can be perceived differently by categorizers—these parameters rather would constitute secondary themes of consideration.

In addition to the descriptive and classifying approach to indiscipline types, a third one (i.e., labeling) was employed by Wadden and McGovern (1991). In particular, the writers characterized learner indiscipline as "negative class participation" and illustrated it with behaviors such as annoying talking, tardiness, poor attendance, failure to complete homework, cheating, insistent inaudible responses, sleeping in class, unwillingness to speak in English, and tardiness during the oral skills class; this was in contrast to positive class participation such as speaking in English, taking notes, and asking relevant questions. To this author's dissatisfaction, however, the term applied covers just a section of indiscipline, in which an undisciplined learner does take part in the lesson but in a damaging way. Nevertheless, child misbehavior during English class may be of a kind that shows the learner's mental and/or emotional absence from the teaching and learning process, as when they daydream, talk with their classmate, and engage in off-task activities. As a result of this downside, the labeling of learner indiscipline by Wadden and McGovern should be taken into account with caution.

Considering the preceding conceptualizations of learner misbehavior, a reader who is interested into delving into the matter should search out a comprehensive typology encompassing as many of the previous elements as possible, such as a descriptive component pinning misconduct down to its fine details, a categorization into broader and narrower forms of indiscipline, and/or a comparison of types and their interrelation with teaching–learning factors. Such component parts, which could contribute to the profound depiction of the issue, can be found in the research findings of Kuloheri (2010), one of the reasons why this research has been selected for the purposes of this book.

As mentioned earlier, the kinds of indiscipline also are described as stated in the literature. With regard to Kuloheri's study, the behaviors taken into consideration are those that the adult and child participants of her study saw as occurring during their English lessons, named as indiscipline, and expounded on to the researcher. Surprisingly enough, most

of the Greek/L1 teachers and school heads in the four cases investigated had just a vague idea of negative pupil behavior during English learning and showed an unawareness of its particular nature. This is evident in that, although they seemed to agree that the children were restless during the lesson, they still could not report specific forms of indiscipline, as the EFL teachers and learners did.

Their unawareness can be because of the distance quite a large number of Greek teachers and school heads maintain from the details of practical EFL classroom problems; this is as a result of the general lack of sophistication in Greek state school educators in order to talk about teaching difficulties in a professional way and to collaborate systematically in designing, applying, and evaluating lines of action. Considering school administration, in particular, the reason may lie in the prohibition for headmasters to interfere in the teachers' profession, to the limited time the burden of administrative tasks allows them to discuss classroom issues with teachers, and/or to their feeling that EFL classes are a strange world to them. It also is possible that this unfamiliarity is caused by the EFL teachers' usual tendency to not share classroom disorders with headmasters in sufficient detail because of a fear that this may threaten their professional identity and/or their belief that school administrators are inexperienced with TEFL in general; thus, they are not in a position to perceive the educational hardships or to help teachers effectively and creatively.

In addition, indiscipline patterns are compared here with information and research data about learner misbehavior in various school subjects and for several countries across the globe, as well as across both education grades (primary and secondary). In consideration of this comparison, readers are provided with a first categorization of YEFLL classroom indiscipline, with the true hope and wish that future research will confirm, modify, and/or expand it and systematize groupings in a more objective way. References to perceived frequency of occurrence, degree of disturbance, and perceived importance of the misconduct type are added where the participants themselves wanted to make comments. Yet, it was not the researcher's intention to study YEFLL indiscipline systematically in terms of these criteria.

3.2   YEFLL Indiscipline Types

3.2.1   Universal, Cross-educational Indiscipline

The first category of indiscipline that may occur within a YEFLL context is called "universal, cross-educational YEFLL indiscipline." The forms of behavior that fall under this category can be defined as negative YEFLL classroom behaviors that have been identified by adult and child research participants as indiscipline, and also were verified to appear as misconduct in other EFL learning contexts of the same country and in contexts of a variety of subjects, at different educational levels (i.e., primary and secondary), and/or in miscellaneous countries.

Two such universal indiscipline types are the act of getting noisy during tasks and off-task behavior in the sense of child acts during which young learners show no interaction with the EFL learning process. One very common kind of off-task behavior appears to be chatting. In particular, teachers and children of all English classes investigated agreed that chatting does occur during the English lesson, and that it is a frequent and important problem. Within two of the four cases, the child interviewees also perceived it as a disturbing issue that needed be dealt with. The study revealed children's awareness of the occurrence of chatting during EFL games, songs, and reading tasks; however, the English teachers were conscious of its occurrence only during reading. Concerning making noise, the teacher and child interviewees did experience noise during English lessons and understood it to take the form of child shouting. The young learners perceived shouting as frequently taking place, as being the most disturbing, and as occurring most frequently during English language games. Nevertheless, in one English classroom, shouting or any other kind of noise was not experienced at an alarming level.

Besides Kuloheri, Brewster et al. (2002) claimed that young EFL learners may get noisy during tasks and may chat. In his study on the implementation of task-based EFL learning in various primary school contexts in Hong Kong, Carless (2002) confirmed this indiscipline through evidence that showed that Chinese pupils may misbehave by making noise during oral or group communicative English tasks and by chatting dur-

ing pair work. Ball (1973) and Wadden and McGovern (1991), who presented the situation in EFL classes other than those of young learners, confirmed chatting and loud talking as indiscipline demonstrated respectively by adolescents of a Greek boarding high school relief male English class and by adults.

A comparative field study, involving semistructured deep interviewing and systematic classroom observation, with primary school teachers in English and Turkish schools showed that noisy or prohibited talking in those classes scored high rate of frequency too (Türnüklü and Galton 2001). In Central Greece, preservice, novice, and experienced Greek primary school teachers said children were often chatting (Kokkinos et al. 2004). In Adelaide, Australia, primary and junior primary school teachers frequently—defined as on a daily or almost daily basis—encountered unnecessary noise (Johnson et al. 1993), although the sources of noise were not specified in the report. Talking also was observed by Kullina (2007) in the survey of the indiscipline attributions and management of 199 primary and secondary physical education (PE) teachers mainly of Caucasian and African American ethnic background, who were recruited from professional conferences in two states in the United States. In Lawrence et al.'s cross-European investigation (1984), it was found that talking and chatting did take place in schools in the participant countries—that is, France, England, Germany, Switzerland, and Denmark. Scarpaci (2007) also reported loud talking as a generalized negative behavior, however without giving specifications about the learning contexts in which it occurred.

Besides chatting, off-task child behavior of additional forms was reported in Greek and Chinese EFL classes (respectively, in Kuloheri 2010 and in Carless 2002). The Greek teachers and learners in all English classrooms were in agreement that the Greek primary school children frequently engaged in such activities unrelated to the English lesson. However, only in two of the four cases did the children feel this was serious and most disturbing. Off-task behavior was described as taking various forms in the specific Greek EFL classes, the most common one being getting out of seats and the second in perceived frequency of drawing. In Case 1, the misbehaving children also would fall on the pillows in the reading corner, jump, play, walk, or run around, in addition to writing

in other than English. In Case 2, they would do different things such as collecting stickers or being occupied with personal items. Singing EFL songs was the activity associated with being out of seats in all the contexts studied; in one class, the children would dance and walk around while doing song activities. In another example, they would also jump and step on desks. In the first case, the child participants appeared to be aware of the occurrence of this misbehavior during EFL games, listening, and reading tasks too.

Anderson and Spaulding (2007) suggested this kind of indiscipline as a general behavior problem of learners, and observations and reports indicated its emergence across grades and/or subjects. Ball's meticulous narration (1973) of what went on in the adolescent male-dominated EFL class in Greece provided experiential evidence suggesting the occurrence of off-task behavior in high school English learning contexts. Specifically, her learners fidgeted, engaged with objects irrelevant to the lesson (e.g., matchboxes and/or dead cockroaches), and twanged pieces of elastic. Off-task behavior—in the form of often asking the teacher to visit the toilet, looking out of the window, being away from desks, not following group class work, and daydreaming—was rated in a questionnaire by 200 Northern Greece full-time elementary school teachers as one of the two very frequent daily instances and intense negative child behavior types and also the worst problems (Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000). Playing with pens and pencils was claimed to occur in secondary schools in Amman, Jordan (Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997). In Kayseri, Turkey (Durmuscelebi 2010), in English and Turkish primary schools (Türnüklü and Galton 2001) and in secondary schools in the Middle East (Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997), off-task behavior took the form of frequent daydreaming too. Durmuscelebi also reported looking out of the window as a problem.

The particular expressions in the form of getting out of seats, not settling down in class, and engaging in inappropriate movement were, respectively, observed in primary schools in Adelaide, Australia (Johnson et al. 1993) and in English and Turkish primary school contexts (Türnüklü and Galton 2001). Data from secondary school research contexts (e.g., Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997; Houghton et al. 1988) showed that being out of seats can also be extended as an indiscipline problem

to high school education in Jordan and Britain, thus reinforcing its universal aspect and attaching a cross-educationalist nature to it. Haroun and O'Hanlon described this as boys in Amman who change seats, move around for no reason, and stand near their seats. In their study, approximately half of the teachers reported this indiscipline as a constant problem, but in Houghton et al.'s investigation, being out of seats in British secondary schools was one of the least troublesome issues across school subjects and was not reported in foreign language (FL) classrooms at all.

A third category of YEFLL indiscipline suggested by the research data is that of verbal or physical aggression during the English lesson (Kuloheri 2010). Concerning physical aggression, all participant sides in the relative study were able to specify the use of physical force as peer fighting, hitting or pushing peers, and forcefully throwing down peers' possessions. English teachers furthermore were able to inform the researcher that their learners would fight with their classmates for a seat before video watching and before a class reading activity and would be verbally aggressive to other children during computer tasks, speaking assignments, and EFL games. The research participants perceived aggression of any kind as important, indirectly, thus all expressed the need for immediate intervention; granted they were not unanimous in their feelings about the frequency of occurrence and the level of personal disturbance.

The literature on child indiscipline, and on aggression and rowdy behavior, coupled with further research data, can attach universality and cross-educationality to this form of YEFLL classroom indiscipline, and it can provide basics about factors such as perceived importance, seriousness, and frequency of occurrence. For instance, Kyriacou (2007) referred to verbal aggression as a general serious form of indiscipline, and Scott and Ytreberg (1990) included peer fighting under common YEFLL misbehavior. Peer fighting also was claimed to happen in primary schools, such as in Kayseri, Turkey (Durmuscelebi 2010), and more generally in educational school contexts (Scarpaci 2007). In Ball (1973), scenes from English lessons in a Greek secondary male boarding school context were depicted, where learners would push books onto the floor, hesitate in picking them up, and push desks into the front student's back.

Johnson et al. (1993), Kokkinos et al. (2004), and Lawrence et al. (1984) reported general rowdiness, physical aggression, and verbal abuse,

respectively, as occurring quite frequently or not that often in primary Australian schools in Adelaide, in primary Greek schools, and in French, Swiss, Danish, English, and German schools. In Australia, verbal peer abuse was reported as a type of indiscipline that was difficult to handle, while teacher-addressed verbal abuse and physical aggression were experienced as extremely infrequent and were considered by teachers to be "not serious" or "not serious at all." Physical violence to teachers and other children in Lawrence et al.'s cross-European study came first or second in importance, and in English and Turkish primary schools physical aggression to pupils was perceived to be of low frequency (Türnüklü and Galton 2001). Houghton et al. (1988) found that verbal and physical aggression were indeed observed in a British comprehensive school and were understood to be among the most troublesome behaviors, but claimed they did not occur during the Modern Languages lessons.

Fourth, young English learners also were perceived as displaying poor attendance in class, in the sense of being mentally and/or psychologically involved in the lesson, but to an insufficient extent. Deep interviewing (Kuloheri 2010) contributed to the specification of this misconduct as lesson inattention, nonparticipation, refusing to do classwork, and not doing homework. The problems identified in this aspect, however, were not identical in nature across the investigated cases. Indicatively, in one of the four cases, some research participants experienced poor attendance as merely not agreeing to do classwork; nevertheless, all admitted that not only did this happen but it was also very important to them. The English teacher added that although it did not often take place, she was disturbed by its manifestation. In a second case, poor attendance was described by all, English teachers and children, in a different way as lesson inattention and nonparticipation; all were found to be in agreement that this frequently happened and that it was a very important issue. Again, only the English teacher was disturbed and perceived this misconduct as serious. Still, the children disagreed about the frequency that this occurred, but they all admitted that it was an annoying matter.

Specific bibliographic evidence attaches generality to the indiscipline of poor attendance. First, inadequate attendance, especially failure to complete homework, was recorded as misconduct experienced in English classes of high school learners and adults (Wadden and McGovern 1991).

At the primary level, but without any subject specification, inattention was encountered in primary education in Central Greece by preservice, novice, and experienced primary school teachers (Kokkinos et al. 2004). Haroun and O'Hanlon (1997) noted lack of learner attention as one of the most frequent types of misconduct teachers in the secondary male school in Amman, Jordan, had to face during their lessons, and they made mention of instances of students who did not do homework or did not participate in learning activities.

Concerning work avoidance and idleness in class, there is evidence illustrating that these may well be regarded as more general, very frequent problems in primary school classrooms, as in Adelaide, Australia (Johnson et al. 1993), where the problem was perceived as difficult to handle misconduct. Facing away from work was recorded in primary classes on the island of St. Helena, South Atlantic, as the most frequent and most disturbing indiscipline (Jones et al. 1995). It is possible that it also appears within secondary school learning contexts; for example, Kyriacou and Roe (1988) mentioned that teachers of a small English comprehensive school perceived laziness and inattention as quite serious problems in its application to school work. Houghton et al. (1988) claimed idleness to be the third most troublesome behavior in six secondary schools of one Local Education Authority in Britain, but the last of the most troublesome acts during Modern Languages classes.

A next universal cross-educational YEFLL kind of indiscipline is that of hindering peers, which is defined as performing acts that intentionally interrupt the other learners' involvement in the learning process. In Kuloheri's study, this was found to take the form of telling jokes and of sharing thoughts and news irrelevant to the English lesson during EFL group work. But it appeared to be mild misconduct because it was reported by some of the English learners only, and just in two of the four cases explored. Annoying peers has been observed in Australian, English, and Turkish primary schools too, as well as in British secondary ones (e.g., see Kyriacou and Roe 1988; Houghton et al. 1988). In Australia, it was identified as presenting junior primary and primary teachers with management difficulties (Johnson et al. 1993). According to Houghton et al., this is one of the two most problematic misconducts across school subjects, but less disturbing for Modern Languages

educators—a view that confirms the mild nature of the problem reported in Kuloheri's investigation.

Cheating is the sixth category of YEFLL misbehavior identified. According to the lived experiences of all four English teachers and all child participants in Kuloheri's research, it was rare. In terms of disturbance, however, participants' views differed; in one class, it was the children who were the most annoyed, while in the other ones it was only the teacher. Intense interviewing with all the participants (children and adults) of one case indicated that this misconduct would happen mainly during dictation tasks and tests. The fact that Wadden and McGovern (1991) reported on cheating by adult and high school learners (in English tests and quizzes) as universal classroom misconduct can extend the plausibility of this type with other EFL learner ages beyond those of children; in addition, the claim that cheating also has been seen, for instance, in British secondary schools (Kyriacou and Roe 1988) reinforced its possible cross-educational nature.

Next comes disobedience, in the sense of the learners refusing, failing, or neglecting to do what their teacher asks them to do and/or to follow rules. Although evidence about EFL learner disobedience suggests that this misbehavior may be categorized under that of disrespect, nevertheless, it is claimed here to comprise a separate form because it encompasses acts unrelated to disrespect too. In Kuloheri's study, disobedience was reported in all the cases by both teachers and young learners. All the English teachers expressed agreement in that this was important to them, but observed various frequencies of occurrence in each context (e.g., in the third case, it was often, while in the fourth one it was rare). Observation and deep interviewing revealed a more concrete picture of disobedience in Case 1. There, it was found to take the form of children breaking classroom or task rules and not accepting the assigned topic and/or the group/pair arrangement (i.e., teacher-reported indiscipline).

The children confirmed the preceding by mentioning that they had seen peers disagreeing strongly about cooperating with others during a task and insisting on doing the task alone. They added that some of their classmates also would not follow instructions or guidelines and not ask for the teacher's permission to do something. Their teacher specified that in her experience children would get disobedient by not following rules

in language games, and she asserted that some of them would monopolize the mouse during computer tasks as well.

A particular type of disobedience that all four English teachers and nearly all the pupils in all the cases in Kuloheri's multi-case study perceived as requiring immediate attention was talking out of turn and thus breaking in on the lesson process. However, the research brought to light disagreement in their judgments about the experienced frequency of its occurrence, and about the degree of disturbance each participant felt. The children found it most disturbing, in contrast to their English teachers, only one of which confessed her annoyance. Regarding frequency of occurrence, Kuloheri's case study data disproved the claimed frequency of this type of indiscipline in primary school classrooms (e.g., in Adelaide, Australia, and in England and Turkey, according to Johnson et al. 1993; Türnüklü and Galton 2001); nevertheless, the respondents' opinions were not unanimous. From the children, only those in Cases 2 and 4 experienced it often.

Disobedience—understood by the research participants as, for example, talking without permission, interrupting, talking back to the teacher, and ignoring rules—is a problem observed generally in primary Greek schools, indeed a frequent, intense, and extremely bad trouble (e.g., see Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000; Kokkinos et al. 2004). This misbehavior in the form of defiance against the teacher was mentioned as a rare problem in both English and Turkish schools, while taking something without permission was recorded to occur rarely only in the Turkish education system (Türnüklü and Galton 2001). In British secondary schools, disobedience was stated to take the form of impertinence, insubordination, and defiance (Kyriacou and Roe 1988). It seems to be one of the most troublesome kinds of negative behavior; however, no respondent reported it to happen in the Modern Languages lesson (Houghton et al. 1988).

With regard to specific forms of disobedience, refusal to obey the teacher and/or the classroom rules set has been proven to be not just a Greek educational problem (Kokkinos et al. 2004) but also a cross-European serious one (Lawrence et al. 1984). Breaking classroom rules was found to happen in primary general education such as in Adelaide, Australia (Johnson et al. 1993) and in Northern and Central Greece (respectively, Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000; Kokkinos et al. 2004). Türnüklü

and Galton (2001) suggested in their findings that there may be a universality and cross-elementarity in the particular disobedience of monopolizing learning material (against classroom rules) in light of the findings that the improper use of materials scored a high-frequency rate in the English elementary school they investigated. Disobedience of rules has been reported in the literature also to take the form of children playing truant in Greek primary schools and in other European educational institutes (Kokkinos et al. 2004; Lawrence et al. 1984) and of arriving late at lessons in European countries and in Australia (Johnson et al. 1993; Lawrence et al. 1984).

Talking out of turn and so disrupting the flow of the lesson appears to have a generalized character, too, on the basis of Ball's report on misbehavior with male, adolescent EFL learners, and of Houghton et al.'s pilot and main study findings (1988), which revealed that talking out of turn was the most troublesome misbehavior across school subjects in British secondary schools of a Local Education Authority and more precisely the most troublesome one during Modern Languages lessons. Research in primary school classes further emphasized the universal and cross-educational nature of this indiscipline type. For instance, Johnson et al. (1993), Jones et al. (1995), and Durmuscelebi (2010) reported its frequent occurrence in primary schools, respectively, in Adelaide, Australia, on the island of St. Helena, South Atlantic, and in Kayseri, Turkey. In Adelaide, research participants described it as a behavior that also was difficult to handle.

Interrupting peers likewise appeared in English and Turkish primary schools (Türnüklü and Galton 2001), but it was minor in frequency. Talking out of turn was shown to be one of the misbehaviors that needed to be faced during the lesson in Haroun and O'Hanlon's case study (1997) on kinds of student misbehavior and on teacher-perceived causes of them within the post-elementary context of a male-dominated Jordanian school. Last, but not least, Kyriacou (2007) presented this negative behavior as frequently cited by educators in general.

Disrespectful behavior is a supplementary eighth type of universal, cross-educational YEFLL indiscipline, where "disrespect" is used in the sense of not showing the care, honor, appreciation, and recognition that people deserve in light of, for instance, their qualities, values, significance,

and/or magnitude. Therefore, it may entail considering that people are less important than they really are, possibly harming them, treating them carelessly and/or rudely, showing lack of deference, and/or not holding them in high esteem. Kuloheri's qualitative study resulted in a thorough analysis of a variety of expressions that may occur in YEFLL classes in Greece. Specifically, in the investigated groups, English teachers and child participants expressed agreement in that young learners laughed at their teacher and their peers, talked back to the teacher, and called others names during the lesson. Moreover, in Case 1, exposing peers' weaknesses to the class, using an ironic tone of voice, and making grimaces were brought to light. Disrespectful behavior in general was not associated with particular aspects of the lesson, except for picking on the classmates' performance in English and so making them feel uncomfortable, which was linked with EFL speaking tasks.

Variation appeared in the perceived frequency of occurrence and degree of disturbance and importance across the cases and among the members of each case. Specifically, in terms of importance, laughing at the teacher was considered critical by all except for the children of the second English class. Talking back to the teacher was understood to be significant by only two of the four English teachers. The significance of calling others names and the frequency of laughing at the teacher and at peers were shared by the teacher of Case 1 and the group of learners of Cases 2 and 4. The degree of frequency in calling others names differed significantly across the cases too; however, within each case, all the research participants were unanimous. The frequency of talking back to the teacher was estimated by the teacher and the pupils as low in the first case only. Finally, only one of the teachers felt disturbed by the children laughing at her and at their peers and by calling others names, while the pupils of one English class only were annoyed by their peers talking back to their teacher.

In the educational literature and research, the expressions of learner disrespect are not broken down as profoundly as in Kuloheri's findings. So, one will have to be content with the disrespectful aspects of laughing at peers, being rude (but in many cases without any specification of whom or how), using bad language, and telling inappropriate jokes—all of which seem to be universal and cross-educational indiscipline types. Indicatively, there is evidence suggesting that children get rude, make fun of their

peers, and use bad language in primary school classes in central Greece (Kokkinos et al. 2004). Bad language is also employed across France, Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, and England, where it has been stated to cause serious concern (Lawrence et al. 1984). In England and Turkey, insulting other pupils did take place but rarely (Türnüklü and Galton 2001). Swearing, in particular, was reported by teachers as serious indiscipline in, for example, a British comprehensive school (Kyriacou and Roe 1988), and cheeky remarks or responses were brought up as rare forms of indiscipline in Australian primary schools (Johnson et al. 1993). In secondary education too, improper students' jokes were stated to take place and to break the flow of the lesson in a male high school in Amman, Jordan (Haroun and O'Hanlon 1997).

Finally, according to teacher interview responses in one case researched by Kuloheri, some child learners showed a lack of discipline by also coming to the lesson without their English books. The fact that this may well occur in other EFL learning contexts was indicated by Ball, who remarked that the male EFL learners in the Greek secondary boarding school she reported on also forgot their course books. Haroun and O'Hanlon suggested a universal character to this misconduct by mentioning that secondary male students in Amman, Jordan do not bring the essential lesson materials such as textbooks and/or drawing tools.

3.2.2 Cross-EFLL and YEFLL Common and Specific Indiscipline

The variety of universal and cross-educational YEFLL negative acts and the comparative study of educational bibliographic and research data in the TEFL sector can lead one to the logical argument that there may exist "cross-EFLL indiscipline"—namely, the sorts of indiscipline happening across various EFL learning contexts of children, of adolescents, and/or of adults in the same country or in different countries. These acts have proved to be loud talking, off-task behavior (e.g., chatting), failure to do homework, cheating, and talking out of turn. Like young EFL learners, adolescents learning English are reported to forget their course books and to behave rowdily. Yet, this last indiscipline has not been reported in adult EFL classes.

The sources that encourage the preceding claim are Ball's (1973) and Wadden and McGovern's (1991) reported experiences in English classrooms, the Kuloheri (2010) and Carless (2002) case study evidence, and the works of educational TEFL writers such as Antonakaki (2008) and Zafeiriadou (2009). Ball, Kuloheri, Antonakaki, and Zafeiriadou quoted experiences from Greece, while Carless quotes were from Hong Kong, China. The Wadden and McGovern descriptions of negative behaviors do not place the indiscipline events in particular locations around the globe.

Despite the too slim evidential support for the reinforcement of the statement about the existence of cross-EFLL indiscipline, the conclusion reached can be considered seminal at this initial stage of specifying and classifying misbehavior acts in EFL learning contexts. Commonality in types of indiscipline may well point to the possibility of and necessity for shared practices in managing it, even though strategies also will have to differ because of dissimilar learner profiles. So, EFL educators teaching markedly distinct learner ages may be able to transfer some of their management skills across grades. In addition, they may be able to unite with colleagues in their strong efforts to develop and apply effective management strategies by, for example, initiating discussions, confirming and/or modifying views about negative learner behaviors, and exchanging and/or adapting strategic designs. It is likely, thus, that not only the burden of their work in class may be eliminated but also the effectiveness of their interventions may be maximized.

With regard to the narrow perspective of YEFLL contexts in a range of classrooms and locations, the existence of two kinds of child misbehavior can be put forward: "common YEFLL indiscipline" and "specific YEFLL indiscipline." Common YEFLL misbehavior is understood as similar indiscipline that children learning EFL show across different learning situations. This is reflected in the adequately large number of negative behaviors reported to occur in all four Greek EFL settings in Kuloheri's research—e.g., chatting, cheating, breaking in on the lesson, laughing at others, being verbally aggressive, using physical force and profane language, being engaged with activities unrelated to the English lesson, and talking back and disobeying to the English teacher. Furthermore, it is illustrated in the misconduct of making noise through animated dis-

cussions or arguments, which is a special form of being noisy that arose however in only one of the four cases, especially during project work. Animated discussions also have been noted by Carless (2002) in young EFL learner classes in China, but efforts to trace reports of this indiscipline pattern in other educational contexts have been fruitless.

Contrary to the common indiscipline, specific YEFLL misbehavior is identified generally as dissimilar expressions of child misconduct during the English lesson. This category may result from three separate comparisons. First, it may be rendered as a result of analyzing behavior acts across individual EFL classes of children. Second, it may result from examining particular manifestations of common YEFLL indiscipline; and third, it may be concluded from contrasting the misbehavior of a certain group of children within a school unit during English and other subjects (e.g., L1). For instance, when Case 1 and Case 2 in Kuloheri's research were studied comparatively (first kind of comparison), then forgetting the English course book, publicizing peers' weaknesses to the class, fighting for a seat in the computer room, and grimacing were found to constitute specific YEFLL indiscipline because these forms were not observed in Case 2. Similarly, laughing over the limit and collecting stickers during the lesson covered specific YEFLL indiscipline because they occurred only in Case 2.

When one looks closely at the variety of common misconduct forms that may come about in various English classes (second kind of comparison), the particular divergent demonstrations of the common negative child acts were called specific YEFLL indiscipline too. For instance, in Kuloheri's study using physical force, a type of common indiscipline, emerged as hitting in the one class and as pushing peers in the other. Finally, from the viewpoint of how pupils behave during the teaching–learning of distinct subjects (third kind of comparison), in this investigation specific YEFLL misbehavior came in two patterns. The first one is indiscipline that does not appear within the same class in subjects other than EFL; the second one is misconduct that the pupils of a certain class display during English as well as during lessons on other subjects (e.g., those of L1), but it is understood to be of a harsher character and/or more frequent during English.

Concerning the sheer occurrence of child indiscipline in English, in Kuloheri's study data triangulation with the reported experiences of the

Greek L1 teachers with pupil misconduct in their classes manifested that the patterns of using profane language and physical force, cheating, making noise by shouting and by participating in animated discussions, and getting out of seats did not take place at all during the Greek language (L1) lesson.

Regarding the worst behavior exhibited by the children during English, triangulation verified that all four groups of learners were more disciplined and less naughty during the L1 lesson (Greek). For example, in that class, the children obeyed the teacher, rules, and processes and cooperated with each other smoothly; even the few high-spirited learners did not interrupt or hinder the lesson as they did in the English class. Most of the children (like their Greek teachers too) also reported less noise during L1 and stated that both lesson participation and attendance were comparatively increased during the Greek subjects, especially in the case of children who attend evening English lessons in a private EFL institute. In one of the cases, just one or two children were said by the Greek teacher to misbehave during the L1 lesson by, for instance, interrupting teaching, talking back to the teacher, not doing homework, or doing irrelevant things.

Even more interesting were child data that came to support the existence of specific YEFLL indiscipline. While reflecting on EFL and L1 lessons, one female child participant simply stated, for example:

"*e:r there i::s a larger difference in the behavior of the children! + who:: are quiet, while in the English lesso::::n, they aren't quiet!*"

Another girl admitted emphatically:

"*a:::nd a::ll, the::: those who are bad in the English lesson, si::::t like the Virgin Mary in Greek. + they all stand on the hind legs!* (laughter)."

3.2.3   EFL Task-Related Indiscipline

The multi-case study data can additionally support the petite generalization that indiscipline shown by children in English classes can be "EFL task-related." In other words, it seems to be the case that the context

of specific EFL tasks and activities in classes of children are more likely to become an indiscipline basis than others such as computer activities, EFL songs and games, tests and dictations, project work, and tasks on the communicative skills of speaking, listening, and reading. In respect to the communication skills, data triangulation proved that child respondents had been eyewitnesses to the worst pupil behavior during speaking rather than during work on other skills.

The conclusion goes well beyond the Carless (2002) case study's findings that oral or group tasks cause noise, as it manages to capture a more precise picture of indiscipline in the EFL school subject and of the lesson contexts that may give rise to it. Given that the majority of the particular activities are associated with teaching methodologies that engage the learners holistically, that are of a communicative type, and according to children and teachers, that bring about the expression of powerful peer emotions and subsequently disruption, it can be inferred that the selection of a TEFL approach may determine child reactions to learning stimuli decisively and consequently child behavior.

In addition, this generalization may confirm the anecdotal experience of primary state school EFL educators with the increase of child misconduct during nontraditional, learner-centered language activities, and with the significant restriction of the repertoire of EFL tasks inviting child indiscipline. This is in the face of factors such as an endorsed unconventional teaching methodology, a smaller classroom size, and/or limited teacher self-confidence in classroom management.

3.3   Summary

This chapter contains the beginning of the long, detailed report on the kinds, causes, and management approaches of child indiscipline in EFL classrooms. As such, it encompasses a first typology of misbehavior in YEFLL classrooms. Initially, some writers' attempts to categorize indiscipline in light of certain criteria led to the portrayal of it in terms of descriptive accounts, of classifications according to its active or passive nature, of its frequency of occurrence, of the degree of teacher distur-

bance, of the perceived seriousness and level of management difficulty, and of labels attached to it.

The bulk of the chapter, however, focused on a four-type broad categorization of YEFLL indiscipline based on trustworthy multi-case study data and on the experiential understandings of English teachers and their young learners. The first broad category constitutes universal, cross-educational YEFLL indiscipline that is related to the classroom behavior of young EFL learners, which both adults and children consider negative, and that has been proved to appear as such in learning contexts of the same or of a different location, of a variety of subjects, and of a variety of educational levels. This comprises nine indiscipline types—namely, noise making, off-task behavior, verbal and physical aggression, poor attendance, peer hindrance, cheating, disobedience, disrespect, and a negligent attitude toward EFL learning materials such as course books.

Second comes cross-EFLL indiscipline, which embraces similar forms of misconduct occurring across various EFL learning contexts of children, adolescents, and/or adults in the same country or in diverse countries. From the point of view of what occurs in child EFL classrooms, indiscipline is divided into two narrower kinds: common YEFLL and specific YEFLL indiscipline. The former is understood to be acts of EFL young learners' misconduct that tend to be observed in many different learning contexts. The latter relates with those varieties of child misbehavior that either appear in only certain English classes of young learners (in comparison with other YEFLL classes) or that comprise individuals' differing forms of common YEFLL indiscipline.

With regard to misconduct types that take place in a group of learners at an educational institute, specific YEFLL indiscipline includes child misbehavior patterns that are either displayed in a class with more intensity and/or at a higher frequency during the English lesson than during other school subjects or that are shown within the same class in English only. The fourth broad indiscipline category is called EFL task-related indiscipline; it involves behavior acts that usually happen during particular EFL tasks and activities, some of which are normally characteristic of the communicative language teaching (CLT).

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4

YEFLL Indiscipline: Perceptions About Causality

4.1   Introduction

One of the fundamental notions for human thought and action has been identified as causality (Schlottmann et al. 2002). Indeed, human beings life experiences and self-reflective processes manifest the possible existence of an innate tendency to connect troubles with causes in an effort to realize their wish to understand and ease a problem through the best possible way. It is felt that this tendency becomes more conscious and more refined as it develops with age, education, and maturation, as well as with individuals' efforts to use both their knowledge and experiential evidence to make inferences. Inferred causes, then, are usually understood to be closer to reality than to initial subjective understandings.

These attributions, or perceived causations (Kelley and Michela 1980), can be defined as an individual's understandings, explanations, or inferences about what has given rise to a behavior they have observed in others or in themselves (based on Kelley and Michela 1980 and on Miller 1995a). They are thought to be a key and omnipresent kind of social cognition (Miller 1995a), as well as important with regard to the influ-

ence they can exert on behavioral responses (Kullina 2007). In respect of human behavior, according to Kelley and Michela, there are many attribution "theories" (1980, p. 458), which share the core ideas, first, of the causal interpretations of behavior made by individuals and, second, of the influence these interpretations have on defining reactions to the behavior. Such explanations can increase awareness of the close and complex interplay of contextual parameters, the interplay of which may determine an actor's positive or negative behavior towards, for instance, other individuals present in a social event, objects used, or/and processes followed. Attributions also may help individuals understand and predict the consequences the perceived causation may have on an observer's reaction(s) to an observed act(s), may contribute to the specification of the areas that need intervention and of the best possible ways it can be achieved, and consequently may lead to individual development and balance in a human environment. So, in light of this contributional power of attributions, it is not surprising that the literature abounds in relevant studies.

In class, perceived causation of misbehavior patterns can help build a picture of the relationship of the undisciplined with parameters such as the teacher, the other pupil(s), learning materials and learning tasks, work modes, and even with the wider school environment and/or the learners' homes. This can help educators seriously consider how they could better organize lessons, what they should try to avoid and/or include in their plans, which problems they can expect to face, and which possible solutions they could adopt; the ultimate aim being to achieve educational, pedagogical, and learning goals in a harmonic and fulfilling classroom environment.

Within the realm of education, the literature reviewed has given considerable attention to the causes of pupil misbehavior by placing major emphasis on teachers' beliefs. The most important beliefs they may hold about their learners have been claimed to be their understandings of what has brought about learner behavior (Clark and Peterson 1986, currently unavailable; in Georgiou et al. 2002). This is in addition to, according to Brophy (1985), their expectation that these perceptions may influence the teachers' own behavior and/or reactions to students profoundly. Teachers' opinions about causes of indiscipline have also been referred

to as one of the key questions in the effort to understand the problem of learner misbehavior (Türnüklü and Galton 2001), most probably because of their vital role in identifying such issues (Zimmerman et al. 1995). Nonetheless, they also have been considered a basic parameter that determines teachers' decision making about the selection of indiscipline management strategies (Porter 2006).

The study and evaluation of, in particular, the research literature on teacher understandings of children's unwelcome behavior highlighted, on the one hand, the relatively big body of knowledge on attribution and learner academic achievement and, on the other hand, the restricted evidence-based presentation of educators' explanations for and ideas about discipline and behavior problems in elementary school education (Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000; Kullina 2007). Additionally, the literature revealed a deficiency in the provision of the learners' explanations for their own and/or of their peers' classroom behavior.

In respect to children, studies have shown that perceptual causality may be present early in their development process even when they have few experiences (e.g., see Cohen and Amsel 1998; Oakes 1994). In light of the Schlottmann et al.'s related research interpretations (2002), events may attain additional subsequent meanings as aspects of perception attached to experiences combine with innate ones. Schlottmann et al.'s experimental study on children's perception of physical and psychological causality in launch and reaction events confirmed the claim about the presence of perceptual causality early in child development and further proved that it has a role in supporting causal learning. Classroom experience with children confirms the young learners' capability to notice specific events and attach meanings to them with the help of their knowledge and lived experiences; as a result, they too can not only observe indiscipline in their classrooms but also interpret it. Consequently, it would be justified to expect to see an equally large number of reports and studies on the perceptions of learners themselves about the indiscipline that takes place in a learning environment. Additionally, bearing the preceding in mind, and considering the claim that within attribution theory concern lies not only with other people's behavior but also with our own, it would be legitimate to expect research on the possible negative affect of

learner misconduct that both teachers and children may identify in their own classroom behavior.

Nonetheless, this does not seem to be the case because educational research on either of the previous topics is too limited. This is especially so for studies with children on the determinants of learner indiscipline in the school classroom; there are significantly fewer of these than of those with teachers. Child perceptions of negative pupil behavior (i.e., of their own and/or of other young learners) are either seriously disregarded or examined in ways that do not ensure meaningful understanding and/or research trustworthiness. So unfortunately, an adequate body of knowledge has not yet emerged on child understandings of this issue, despite ample data that researchers could collect from them in the children's role as possible research participants. This limitation in the educational literature is further emphasized by the context of numerous studies in other related scientific domains, such as psychology, that have considered both adult and child views, have stressed the importance of child perceptions of various social processes they are part of (e.g., family events and peer relationships) and have led to increased understanding of these procedures.

In the realm of teaching EFL (TEFL), the lack is more severe with regard to research not only on the ways learner misconduct is exhibited, as evident in the previous chapter, but also on English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' and, most importantly, on (young) learners' causal perceptions about classroom indiscipline. Exceptions to this situation may include a too limited number of TEFL writers and researchers who have provided causal perceptions of the forms of classroom conduct that they recognized as negative. By doing this, researchers help us to enrich our mental repertoire with possible roots of indiscipline and direct us to investigating their application in varied EFL learning contexts around the globe on the basis of evidential support.

On the front of older English learners (adolescents and adults), Wadden and McGovern (1991), as noted earlier, dealt with the misbehavior (or "negative participation") of high school and adult EFL learners and identified inaudible responses in English as former exam-centered EFL learning experiences that created in them a sense of mistakes threatening their ego; they also claimed that sleeping in class and sleep deprivation were, respectively, because of prescribed medication and family

crises and understood the unwillingness to speak English as the learners' use of avoidance strategies. Within the Greek secondary school TEFL context, Ball (1973) made reference to learner tiredness, bad habits, and discomfort as possible determinants of disruptive behavior in a male high school relief class, without associating them with particular indiscipline types however.

In primary school education, Carless's case study (2002) and Kuloheri's multi-case investigation (2010) imparted knowledge based on teacher and learner experiences. Carless's concern lay with four major issues that appear during the implementation of task-based learning, one of them being learner misbehavior, from the viewpoint of the EFL educators. So, he did not devote his research skills and efforts to young EFL leaners' misbehavior as such or take advantage of the children's experiences. However, while writing about the noise and indiscipline observed by his teacher participants, and after describing the imbalance between child discipline and EFL task-produced noise, Carless reported on wide discrepancies in learner abilities as teacher-perceived agents of noise during EFL tasks within classes in Hong Kong and made mention of five circumstances under which noise and indiscipline are generated—namely, learners' lack of clarity about task instructions, lively discussions, bombardment with questions, level of task difficulty, and task type. This reference of his, though brief, is very direct, easily perceived, elucidating and useful for individuals interested in the causes of child indiscipline. Carless's identification of learning factors as perceived causation of indiscipline may be said to generally touch on the influential role of learning difficulties in child misconduct in the school classroom; this pupil-related explanation was rendered by Mavropoulou and Padeliadu (2002) in their studies in general primary school education in Northern Greece.

Kuloheri's was, by 2012, the first study of young EFL learner classroom indiscipline that found specific underlying causes of the issue in question, perceived by both participant sides of the learning event. In the following, one can confirm the advantages of carrying out an investigation through the lenses of not only one of the participants of the events (i.e., the teacher) but also of the other side (i.e., of the children). In this way, the perceptive abilities of the individuals experiencing indiscipline are not left untapped, a variety of influential factors can be expounded,

the experienced reality can be understood more deeply, and more effective solutions can be considered.

Overall, the findings in Kuloheri's multi-case study corroborated causal dimensions in the traditional attribution paradigm (Russell 1982), which mirror attributional features that are psychologically meaningful (Weiner 1979). In specific, it brought out three classification types of attributions of primary school EFL classroom indiscipline. The first type of pair is the internal/within-child versus external/out-of-child perceived causation. Internal indiscipline causes are considered to be those misbehavior determinants that lie within the undisciplined child, such as learner demotivation, skills, and emotions, while the external ones are those causal aspects pertinent to the situation in which the undisciplined are. So, these exist outside the children and within the contextual framework they have been functioning when they become undisciplined (e.g., weak classroom management and disturbing peer reactions).

The second classification is reflected in the direct versus indirect perceptual causality pair. Direct causality is understood to embrace those causes of EFL classroom indiscipline from which there is a straightforward result in one's behavior or, in other words, which comprise a direct determinant of misconduct (e.g., anger that produces aggressiveness). In indirect causality, the cause generates a situation or an event, which then produces indiscipline—for example, inadequate learner training in the TEFL approach, leading to misunderstood task aims that then result in improper child acts. As a consequence of its nonobvious character, this attribution may not be sensed without effort, contrary to the direct one, which in the particular data was easily observable.

Finally, teaching experience leads to a third categorization of the recorded indiscipline attributions as stable or unstable, where the former term is used to suggest an unchanging factor and the latter as a parameter that can be improved. This experiential knowledge suggests that the majority of the child-centered causal factors are unstable because of the possibility of being remedied through interventions and, subsequently, to their temporary character. Examples of unstable factors are child unfamiliarity and little training in the TEFL approach, restricted development of indirect learning strategies, learner lack of motivation (i.e., demotivation), attitudes towards the concept of a teacher and self-concept; stable

factors can be EFL task types and features of children's nature and needs. It is strongly believed, however, that research is required to confirm, reject, or modify the preceding knowledge and to evaluate the power of instructional interventions in the alleviation of misbehavior causes and the management of indiscipline.

In terms of the internal versus external classification pair, the preponderance of the EFL teachers' and young EFL learners' attributions for classroom indiscipline were proved to be associated with causes internal to the children such as learner misconceptions, restricted methodological training, underdevelopment of learning strategies, cooperation problems because of learner shortcomings, learner disinterest, and/or negative attitudes to the subject and/or the teacher. From the internal factors in the literature that are claimed to influence behavior, child abilities, feelings, and attitudes were confirmed, while traits were not brought up at all. In comparison with other research on indiscipline, the data proved the assertion that generally elementary school teachers do not see the contribution of school-related factors to misbehavior (Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002). Besides this, internal causality seems to invalidate the immense importance attached to teaching, and it does not explain why the school is considered a factor that reinforces student misbehavior (e.g., see Matsagouras 1999).

Concerning external causality, although teaching practice leads to the certainty that this also may well lie outside the learning environment (and not just outside the child), nevertheless this was weakly supported in the specific investigation. For example, surprisingly, the parent–home parameter was the weakest external attribution of EFL learner indiscipline and, consequently, the least to blame in undisciplined classes. This is in sharp contrast to the findings of a variety of past research in the realm of general primary school education. For example, in Croll and Moses (1985), DES (1989), Miller (1995b, 1996), and Miller and Black (2001), teacher or pupil views indicated parents as a considerable cause of pupil misbehavior. In addition, in Guttman's study (1982) on determinants of learner indiscipline in the school classroom, child participants at the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade levels raised the factor of neighborhood influence too; the other ones were ethnic discrimination, class attitude towards the misbehaving child, and too much punishment.

4.2   Problem Ownership

Understanding and solving a problem successfully seems to depend on two initial critical factors. First must come the definition of the problem, in the sense of clarifying what it means to you—namely, what indiscipline means to each individual and how important an issue it is to them—and then how it is actualized in a certain environment (i.e., which forms indiscipline may take). These two factors have been approached in previous sections. Close to these comes the requirement for naming the individuals who should be given the responsibility for the creation, the exacerbation, the alleviation, and/or the resolution of the problem.

In the multi-case study, problem ownership was not initially set as an assigned theme but was raised as a key omnipresent issue through the analysis of the children's interview responses. Reflection on the study processes and on the participants highlights the children's contribution to the emergence of this theme, which is central to human progress, as well as the impetus of the multi-lens research approach to the development of topics, in addition to those set by the main and supplementary research questions. More particularly, young Greek EFL learners were found to be in a position to hold themselves (and more generally, child learners) accountable for classroom problems such as indiscipline. For example, the child respondents understood that bad behavior was caused when they personally did not make efforts to understand the lesson or pay attention, when they brought their disagreements from the school break into the English classroom, and when they did not do homework because they thought English was something like a little game. Also, in light of their narrations of disruption events, they did not hesitate to put the blame on, for instance, the inability of the class to handle competently the situations in which they were expected to cooperate and to evaluate negatively what they did in class.

On the contrary, the teachers' descriptive and/or explanatory responses indicated their understanding that, from all the learning and teaching parameters, children were to be regarded mainly as responsible for negative behavior. For instance, they put disruptive behavior down to the children's unfamiliarity with the way they asked them to work in class, their

unawareness of the difference between out-of-class and in-class games, and their failure in tasks. There was no overall mention of the possible negative role of their methodological decision making and/or the quality of their teaching. Neither was there evidence of any teacher belief that they themselves had not trained their young learners in the chosen way of teaching, that they had not tried to raise awareness in the pupils of what it means to play inside the classroom, or that they evaluated their teaching in light of the learners' failure in English.

The preceding can validate the educators' proven difficulty in recognizing the share of teacher-related parameters in pupil misconduct (Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002), and the general teacher trend to attribute behavior problems to factors not related to the way they teach (Kullina 2007). From the research front, investigations conducted in the primary and secondary sector worldwide, and with teachers of various school subjects (e.g., Kullina 2007; Maxwell 1987; Soodak and Podell 1994), showed data alignment in that teachers across different countries (e.g., Australia, China, England, Greece, Turkey, and the USA) usually put student misbehavior down to aspects related to the child—for example, to family background, family influence, and student's individual characteristics—but not to parameters associated with the instructional and school context.

4.3 Causes of YEFLL Indiscipline

Now this chapter proceeds with the causes that emerged from the recording, analysis and interpretation of the qualitative research data. The findings can put forward the petite generalization that in young EFL classes in Greece, and possibly in other contexts similar to the Greek ones, learner indiscipline may be attributed to six significant factors applicable to TEFL environments that bear features of mainly learner-centered, holistic, communicative teaching. They are: (1) the children's restricted training in the TEFL methodological approach to which they are exposed; (2) the underdevelopment of metacognitive, affective, and social indirect learning strategies; (3) the young learners' self-concept during EFL learning; (4) the learners' attitude towards the EFL school

subject and the EFL teacher; (5) learner demotivation; and (6) parental advice on learners' behavior.

These attributions were agreed on by English teachers and, most important, by children. The fact that some were not mentioned by all EFL teachers can strengthen the claim that there may be "systematic differences" between the attribution structures of teachers working in various settings (Gibbs and Gardiner 2008, p. 74). What is more important, the Gibbs and Gardiner claim can be extended to children too, because the types of perceptual causality were not shared by all young learners either.

Bearing in mind the causality of misbehavior raised by philosophical and/or religious systems, the general observation can be made that some of the expressions through which each causal attribute is actualized corelate with human characteristics that such systems connected with negative behaviors. For instance, Confucianism mentioned egocentricity and lack of sincerity. In Buddhism, features of one of the five aggregates purported to comprise the being—namely, that of Mental Formations— coincide with some of the parameters in children that, when absent or present (depending on the parameter), were found to give rise to their indiscipline; in specific, not only the features of attention, will, determination, confidence, and the idea of self but also conceit and ignorance.

Despite the fact that the perceived causality expounded below has been found to apply in Greek young EFL learning contexts, the possibility may exist that it be true for undisciplined young EFL learners of other nationalities in similar learning contexts around the globe. This remains to be examined by TEFL researchers. Future findings would be of extreme interest and usefulness for the advancement of quality in EFL teaching and learning all over the world.

4.3.1   Limited Training in the TEFL Approach

This first causal component refers to what teachers and children felt to be a difference between the nontraditional nature of the TEFL approach and the children's habitual learning in more conventional ways, and to what was disclosed to be the teachers' minimal (or no) effort to train them in their methodology.

Starting with teachers' views, data across English classes support the conclusion that when there is a discrepancy between the unconventional, more modern TEFL methodology and the more traditional one prevailing across the rest of the school subjects, and when young EFL learners are unfamiliar with and/or insufficiently trained in this TEFL approach, they may misunderstand its objective, which in this particular case was to learn to communicate in English, the procedures involved and the space provided by it for freer classroom behavior. So, the learners may engage in actions perceived by them and English teachers alike as indiscipline. Teacher perceptions also suggest that misinterpretations about the TEFL methodology can affect the number of discipline instances encountered and their frequency of occurrence.

More precisely, one of the English teachers interpreted the child indiscipline she described in the following terms, which can be considered a critical example of her understanding about the sources of indiscipline in relation to her teaching approach:

> "*Maybe the ki::ds, ... the way tha::::t, + we work, + in the lesson, i::::s + e::::r new to them, that is tha:::t, + they are going to play in their groups, will work, + will. have to talk, ... simultaneously. + maybe the kids are not familiarized, and because the kids too must get trained, + in order to work in pairs, ... or groups, in the classroom. and when they don't do this, in the other subjects, + maybe these give them, + uhm + they misunderstand it, and believe tha:::t, + our lesson is a way-out for them to do, their own things too.*"

As can seen, this adult participant perceived the inconsistency between her method and the method adopted in the other school subjects as a factor that encouraged children's misconceptions about the behavioral freedom her own methodology gave. She also raised the point about the children's unfamiliarity with her method, which she thought was novel to them, and their lack of training in it as two determinants of child misconduct. Finally, she stated her understanding that this unfamiliarity misled the children about the allowed frequency with which their freer behavior could occur and about the behavior types permitted by adding:

"*they believe that, they can do it more often.*" and "*they believe that, since they must, since the opportunity is given to me to speak, + I can do more things.*"

Another English teacher also pointed out the difference between the TEFL methodology and the methodology applied by Greek language teachers by stating:

"*I think that, we, because we have a way of thinking from abroad, … that Greek teachers do not have, that is the children, when we play ga:::mes, + or we may:::::, + dramatize somethi:::ng, … various methods we use, + or projects, + tha:::t, + exist, in our methodology, … long before, … the Greek teachers discover the project plan, +*"

Unlike the first teacher, however, she did not refer to the learners' unfamiliarity with it. Instead, she focused only on their misunderstanding about the degree of freedom they got from this framework by noting:

"*All all these things give the child the impression, … that they can, + do whatever they want in class. make noise, and and and, + which shouldn't be like this. okay. You expect that in class, + when we play a game, … there will be:::::, relative noise, + but this doesn't mean, that each one can do whatever occurs to them.*"

The word "impression" in this extract, as well as her view that they regard English as "*the break, + from their teacher. where they probably feel they can do things they can't do when they're with him. +*" can denote the teacher's belief that the learners had formed the false idea of English as being a break.

Surprisingly, child data across the cases substantiate the idea about these misunderstandings formed by young learners. This was especially clear in the forceful metaphor a boy respondent gave of their English lesson being "*a free field*" offering them the chance to act as they wish, although their English teacher had informed the researcher that classroom rules and consequences were enforced all year round. Some other child participants mentioned that they understood that their peers believed English to be "*an entertainment*", "*fun*", "*a game*" and "*a break.*" Indicatively, a

girl said that her peers would use physical force in the English class after the break because:

> "*They have disagreements in the break, and then. + as soon as they enter the classroo::m, + they say there. This lesson is a game, + let's disagree in the classroom too.*"

Another girl participant added that her classmates:

> "*don't do homewo::rk, + becau:::se, they think, + English is a little game.*"

Further support was provided by a boy's original drawing of his EFL classroom, where three boys engaged themselves freely, at their teacher's presence, with things completely irrelevant to the lesson. During the time the child participants interpreted their drawings, the boy explained that the children would do what they wanted in English.

Supplementary data from the Greek teachers reinforced the conclusion about young learners' misconceptions about the nature of the EFL school lesson. One of the teachers provided the view that the children would see the fun aspect of English more by saying:

> "*They've seen it so more or less, + as a game. + they go, … because they do enjoy themselves. I do see them happy when they go to English.*", while another one thought "*in games, in English, … the message to the childre:::n, + it's the time of χαβαλέ.*" (/havá le/: a Greek word denoting intense enjoyment of a bad taste).

The differences between the two language teaching and learning methodologies can be documented with data recorded during the analysis stage as "additional." Specifically, teaching in the L1 class was of the knowledge-transmission type, teacher-centered, and textbook-directed. Especially in one of the classes, the L1 teaching approach took the form of strict, intensive, military-type exercising with minimal possible relaxation time and communication. Jokes, smiles, and any sign of happiness were systematically avoided because these would signal to the children, as the Greek teacher said, "*that we ha::ve, a celebration, + a pa:::rty::!*" Children

reported that the EFL frontistirio tuition (i.e., private language institute) was of the same type, which can mean that attendance at frontistirio lessons by young EFL learners probably reinforce learner familiarity with traditional language learning. In the frontistirio, grammar lessons were said to be structural, and the whole approach was exam-oriented, aiming "*to prepare learners for language certificates and, subsequently, to stuff the kids with ... exercises*".

On the contrary, the TEFL approach at school bore features of the communicative one, according to interview and questionnaire data. The teachers aimed at the development of the young learners' communicative ability in English (i.e., reading, listening, writing, and speaking skills). The classes did pair/group activities of a (quasi-) communicative type, which is a way of promoting the communicative approach (Littlewood 1981). For instance, in two of the four cases, they would do project work, speaking information-gap tasks, interactive grammar activities, arts and crafts, games and songs, and competitions. A variety of supplementary teaching materials were employed, which could enhance learner-centeredness such as flashcards, storybooks for their reading corner, child videos, and computer materials. In the other two cases, practice in language use was limited to games and contests, while a number of similar materials were used.

With regard to the children's familiarity with the traditional teaching and learning method and its relation to their negative behavior during the English lesson, one can interpret it as follows. Children are exposed to a transmission-type language learning methodology that is comprised of austerity and discipline and excludes movement and features of what Oxford (1990: 14) calls "naturalistic communication" (e.g., grimaces, smiles, and jokes). So, they may learn from their L1 teacher (even indirectly and subconsciously) that such characteristics cause commotion and thus confuse, distract concentration, and upset order. Probably, they also learn that elements of naturalistic communication cannot go hand-in-hand with classroom learning, but rather are suited to the school break. Therefore, when they are exposed to a new, less conventional, or more modern approach, where these features are in force, they cannot recognize the limits between them as features of the different but serious teaching method and the characteristics of a break. Thus, they consider them

as a sign for laxness and for the release of pent-up energy and/or emotions and therefore engage in behavior unsuitable to the English lesson.

The EFL young learners' knowledge about the traditional method of language learning at school and its adoption as the "right" one, in Greece and in similar educational systems around the globe, can be explained diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically, it is reinforced by the fact that the children have been being taught with this method since the start of their primary school life, and by the fact that the L1 teacher has been established in the children's minds as the basic school teacher, the one who determines the way they should be taught and learn. Synchronically, it is enhanced by the many teaching periods in which L1 is taught at school (compared to English)—this can strengthen the children's habit in learning this way—, by the increased time of frontistirio (foreign language institute) tuition and by the equally traditional frontistirio TEFL approach. The fact that these language institutes are associated with success in language exams and with the acquisition of language certificates can emphasize in the learners' minds the appropriateness of the traditional method for acquiring English as a foreign language.

Now with regard to the children's unfamiliarity with and lack of training in the TEFL school approach, the reported fact that one of the teachers was teaching this class for two consecutive years with the same method may be considered indicative of the absence or limited presence of systematic, planned child training in the teacher's approach and methodology and/or the fruitless teacher efforts towards this direction. Case study data can reinforce the argument that this may be the result of the time factor; that is, the limited formal time allocated to the English subject in the primary school program and the teacher's subsequent pressure to cover the syllabus. This time seems to counteract the EFL teacher's wish to train them. As she mentioned:

> "*Becau:::se, + I take, the classes ready:::::. + I:::, see the cla:::sses, too little, to shape, + the cli:mate ... that would satisfy me::. + that i::::s, + there are times, when when, + we say tha::t, + we function well. + but, with a couple of day:::s, away, + or a holiday::::, + there are times, ... when we need to start, ... all over again.*"

The indiscipline literature contributes to the recognition of the restricted EFL tuition time as an indiscipline factor affecting all the grades of school education—for example, Haritou (2008) characterized it as a cause of indiscipline in Greek secondary school EFL classes too.

In addition to the time factor, observation data can indicate that possibly the English lessons may not comprise communicative tasks as frequently as necessary for the children to get used to the relevant teaching method. For example, in none of the lessons observed was there any training component such as a statement about task aims and/or an explanation of task processes. A reading lesson observed proved to be teacher-centered, while another one comprised "language-focused" tasks (Harmer 1991, p. 289) that had an "anti-communicative nature"—namely, it was controlled practice in the form of vocabulary and pronunciation drills, fill-ins, and write-the-answer exercises. Especially the explicit language practice can suggest the employment of a direct L2 instruction approach (Celce-Murcia et al. 1997).

Last, but not least, the course books were affirmed to be structured. As Harmer (1991) put it, when in a communicative EFL classroom students are regularly involved in for instance drills or fill-ins, then activities of a communicative type (e.g., discussions, role plays, and dialogue-making) do not add to this approach. In conclusion, within the context of the daily "bombarding" of children with a traditional instructional mechanism, inconsistent application of a nontraditional TEFL method may delay children's familiarization with it, or even confuse them.

Besides the indirect, internal indiscipline causes of unfamiliarity with and lack of adequate training in the TEFL approach and the direct, internal cause of the children's misinterpretations about it, child data (triangulated with data from the Greek teachers) can further document the additional application of two determinants. First is the direct, internal one of the children's inner need for entertainment. The evidence strengthens the assertion that young EFL learners are attracted by the game-like, entertaining, and fun aspect of the communicative approach (Brewster et al. 2002) because of their love for play (Kahn 1991; Scott and Ytreberg 1990); so, these features prevail in their minds over others to the extent that they engage in actions understood as undesired.

Second, from the point of view of the learning factors that define the TEFL context, the kinds of tasks and activities selected to lead YEFLLs to language acquisition have been proven to be an indirect, external determinant of indiscipline, creating those conditions that invite children to have fun while learning. Evidence about the EFL task types that are associated with pupil indiscipline shows that their characteristics relate to "fun and games"—namely activities loosely thought of as entailing play and enjoyment (Rixon 1991). Moreover, because of the comparatively intensive character of (Greek) school lessons, EFL fun and games possibly are perceived by the young learners as a chance to escape from school pressure. In this case, EFL taught communicatively may belong to those school subjects (such as music, art, and PE) that are believed to facilitate the occurrence of pupil misbehavior because pupils feel that there they can relax after the more formal, intense lessons on the core subjects (Türnüklü and Galton 2001).

Carless's case study analysis (2002, 2003) of teacher perceptions about noise during the implementation of EFL tasks in primary school classes in Hong Kong verified EFL task features (e.g., those of role-playing) as an indirect, external causal attribution of indiscipline on the EFL research front. Further research on the EFL task factor would be welcome so that the particular activity features that make learning more demanding and may raise indiscipline can be elucidated. So, better classroom management could be facilitated.

4.3.2 Underdeveloped Indirect Learning Strategies

In light of Oxford's taxonomies of strategies (1990), characterized as maybe "the most comprehensive classification" (Ellis 1994: 539), the multi-case study findings bring to light a link between undisciplined behavior and underdeveloped indirect strategies in Greek state school English classes of children between 9 and 10 (internal, indirect causality). Specifically, they lend support to the conclusion that, in such contexts, the kinds of negative child EFL classroom behaviors seen by English teachers and young learners as indiscipline may be indirectly caused by the insufficient development in learners of strategies that do not involve the subject

matter itself (Lessard-Clouston 1997); however, they are linked with the general management of one's learning (Oxford 1990).

More analytically, teacher and child perceptions emphasize the belief that young English learners do not behave themselves because they cannot see the task aim and/or purpose, they get distracted easily, and they have cooperation difficulties. These situations are believed to result indirectly from the learners' limited training in the metacognitive strategies of, respectively, knowledge about task and about centering attention, in the affective strategy of controlling one's emotions, and in the social strategy of cooperating with others.

One's ability for self-reflection and self-management is also connected with learner autonomy in FL learning (Little et al. 2002). Through this association, the claimed relationship between indirect learning strategies and learner independence can be attested to (e.g., see Macaro 2006), and an interrelation can be drawn between disciplined behavior and learner autonomy. Thus, an additional relationship can be posed indirectly between undisciplined behavior and decreased learner autonomy in FL learning. This subsequently can imply that the techniques used to enhance EFL learner autonomy and self-management in language learning may facilitate the improvement of learner behavior in class.

4.3.2.1   Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies can be regarded as procedures beyond the cognitive level that may help individuals back up effective learning by taking actions that can orient themselves to certain foci, frame learning stages, and judge the quality, amount, importance, and/or value of their learning. In terms of language learning, these strategies can be thought of, in light of the preceding, as necessary for one's capacity for self-management.

As seen earlier, the research data led to one of the three components of learner metacognition—namely, knowledge about learning, which is defined as knowledge about cognitive processes and products or anything related to them. The other two components are the ability to use cognitive strategies and knowledge of the self, according to Williams and Burden (1997). More particularly, the data proved that the absence or

restricted development of two kinds of knowledge about learning—specifically knowledge about the task and knowledge about the importance of centering attention—can generate indiscipline in an EFL class, which is a sign of young learners' limited ability to respond to the task requirements as expected and to focus on them, thus to regulate themselves during the EFL learning procedure.

In the past too, learner misunderstandings of procedures (Scarpaci 2007) and lack of clarity about what to do in English tasks in a Chinese class of children (Carless 2002) were underlined as parameters reinforcing learner misconduct. Moreover, in Türnüklü and Galton's comparative study on misbehavior (2001) in unspecified school subjects in English and Turkish schools, most of the interviewees from both countries provided the learning-related indiscipline determinants of lack of understanding and subsequent learner difficulty with activities, and learner demotivation because of a lack of understanding about on-task teacher expectations. Queries, such as what exactly children need when they say they do not want to be confused with instructions, and what they do not understand about activities, however, were not answered in the relative works.

Lack of or limited task knowledge appeared in the study as an indiscipline cause within the communicative TEFL methodological framework, and especially where the children were shown to not have yet become adequately familiar with the learning objectives and procedures of this approach. In the interview data of the multi-case study (Kuloheri 2010), this element was illustrated when an English teacher reported her learners' limited understanding of task processes by saying:

> "*The children + seem no::t to know, that speaking, has a purpose, and that i:::t's, **part** of the process, +*", and that it cannot be realized in class with teacher-initiated questions only, "***but** , … that you must also::::, do it in your groups too:::. speak.*"

Regarding learner experiences, a girl participant openly stated her ignorance of task purposes in the case of a follow-up activity that she considered separate from the English lesson. As she pointed out:

"*... sometimes we don't <u>have</u> a lesson <u>only</u> . …. some days some we ha::::ve half a lesson, readi::ng, she teaches us something on the board, and then she tells us "draw." but I don't know why she's doing it.*"

Another teacher participant also confided to the researcher about her belief that the children misbehaved during EFL games because, besides being unfamiliar with them ("*in year four the children are not <u>used</u> to playing games...*"), they still had not acquired an understanding of the rule-governed procedures for carrying out such tasks in class, nor of the different contextual features that characterize them in comparison with out-of-class activities:

" *… + and until they understand tha:::t, + the game has rules … one way or another … and it's, er … an activity that occurs in the class. + of course we aren't in the school yard. where we have the comfort, to::, screa:m, and do various things.*"

Within the context of the English classrooms more consciously oriented towards the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, the reasons why task knowledge may not have been fully developed possibly could be that communicative activities were not done as often as necessary for the children to get used to the processes involved, and/or that the English class was not prepared properly for these tasks. In the rest of the cases, knowledge about task was justifiably not established because of the restricted application of the communicative methodology and/or the teacher's possible negative personal stance towards it. Alternatively, in all the cases, the EFL educators may have limited confidence, restricted experience, and/or little knowledge in organizing and handling activities of a communicative nature.

Concerning distractibility as an indiscipline determinant in English classes, it is claimed that young learners are not able to concentrate for long (Holden 1980, in Brewster 1991). But more importantly, when children are bombarded with new information and experiences, and things are out of their control (as is obviously the case during their unfamiliarity with the communicative TEFL methodology), then they may opt for distraction (Berk 2003; Holden 1980, in Brewster 1991).

An interesting finding was that children in all four cases believed that their classmates behaved negatively as a result of getting distracted by peer misbehavior such as chatting and engagement with irrelevant things. For instance, one of them said:

> "*E:::r* (trembling voice) *one day, + whe:::n in one lesson, X was laughing all the time, and a:::nd and the:::: children did no:::t + did not concentrate on the lesson, a:::nd were laughing with X.*"

Three of the English teachers clearly attributed their learners' misconduct to interference:

> "*The others get tuned out by the undisciplined peers,*" or that *"simply they're carried away say:::: and get out of control. +.*"

In addition, the school heads agreed and expressed the position that it was understandable that pupil indiscipline distracts the children's attention, and group learning is interrupted and does not proceed properly.

In light of the previous triangulated data, beliefs indicating that de-centering of child attention was because of the external distractor of peer misbehavior may denote distraction as not only a cause of negative behavior but also a side effect of classroom disruption (Lewis 2001). Also, further research evidence clearly has shown that a lack of task knowledge can be an indirect determinant of learner distraction in English, in view of its possible result that children do not understand an activity and thus become easily absorbed in irrelevant things (Türnüklü and Galton 2001).

4.3.2.2   Affective Strategies

Affective strategies are actions that can assist learners in controlling emotions, attitudes, motivations, and values (Oxford 1990). From the existing types, child and teacher perceptions in the multi-case study indicated learner difficulty in controlling emotions as a direct, internal attribution of indiscipline. Consequently, an indirect causal relationship was revealed between learner indiscipline and underdeveloped learner affective

strategies for assessing and handling emotions, especially within a non-traditional TEFL approach. The determinants of negative emotions were identified to be certain activity types and bad peer relations.

Regarding activities, these were EFL games, songs, and contests. The children shared their experience that peers misbehaved because of forceful feelings such as overexcitement and a clear eagerness for participation, intense dissatisfaction with game results, and anger. While talking about games, one of the teachers reported:

> "*so::me whe:::n their team loses cry. + the other laught at them.*"

Another child characteristically said:

> "*E:::r, I say, tha:t some, … some, some* <u>*kids*</u> *, in our class, + were whini::ng, a::nd + becoming upset. a:::nd making some stupidities and the like, because they also wanted to stand up to::: say, to::: say, to to + to say one, and … the others guess, in this game. and they were making various* <u>*gri::maces*</u> *, gru::mbles, … because + they were* <u>*not*</u> *standing up* <u>***themselves***</u> *.*"

The findings showed that indeed those task types that serve the principles of communicative ELT approaches—namely, to inspire successful language use without any conscious analysis of it (Kahn 1991)—may trigger stronger emotions than other tasks, which children cannot become aware of and control in the absence of adequately developed affective strategies; thus, they engage in behavior identified as indiscipline. The confirmed absence of such activities in the L1 lesson and the reported seriousness that prevailed there may explain why emotion-based misbehavior during the L1 lessons did not occur.

Concerning the second emotional determinant of bad peer relations, the interpretation of certain child drawings by their creators showed that bad peer deeds also would bring about intense classmates' negative feelings such as dissatisfaction, unhappiness, sadness, and anger; under the circumstances of underdeveloped strategies for emotional control, these feelings could in turn result in disruptive behavior. Again, the fact was reported that, contrary to the English lesson, the same relations did not

influence L1 tuition, and that the children would express them only during the break, not in class.

This may be because the L1 teacher's methodological practice did not encourage their expression. Alternatively, if it did allow for their expression but no indiscipline problem was induced, and taking for granted that emotional control during English was not feasible, then the automatic transfer of effective learning strategies (e.g., controlling emotions) from one learning context to another (e.g., from L1 to L2/FL learning) could be considered difficult or not applicable.

4.3.2.3   Social Strategy of Cooperation

Social strategies have been defined as techniques that contribute to the increase of communication and of "empathetic understanding" (Oxford 1990, p. 8)—that is, qualities considered essential for learning with other human beings and for becoming competent communicatively. The data revealed that child misconduct in English was directly connected to the young EFL learners' difficulty in cooperating smoothly with peers during pair/group work and, in light of this, indirectly related to their restricted training in peer cooperation, which is one of the two social language learning strategies.

This is reflected, for instance, in child reports that during group work a fuss was created because peers resisted doing a task with others, interrupted others, and had difficulty deciding who would do what and in sharing task material. For example, two children said:

> "*When, … when we do::, an an + act activ activity, + er some want to do it **I**. all **alo:::ne** , + some say "no, we'll do it together," … and so a murmur is created. … and they sho:::ut, + and after a **whole** hour he was saying "I'll do this," another was saying the same, and we cou:::ldn't, … we couldn't agree who was doing what!* (in a complaining tone)."

> "*Some kids, er + in the groups they are i::n, + don't let the o:::thers, concentrate in the lesso:n, and they::: disturb them, + the time they want to write something.* (another child adds) *and take their rubber, penci::ls, hide them away::, +.*"

Teacher-reported information confirms the preceding and further suggests that this kind of difficulty again can be associated particularly with communicative, learner-centered teaching and experiential learning, which require peer cooperation for effective language acquisition. In addition, it indicated the relevance of this difficulty with "informal cooperative learning"—namely, having learners work together to achieve a common learning goal in temporary groups lasting from some minutes to one period (Johnson and Johnson 1999, p. 69).

Even though children enjoy and prefer working with friends (Shak and Gardner 2008), their traditional L1 school learning may account for these difficulties to a large extent. In light of the work of Shak and Gardner, this framework may have instilled in the learners the individualistic, competitive working mode that such approaches favor. Coupled with the children's unfamiliarity with the principles and objectives of the TEFL methodology and with self-involvement in learning, this may urge the young EFL learners to opt for taking pleasure in the profits of working well on their own, uninterested in collaborating and/or unaware of the advantages of cooperation. They also may dislike group or pair arrangements, may not have developed socially appropriate behavior (e.g., not interrupting), or simply do not know how to perform certain communicative functions (e.g., asking for shared material in the proper way and at the right time).

4.3.3 Self-concept

In the multi-case study, indiscipline in a class of young EFL learners also was shown to be the result of child frustration about the disproof of the positive image they try to construct for peers and adults (English teachers and parents) in relation to their EFL knowledge and abilities. In particular, teachers believed that children behaved properly in English when they wanted to display a positive image of themselves to their educator and their classmates, so as to make a good impression; nonetheless, when they were shown to not know something, they acted inappropriately.

The central issue in this emergent indiscipline cause appears to be, first, that of the self-concept in child development (Berk 2003)—namely, the merging of the perceptions of one's self ("self-image"), of the evalua-

tive feelings resulting from one's self-image ("self-esteem"), and of one's beliefs about one's abilities ("self-efficacy"), according to Williams and Burden (1997). More particularly, children seem to be trying to construct their self-image during EFL learning, as they tend to do in other subjects. Obviously, they wish this to be positive, so one of the things they do to achieve it is to behave as expected (e.g., in disciplined ways and with correct English responses). But then again, when they are found to not know something in English, which means to them that they are faced with a failure, and when they are confronted with their difficulty in handling emotions and/or peer relationships, it seems difficult for them to see their own truth. So, negative feelings develop, which children cannot manage and/or control. In the absence of the required skills, they become undisciplined, probably in an unconscious effort to react to this unpleasant situation and release their overall pent-up emotions.

The research findings also posed the matter of the negative connection of frustration because of scholastic and social difficulties (e.g., failure and peer fights/arguments) with misconduct (e.g., significant child aggressiveness), a subject that like discouragement and even dislike for school was pointed out early in education (e.g., see Yarrow 1948). Frustration (or, more generally, negative emotions) has been directly observed as a causal parameter in indiscipline in contexts such as the investigated ones, so it can be called "a direct, causal component." Because it occurs within the child, it also can be recognized as internal causation.

Failure (or, more generally, unsuccessful EFL learning efforts) and social dysfunctions appear to play a causal role in EFL classroom indiscipline at the innate structure of the undisciplined, so they can be considered "indirect, internal causal components." Along the same line of reasoning, the low self-esteem that results in children because of the preceding direct parameters of misconduct can be viewed as an additional internal source of indiscipline. Low self-esteem (and attitude; see next section) already has been perceived as a causal aspect of indiscipline in primary school learners by Mavropoulou and Padeliadu (2002), so now Kuloheri's data enhanced that particular claim.

Furthermore, the data provided support to the statement that between 8 and 11 children lay emphasis on self-competencies (Berk 2003) and indicated the indirect causal role that self-concept can play in child behav-

ior during FL learning. Teacher and child perceptions across the investigated cases also can reinforce the argument that, inherent in this effort to construct self-concept, may be the children's egocentric tendency to show they know—as one of the English teachers said "*children belie:::ve they are the <u>center</u> of the world!*" This is in addition to their natural developmental traits to feel secure (Scott and Ytreberg 1990) for example by knowing something, to care in general about approval (Berk 2003) and in light of teaching experience, in particular, about peer approval or social acceptability from classmates, and to gain attention (Scarpaci 2007).

The perceived competitive drive of the children in English classes can reflect their tendency to compare performance and abilities with those of peers (Berk 2003). This can be a way to build self-concept and a sense of identity (Williams and Burden 1997); or according to a teacher's belief, a way to gain the sense of superiority and the confidence they need. Although it has been claimed that peers come last in the hierarchy of the most influential figures in the construction of the child's self-concept (Berk 2003), the bulk of the child-reported case study data disproved this and instead indicated that peer competencies stimulate the development of a child's self-concept most in the Greek young EFL learners' classrooms. For example, peers were said to interrupt the lesson to show that they had studied, and negative behavior (e.g., cheating on English tests and breaking in on the lesson) was said to be because of their strong need "*to show they know.*" Within the focus groups, child participants attributed laughing at peers and talking out of turn to the undisciplined learners' inner competitive drive—namely, the impulse to "*appear better than others.* +."

Going back to the two causal features of negative emotions such as frustration and rebuff of one's positive image because of unsuccessful communication and failed EFL learning efforts, educational and pedagogical knowledge, and TEFL experiences suggest that young EFL learners may get undisciplined in class because, along with their deficiency in handling and/or controlling negative feelings, they may have received restricted (or possibly no) training in self-evaluation processes. This hampers them from acknowledging the language aspects they have developed effectively, from improving their self-concept, and from helping themselves to deal positively with negative emotions and strong desires. So, at an underlying level, the limited development of the affective and metacognitive, evalu-

ative learning strategies may be reinforced as what has been called in earlier sections indirect, internal causes of learners' classroom misconduct.

Moreover, child perceptions can suggest the negative influence that, within the context of the young learners' developing maturity, supplementary EFL tuition may exert on pupil behavior during the basic English lesson (e.g., at school) through the enhancement of the construction of their positive self-concept. One girl said, for example:

> "*Some kids who know::::, … those who learned at the fronstistirio, e:::r break in, say 'yes yes, miss I know::!' and pretend to be the all-know::::ers, they think they know everything. +.*"

In light of the developmental process of children at years 9 and 10 (Berk 2003), it is understandable that those children who attend supplementary English lessons are more self-confident and build high self-efficacy about their achievements in EFL learning. Ultimately, a combination of their egocentricity, their competitiveness, their need to project a good image to teachers and parents and the inadequately developed affective strategies for emotional self-regulation can urge them to act in ways that are believed to be undisciplined during the basic EFL lesson.

Considering the verified difficulty of young English learners to work together in class, the preceding findings and the developmental features in children, indiscipline also may be because of the threat that collaborative learning implicates to a child's self-concept and public image—that is, in case the learner is afraid of disclosing EFL-related weaknesses. Case study data have shown that EFL knowledge gaps and lack of EFL understanding seem to be linked in children's and teachers' minds with negative behavior (e.g., refusal to do a task and lack of participation). So, for instance, insisting on doing tasks by oneself may be explained with the possibility that children compare their language abilities with those of peers, feel they lack adequate language knowledge to respond to the task, and thus experience cooperation as a feature of insecurity. In this case, a low self-concept and gaps in EFL may influence learners' cooperative ability directly and classroom behavior indirectly.

In summary, as is evident throughout this chapter too, young EFL learner indiscipline emerges as the consequence of a complex interplay

of several factors fundamental to language acquisition and child development. In light of the preceding data and conclusions, EFL educators are required to bear in mind that the formation of the children's self-concept can be influenced by a large number of specifications and conditions in the English class to the extent that full and constant alertness is required on learners' behalf. Such powerful EFL parameters are the following: insufficient learning and accomplishments, problems in socializing and cooperating, negative feelings during learning, personal reactions to achievements, childrens' need to build a positive self-concept, to be approved of and to feel secure, and learners' self-centeredness and competitiveness.

4.3.4   Attitude Towards the EFL Subject and the Teacher

Learner attitude in the literature appears to be a very powerful and significant parameter because it can affect behavior even when teachers engage in disciplinary actions (Lewis 2001). In Kuloheri's research, a direct, internal negative causal relationship is displayed between classroom behavior and learner attitudes to the subject and/or the subject instructor across English classes. Furthermore, participants' understandings reinforce the social constructivist view of learning by strengthening the overall claim that language learning is influenced especially by learner attitudes towards the learning conditions, not to mention, of course, the effect of the social situation, the context, and the culture in which it occurs (Williams and Burden 1997).

In light of the study data, a number of indirect, internal causes of learner misbehavior have been specified in terms of learner attitude. First, the attendance of supplementary EFL lessons outside school emerged as influential. Specifically, the direct causal relation between learner attitude and indiscipline was found to apply to learners who received supplementary tuition in English (e.g., at a frontistirio; private foreign language institute) besides their main EFL education (e.g., at school). So, there is evidential support for the modest generalization that young EFL learners in Greek state schools may misbehave in class (e.g., be inattentive, not

participate, or not do homework/class work) because they are indifferent or adverse to the subject but also because at a deeper level they underestimate their English school teachers so do not recognize in them the central role they see in their EFL frontistirio tutor. It is noteworthy that the Haritou (2008) list of determinants of misbehavior of Greek secondary EFL students also included "negative attitude towards EFL"; this underscores the possible extension of the problem to the whole of compulsory EFL school education in Greece.

Effective EFL instruction supplementary to the basic one provides learners with the subsequent certainty that they can acquire the English syllabus elsewhere (besides at school) and that they can do so in a better way. For instance, a girl interviewee told the interviewer-researcher about a classmate of hers who was being undisciplined by not considering homework compulsory and not doing class work:

> "*A::h I think tha::::t because he goes to, because he goes to a frontistirio, e::::: he may believe tha:::t it doesn't matter. even if I don't do it I don't care what grade I'll get, in the frontistirio I'll learn it better.*"

Data triangulation reinforced frontistirio attendance as one underlying reason for the children's negative attitude to EFL learning at school.

The second indirect and internal root of child indiscipline during basic EFL lessons was suggested in the multi-case study by the EFL teachers. It included the influence that learners accept from their parents in relation to the importance and quality of their primary EFL learning. This conclusion added to the claim that child attitudes to school are connected with their parents' aspirations for her or his learning and their values about education (Porter 2006). In particular, parents expressed their negative attitude towards the main school EFL education and their positive attitude towards supplementary tuition in English. One of the English teachers characteristically said:

> "*Their parents' attitu::de, … to our lesson, influences them **very** much . about, … how the children, er, face this subject, by the parents who give priority to the frontistirio where, … their kids attend lessons. + they belie::ve, … that English is on the one hand a compulsory subject, + but of minor importance to the frontistirio English.*"

A side effect of this was reported to be that the children recognized their institute English teacher as the central one, so they did not show their English school teacher the required respect.

Extensive TEFL experience at Greek state schools can explain the emergence of the preceding attitudinal factors as follows. TEFL at Greek primary state schools is believed to be ineffective for the reasons that learners do not acquire the language system successfully or develop communicative competence to the desired extent, and that EFL school learning does not lead to the much desired formal certification of EFL knowledge. This has resulted in the devaluation of EFL state education and of EFL state school teachers in parents' and children's minds, and in turn to the appreciation of institute tuition, which as a child participant's belief showed, may be of higher quality. Consequently, English at school has been looked at as a trivial subject of minor importance, although learning English is much favored in Greece; and the English school teacher has been seen as inferior to the private tutor.

Learners' and parents' attitudes towards compulsory EFL education also are associated with the third indirect, internal indiscipline cause that emerged—namely, the understanding of both children and parents that the main L1 teacher has the predominant position in primary school education, and that all the other education specialists (e.g., FL, art, and music teachers) are secondary figures. Specifically, child interviewees expressed the minor importance attached to their EFL school teacher, and associated it with the increased contact time they had with their L1 teacher, who would raise fear in them. One of the Greek main teachers explained their pivotal position at schools in terms of the fact that most of the pupils' grades depended on them. Within this context, and in light of the fact that EFL learning basically takes place in private language institutes, one of the English teachers was justified in feeling that she was just "*a helping figure*" in the children's EFL learning, while the L1 teacher was the person "*they recognize, … as the + teacher figure in a class +.*"

As seen previously, this recognition of and good opinion about the mother-tongue teacher additionally was put down by children to the increased contact time between them. Perceptions about teacher–pupil interaction time once more can raise the issue about the limited time the formal school program allows for learners and English teachers; that is,

mainly the effect this can have on learner attitudes towards teachers of English and on pupils' behavior in EFL classes. The perceived high position of L1 teachers in the school education system may contribute, too, to the explanation about the reason why their language learning methodology dominates the children's minds.

4.3.5 Demotivation

Voluminous data from the Greek EFL teachers and the child participants across the investigated schools was in support of the position that "demotivation" for EFL learning can function as a direct, internal factor that determines the way young learners behave in English classes. The fact that the largest number of indiscipline types was attributed to boredom and lack of interest during school EFL learning lends support to the possibility that demotivation may be one of the primary factors shaping undesired behavior in the EFL classroom in Greece—and probably in other comparable EFL learning contexts around the globe—and to the necessity to prioritize the elimination of it for the management of misbehavior. The term *demotivation* was chosen to denote the reported perceptions about pupil weariness and disinterest in the English lessons, in light of the interview responses of children that in their majority reflected a decrease in their initial enthusiasm for English and in their motivation to learn the language; for example, so that they can communicate with people, get a future job, and get to know foreign customs.

In the past, boredom was mentioned as a causal origin of indiscipline in a Greek adolescent relief male EFL class too (Ball 1973); however, in the literature about the primary school EFL context, this kind of relationship was not captured. One could mention a finding in the Carless (2002, 2003) case study analysis of teacher perceptions about noise during tasks in Hong Kong, which may be tentatively interpreted, in light of practical TEFL knowledge, as pointing indirectly towards learner boredom as a result of extreme task easiness and a subsequent cause of child misbehavior in the form of making noise. Kuloheri's multi-case study, however, obviously seems to have contributed to revealing significant aspects of (Greek) young EFL learner demotivation such as its negative impact on learner behavior in class, its ways of being actualized, and its determinants.

In the findings, demotivation was shown to be nonobservable, and rather as an affective attitude that determines classroom behavioral acts. What the English teachers and the young learners observed were the actual deeds the children performed, which they attributed to few if any learning motives. The preceding suggested demotivation as an emotional state internal to young EFL learners that generates not only little involvement in learning but also unwelcome learner conduct.

According to the English teachers, demotivation brought about indiscipline such as not waiting for one's turn, chatting, nonparticipation, idleness, and not doing homework. The children were even more detailed. They mentioned not doing class work, nonattendance, not sitting for tests, cheating, drawing, making noise, not sitting at desks, playing noughts and crosses, throwing rubbers, talking back to the teacher, and disobeying. The interpretation of the child drawings by the children themselves confirmed not only lack of vigor as one of the feelings experienced in English but also rendered shouting, use of profane language, and physical force as additional symptoms of indifference.

Regarding the origins of child demotivation in English classes, the evidence revealed with certainty two direct causal parameters and, consequently, three indirect causes of indiscipline, something that can enhance the view of motivation as "a dynamic process where many other variables play a part" (Williams and Burden 1997, p. 118).

The first causal attribution of demotivation is pertinent to classroom EFL learning experiences and is twofold. It constitutes the learners' negative response to EFL materials (e.g., readers, the storyline of a particular unit, task types, tests, and listening texts) and the lack of challenge they experience because of the meaninglessness of the ELT curriculum they encounter during compulsory EFL education. As long as they receive supplementary EFL tuition by attending lessons in a private language institute, they do not have the motivation to focus on the main school EFL lesson. This conclusion can attach weight to the influential connection that researchers have seen between negative learning experiences and learner demotivation, in which the former leads to the latter (e.g., see Ushioda 1996). Moreover, it highlights the association of demotivation with unpleasant EFL learning experiences and learner misconduct

in a dynamic cause-and-effect process that can shape young EFL learners' behavior.

Response to curriculum materials in primary education has been mentioned as an agent of learner indiscipline before, and it indicates the importance of considering the learners' interests and needs in decision making about lessons (Türnüklü and Galton 2001). The negative impact of meaninglessness in educational content on pupil behavior appears to have a diachronic application too. It was reported during the early 1970s of the twentieth century (Clarizio and McCoy 1971) and has been confirmed in the early 2010s of the twenty-first century (Kuloheri 2010). The following is a characteristic extract from an interview with a focus group of children:

> "… *whe::n some know these from the institute we go to, when our mi::ss says the::m, again some times, + we don't have what to do, we* ___**don't**___ *want to listen to them, and start chatting.*"

As is obvious, knowing something beforehand leaves young EFL learners "motive-less" and subsequently "task-less" at school (so, they do not find a reason for doing something in the English classroom) and, as one added, they "*shut their eyes and ears to anything,*" do not pay attention to or participate in the lesson, and postpone tasks such as copying from the board, studying for a test, and doing homework. One of the school heads shared the preceding view by clearly explaining that supplementary tuition contributes to learner disinterest in the context of school EFL learning because those learners who receive it have already covered part of the English school syllabus. As indicated by extensive teaching, children give in to their tendency towards becoming undisciplined more easily, because deep inside they feel that private evening tuition can help them make up for anything they miss at school.

The second teacher-perceived determinant of demotivation refers to academic achievement and is negative learning outcomes (e.g., poor results in EFL tasks or tests). The data again assigned demotivation the role of a product and gave lack of success in EFL learning the clearly defined role of an additional direct cause of lack of motivation and of an indirect causal attribution of indiscipline. Thus, the claim can be reinforced that weak young EFL learner performance

may act as a harmful condition that affects motivation and influences factors dependent on it (e.g., discipline); this is thought to be in the sense that children who succeed (or get high grades) may become more interested in learning and decide to be less disruptive.

The findings also revealed some child- and teacher-perceived explanations for these unpleasant outcomes and subsequent misbehaviors, thus shedding light on what Ushioda (1996) called "*attributional processes* in shaping motivation" (p. 14). Specifically, the restricted acquisition of the English syllabus and the learners' limited metacognition are specified as direct causes of negative academic achievement in classes of young learners; thus, task failure is explained as the result of lack of EFL knowledge and of difficulty in understanding what the task requires. To these child-rendered causes, teacher-participants added general class misbehavior, learner hesitation to ask for clarifications, and task difficulty as other sources of bad learning outcomes and, consequently, of demotivation and misconduct.

In general, the case-study evidence confirmed the establishment of motivation in the literature as relating with one's learning background and learning achievements (e.g., see Ushioda 1996). Besides this, it expanded the power of academic success and the dynamism of motivational learning to the extent of the impact these two may have on young learners' behavior in the EFL classroom. Teaching English suggests that the preceding causes of demotivation and indiscipline can reduce learner effort and learner desire to acquire the language. So, they also can be said to capture effort and desire as two components that, combined with attitude and choice, comprise motivation for the achievement of the goal of language learning (Gardner 1985, in Williams and Burden 1997). Indiscipline that shows the elimination of effort and of the desire to learn as withdrawal behavior may further denote the children's wish to escape from the reality of their English school classroom (based on Porter 2006).

4.3.6 Parental Advice on Behavior

Although the multi-case study did not provide strong evidence for parental advice on child behavior as a cause of classroom indiscipline, nevertheless, attention is drawn to it in light of the importance of parental participation for educational practice. In particular, EFL teacher percep-

tions indicated that the advice young EFL learners received from their parents about how they should behave during classes was a direct, external causal factor of undisciplined conduct. Sample reports included the following ones:

"*They co::::me,* **ready** *++ from home. shaped. +++ and won't listen to* <u>*me*</u>"

"*His father, + e:::, <u>constantly</u> te::::lls him what to do:: to the others.*"

"*When a:::h + I talked with his pare:::::nts, e:: it was clear, that they wouldn't change their mind. +++ about how their son should, + behave in class!*"

Extensive TEFL experience constantly confirms the decisive impact that parental instructions about the correct behavior response in class can have on learner acts. Once there was an eight-year-old boy who, during the two consecutive school years he was learning English at school with the same teacher, used to react with verbal and physical violence to classmates who annoyed him. Repeated contacts with his father (the mother did not visit the school), discussions with the boy, and close collaboration with his main school teachers revealed that he was acting in accordance with his father's recommendations and expected line of action: "Threaten them, make them fear you." Most of the teachers' collaborative efforts (including innovative educational programs on behavior modification) to help the child discriminate between the code of conduct at home and at school, to evaluate alternative behavior modes, and to select the most suitable ones were basically fruitless. The father's influence seemed to be so huge that almost no kind of intervention could alleviate the problem; at the end of each EFL teaching period, the boy had made a step forwards, but the next day the English teacher would start nearly from scratch, probably because of the "brain recordings" that continued at home during the rest of the previous day.

This case and lots of similar ones constantly pose the question whether school education is adequate to help a child change ideologies and habits acquired within the family environment. Also, they frequently led TEFL educators to the unpleasant conclusion that the continuous presence and activation of children within an education institute may not be sufficient

to instill into their souls and minds new ideals and behavior patterns. Changes seem to take place extremely slowly within education; however, it is many educators' fervent belief that patience, insistence, organization, and systematic efforts on their part can bear fruits over time.

4.4   Summary

In response to the seriousness of the issue of the reasons why young EFL learners become undisciplined in their classrooms and the shortage of the relevant research and literature about this, six indiscipline causes (direct/ indirect and external/internal) have been presented in this chapter, as these were perceived by four English teachers and their young learners in four Greek primary school classrooms. Among those that are applicable mainly to TEFL environments which display features of CLT, first comes the children's nature and child misunderstandings about the teacher's teaching methodology. The second determinant suggested is that of the underdeveloped indirect learning strategies in children. The findings led to the analysis of these strategies as metacognitive, affective, and social ones, while evidence also showed that misbehavior may be influenced by limited autonomy in children learning EFL and by the inconsistent application of the selected TEFL approach. In addition, the EFL activities of games, songs, and contests, along with bad peer relationships, are stated to be determinants of negative emotions in children in their English classrooms.

The third cause of child indiscipline was found to be self-concept. In particular, in their unsuccessful efforts to build a positive image of themselves in the subject of English, children's self-esteem is lowered, they feel frustrated, and in the absence (or limited development) of affective and of metacognitive self-evaluative strategies, they engage in misconduct. This confirmed the causal relation of child frustration with indiscipline and posed the indirect connection of failure with child misconduct. In addition, the data highlighted the children's egocentric nature, their need for security and approval, and their competitive drive as factors that contribute in their struggle to construct their self-concept, which affects their classroom behavior.

The fourth source of indiscipline is related to the supplementary EFL tuition received by young learners in addition to their learning at compulsory schools. This cause proved to be the children's indifference or negative attitude to the EFL subject, their underestimation of their basic EFL teacher at school, and the high esteem they hold for their supplementary EFL educator. Behind this negative child attitude and viewpoint, the research revealed the influence exerted on children by their parents' unfavorable attitude towards both the school subject and the school educator's role.

Last, but not least, comes the young EFL learners' demotivation, and two causal variables of it—namely, their academic failure, and their negative learning experiences in English, which are mirrored in the perceived meaninglessness of the curriculum and their negative responses to the materials.

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5

YEFLL Indiscipline: Perceptions About Management

5.1 Introduction

Classroom management is professed to embrace a range of issues that teachers have to deal with in their classrooms (Oyinloye 2010). Professional teaching EFL (TEFL) experience indicates that these issues are related to a spectrum of thinking, decision making, and action on the teachers' part with the general aim of at least considering, planning, setting up, directing, executing, supervising, and/or controlling teaching and learning processes. Furthermore, Brewster et al. (2002) suggested that they include those teacher skills and strategies required to increase efficiency, organize the classroom, and handle the learning environment in a way that will be effective for learners.

One of the concerns of classroom management is pupil discipline and its maintenance by teachers. As such, discipline is embraced in the overall sense of teacher acts in response to pupil misconduct, while classroom management places emphasis on providing quality instruction as a way of eliminating disruption (Lewis 1999). A prerequisite for maintaining discipline is asserted to be the handling of learner behavior (Nayak and Rao 2008). But besides this, in light of the claimed connection of perceived

causality with human reactions (see Chap. 4), an additional essential condition for facing misconduct should be reflection on the attributes of the negative acts so that more suitable decisions about management can be taken. Thus, the managerial, responsive teacher acts, preventive or interventive ones, are understood to depend largely on explanations for the learners' misconduct. But then whose explanations will determine the way(s) indiscipline should be handled? Thus far, the responsibility has fallen on the educators' shoulders to a great extent. Because of the developing innate tendency in human beings to relate negative events to their possible origins, however, there are good reasons to believe that within the framework of a learner-centered management of indiscipline, learners, including those of a young age, can be involved in considering the roots of peer indiscipline and in making their own suggestions for its remedy.

Equally seminal in the management of learner misconduct is the specification of the profile of the indiscipline, which may well mean that teachers and learners should invest joint efforts in both pinning the negative acts down to their details and in tracing their causes. As a result, lines of action should be determined by the features as well as the causal attributes of certain types of behavior and should be directed towards them. In cases where specialists realize that two or more indiscipline types can be managed in the same way, then courses of action can be targeted towards clusters of forms of indiscipline.

The concern about taking care of undisciplined learners' behavior is obviously of interest to more educators than merely English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers; nevertheless, it is expected to spark particular interest within the context of this book for TEFL experts. They must not just seek and take initiatives to keep the classroom environment positive to encourage meaningful learning and motivate interaction between learners and adults/peers, but also to have a sharp eye out for indiscipline events, to diagnose possible causes, to set realistic goals, and to develop achievable objectives for misbehavior prevention and/ or intervention, and to select appropriate and effective management techniques.

As references in the literature about EFL learner indiscipline have shown thus far, in many contexts the problem seems to persist over time.

Nevertheless, it can be considered to be an established fact that educators' work and efforts are undoubtedly hard with regard to facing it, with many all over the world striving to update their knowledge and improve their management techniques through autonomous, lifelong learning that entails at least self-study, classroom observations, self-reflections, additional postgraduate education, and/or attendance of training courses.

As Purkey and Avila prophesized as early as in 1971, "maintaining classroom discipline has been and will probably always be a major problem in education" (p. 325). Twenty years later, Wadden and McGovern (1991) admitted that despite the employment of more humanitarian and more productive management approaches than in the past, "it is common knowledge that the phenomenon (of classroom misbehavior) has far from disappeared" (p. 119). Since then, researchers, such as Kokkinos et al. (2004), have confirmed the difficulties indiscipline entails; on the eve of the twenty-first century, these authors certified that success in the management of pupil behavior still was "a major challenge for teachers" (p. 109).

In the TEFL sector, the matter is not of less importance. Along the same lines TEFL specialists express their interest in and/or worries about learner indiscipline and its management. Besides Wadden and McGovern (1991), who plainly discussed the complication of the disciplinary side of classroom language teaching, Read (2005) saw the maintenance of a balance between young EFL learners' performance and approved behavior as one of the biggest confrontations language teachers have to deal with in primary education.

So, important questions crop up, the answer(s) to which may lead language teachers, and especially young EFL learner (YEFLL) educators, to a reexamination and/or a restatement of the parameters linked with children's behavior management and probably to refreshed and/or new paths of practice. For instance, what is it that teachers intend to achieve by handling indiscipline and by promoting discipline? Are there specific indiscipline types that should be faced? From which management styles and techniques can teachers choose? Have educators, perhaps, developed their own repertoire of management approaches and/or methods of working? Do all the styles work? Is it possible to know how some of the

courses of action are evaluated by colleagues and, most importantly, by young English learners?

As a response to the preceding needs, a study and presentation of aspects of behavior management in the YEFLL classroom follows; these were determined from EFL teacher and young learner perspectives during Kuloheri's multi-case study. This covers, first, a specification of the paramount objectives of managing child behavior in this context, and in particular of cultivating and strengthening values, principles, learner skills, learning practices, and classroom behavior acts that encompass a young learner's motivated gradual development into a self-disciplined EFL learner and human being. These objectives proved St John Chrysostom right in proposing a long, meticulous disciplined procedure for shaping child behavior (see Chap. 2), and they suggest the need for designing and following a distinct educational curriculum. This should be alongside the curriculum for EFL learning, the constituent parts of which may somewhat overlap with the contents of the language learning course of study.

Second, those criteria that will be set forth are those that were shown to apply when EFL teachers considered the selection of modes and approaches for managing child behavior in their classrooms. Third, basic management viewpoints, styles, and techniques are brought to the readers' attention in light of the experiential understandings of the English teachers and young learners participating in the researched cases. Besides the multi-case study data, the information provided also is enriched with fundamental knowledge from relevant literature. The findings indicate realistic advantages and disadvantages of a number of techniques implemented within specific young EFL learning contexts and point towards certain practical conclusions. In addition, they can back up readers in thinking about similar situations of EFL learning with children and in confirming, modifying, or rejecting management choices. Fourth, in light of the data on causes of indiscipline in the primary-age English classroom, management ideas are presented to ease the underlying problems and thus reinforce positive child behavior.

5.2   Goal-Setting

5.2.1   Problem Ownership

One of the earlier themes of this book was the relationship of indiscipline with sectors such as religion and philosophy, which have placed human beings in an elevated position by considering them able to choose what to learn, what to think about, how to feel, and how to behave and, consequently, responsible for their own knowledge, understandings, emotions, actions, decisions, and reflections. Subsequent to this strength comes the acknowledgment that individuals have the inner capability to accept the responsibility for difficulties and problems, to take control of how these may evolve, and to manage situations and themselves. From the systems presented, Buddhism and Orthodoxy are two of the instances that manifest this by placing a huge emphasis on human ability and accountability for self-control and self-blame, and on the human capacity to fight against their weaknesses and reach the condition of purity and sainthood.

In education, accepting responsibility for one's actions is understood to be key in preventing behavioral problems (e.g., see Porter 2006). Assigning problem ownership is often recognized in classroom life as a most significant factor in defining the level at which a solution to a problem will be successful, and it is experienced as an intermediate stage between identifying the problem and the willing effort to remedy it by planning its solution and doing what is needed. In the case of indiscipline events in the English classroom, the two sides, which should think seriously about the extent to which each may have contributed to the events, are the EFL teacher and the young learners.

In the multi-case investigation, in spite of their young age, the children confirmed this human power by holding themselves and their peers responsible for the indiscipline events in their English classes; however, surprisingly enough, the English teachers—although more mature, more educated, and more experienced—showed no sign of such awareness. It seems, therefore, to be the case that children, at least those at the age (i.e., 9 and 10) of the multi-case study participants, can be relatively mature and straightforward too; what is more, they were accountable and ready

to take the responsibility usual for their age, knowledge, and experiences. Simultaneously, this courage of theirs can be thought to comprise evidence of the fundamental child qualities of honesty and willingness to be fair (Scott and Ytreberg 1990).

Taking for granted, first, the critical role of problem ownership to the successful management of unpleasant situations, and the possibility of an inborn human trend to seek causal relations so as to understand, encounter, and resolve difficulties mentioned in the previous chapter, it appears to be a matter of professional obligation in the TEFL sector to raise awareness in children and in EFL teachers of this ability and of the human concern for solving problems. Second, EFL educators should make systematic efforts to reinforce and refine this skill in children and adults by training them to link events with their background knowledge and life experiences, as well as with observed factors. So, subjective causal perceptions can become inferred causality, which as claimed before is closer to reality. Educational experience with young learners indicates that when children are made aware of an ability of theirs, and when they are praised for this and encouraged to exercise it, then practicing it becomes more frequent. Intensive practice then can lead to skill acquisition.

Nonetheless, knowing that a problem can be a two-side effect (i.e., the result of both a teacher's and a pupil's acts), the children's readiness to blame merely themselves can additionally be attributed to what Wood (1998) calls "their general lack of expertise" at life (p. 36), and school life in particular, which possibly limits their viewpoint and leads them to a narrower approach to classroom situations and to underlying causal structures. It is also likely that their restricted comprehension becomes intensified by the emic perspective they develop about discipline events during their direct involvement and/or exposure to experiences; so as insiders to indiscipline incidents, young learners may focus mainly or merely on what is happening among them.

Although this angle can help children know with more certainty what has happened beyond their teacher's observations and, in conjunction with their developed sense of fairness at ages 9 and 10 (i.e., the ages of the child participants), to not hesitate to put the blame on themselves and/or their peers, nevertheless, this deprives them of a more distanced and therefore more objective opinion. Consequently, they do not see the

extent to which their educators (or other factors) also may have contributed to child misconduct through their own behavior and/or decision making. In light of this, it becomes necessary that EFL educators also make organized efforts to engage learners in observations where they have to take an outsider's view of indiscipline (i.e., an etic perspective), and in discussions that can widen learners' mental repertoire of possible interpretations of misconduct.

In connection with the shift of responsibility by the EFL educators to learners, knowledge of the practical aspects of education systems, such as the Greek one, suggests that this may be attributed to the little time that school curricula and overambitious educational programs allow (EFL) teachers to reflect on the actual content, quality, and consequences of their teaching. Alternatively, teachers may not have developed reflective skills adequately, prefer to enforce the curriculum goals to good learner behavior, and/or believe they are good teachers (Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002).

In practical terms, in light of the preceding, to alleviate this imbalance between teachers and young EFL learners, it is fundamental that children's ability to locate causes and to consider the role they may play in classroom indiscipline be retained, reinforced, and extended, and that young English learners be trained in acquiring and using both the emic and etic points of view. English teachers seem in immediate need of developing the sense of self-accountability for classroom misbehavior. For these purposes, it is regarded as seminal that both sides engage in introspections, observations, and self-reflections. The combined application of these processes can assist in getting to know oneself and others, categorizing experiences, gaining objective knowledge, and overcoming biases—that is, what Socrates considered central to the development of powerful human thought. Self-report is confirmed as a useful tool for the effective promotion of these objectives by, generally, sharpening observation skills, encouraging the recall of events, evaluating relevant parameters, and increasing self-awareness (Wenden 1991).

Starting with YEFLLs, self-reports can function as a tool for child self-awareness, a source of knowledge for English teachers about child perceptions on indiscipline, and a mirror reflecting the educators' (probably, not conscious) role and reaction to it. Self-reports can, for instance,

answer questions such as the following: What exactly the children have seen occurring regarding classroom misbehavior. When the event(s) took place. Whether they could see a relationship to the negative act(s) with factors outside the young learners (e.g., tasks, materials, and teacher behavior). How they felt. What they thought about it. What problems they or their peers experienced on the occasion of the misconduct. What they believe caused it, how the teacher reacted, how they evaluated their teacher's indiscipline management, and what alternative suggestions for handling misconduct they could make.

One variety of this technique is retrospective self-reports (Wenden 1991), which lead children to think back on something that happened in their English class, restructure it as an occurrence, and write about it. Requests for reports may vary in the freedom allowed to children to write what they want—for example, open-ended reports, semistructured interviews, or structured questionnaires. Each one should be comprised of questions or statements calling the children's attention to the event and inviting them to reply. Depending on the degree of freedom allowed, learners can reply as they wish in a less free manner, or with particular statements such as "Yes/No," "True/False," or "Agree/Disagree."

A second type of self-report is the introspective one, during which YEFLLs are required "*to think aloud* or *introspect*, orally reporting to a listener or into a tape recorder or writing down what they are thinking" (Wenden 1991, p. 81). So child learners are encouraged to consider their own ideas, feelings, and thoughts by thinking about and responding to the indiscipline as they see it occurring and by writing down their thoughts and evaluations. This working mode ensures more reliable child responses because of the absence of a time lapse between the occurrence of the misconduct and their thinking; nevertheless, it requires that the teacher has trained the children thoroughly in what they will be expected to do, and that children exhibit the necessary readiness for instant reflective reaction.

On the basis of Wenden's assertions, it can be stated that by combining both child retrospection and introspection, English teachers can proceed to a learner-centered identification and interpretation of the perceived causation of indiscipline (resulting not only from the emic but also from the etic child perspective) and to cooperative decision making

and planning for its management. The children can also be involved in collaborating with their teacher in the close monitoring of the implementation of the solutions they suggested, in their evaluation, and in their modification.

If children are guided to clearly realize the sources of indiscipline problems, such as ignorance or imprecise knowledge about EFL tasks, lack of concentration, negative self-image, and demotivation (Kuloheri 2010), to publicize the results of their negative classroom acts in a transparent manner, to acquire the power for making their own decisions, to get rid of bad habits or wishes, and to adopt positive volition acts, then not only will their classroom behavior be improved but also they should reach personal fulfillment.

Developing and assuming accountability for one's acts is seen to also signify a certain degree of acquired autonomy, in light of Wenden's claim that "[a]utonomous learners are willing to take responsibility for their learning …" (1991, p. 53). Therefore, training YEFLLs in the necessary skills for recognizing their own faults in negative classroom behavior also can serve the purpose of forwarding children's autonomy, which is an additional important educational target that, as seen in the following, can support the promotion of disciplined classroom behavior. Self-reports then are justifiably suggested by Wenden for use with strategies for learner autonomy.

Regarding EFL teachers, it is obvious that self-awareness and self-reflective skills should be studied or strengthened so that teachers become what Schoen (1983) called "reflective practitioners". This term is understood to refer to spontaneously or systematically recalling, contemplating, analyzing, and evaluating values, decisions, actions, and processes in their daily educational and teaching practice, in light of individual aspirations and set goals. In the case of indiscipline, teacher reflection can occur while teaching English and after the completion of small or large teaching cycles; what Schoen (1983), respectively, called "reflection-in-action" and "reflection-on-action." This is in addition to planning and anticipating problems—here called "reflection-before-action." To be capable of such a maturing process, however, one should engage in personal training for the acquisition of the skills required.

Among these skills fall the ability to be conscious of one's own values, beliefs, perceptions, and wished for teacher identity, or of one's possible confusion about them, to check whether the preceding are in agreement with one's actions, to monitor actions and examine their underlying causes, and to observe others' responses and think about their possible relationship with the teachers' acts, their prior decision making, and the teaching context. Besides these, one should become capable of finding out and seriously considering children's principles, EFL learning expectations, and difficulties and the extent to which these have been resolved, and of discerning the kind and amount of teacher power exerted on learners and its probable influence on their reactions. Beyond gaining personal and professional confidence and growth, the goal should be to plan and apply a new, more productive and rewarding line of action in teaching practice, which will successfully forward the acquisition and safeguarding of disciplined learner behavior. Appraisal of the implementation of these new sets of practical decisions and activities will in turn lead to new thinking and schemes, thus all forming a series of plans, actions, reflections, and evaluations resembling the action research model in educational studies.

Concerning child indiscipline, besides identifying and admitting a possible impact of their own planning decisions, actual teaching, and behavior, English teachers of children are required to answer a series of key questions stemming from the skills outlined previously. Two key ones are: "What am I possibly doing that may be making my learners misbehave?" and "What can I do to improve the situation?" Answers can relate to teaching aspects such as lesson organization, selection of activities (e.g., types and language levels), teaching techniques (e.g., bottom-up vs. top-down procedures), learning materials, testing, teacher roles (e.g., solitary transmitter of knowledge vs. cooperative individual, or dominant vs. submissive educator), learner roles (e.g., recipient of knowledge, self-director, producer of language), and class management techniques.

Moreover, they may pertain to individual matters such as bossy manners, unfriendliness, gentle or intimidating attitude, irritability, authoritative character, restricted or extreme caring for young learners, austere tone of voice, and/or frequent absences from work. So, personal change presupposes not only an awareness of and intervention for problematic teaching areas but also realization and improvement of private parameters

hostile to effective teacher–child interaction and successful teaching. At the heart of things should be the teachers' open-mindedness, enthusiasm, and willingness to learn about and improve themselves as individuals and EFL educators with regard to their connection with others and especially with their young learners.

Senior educators, such as school heads, school advisors, and teacher trainers, can definitely play a pivotal role in encouraging and training EFL teachers in self-reflection and, in particular, in developing (self-) analytical skills, the power of observation. and the ability to view events from a distance. English teachers seem in need of undertaking a process of training, especially in understanding and accepting their own contribution to classroom problems such as pupil acts. Within the framework of this training, more weight obviously should be placed on teacher influence on learners' behavior by underscoring that their acts often can be a result of and a reaction to teacher behavior, where "behavior" is meant to convey teachers' more general response to a number of variables in the TEFL situation and, in particular, their interpretation of their roles and teaching styles.

On the basis of data resulting from self-reflection, self-analysis, and the close study of the TEFL context, seniors, as discussed in the preceding, can provide EFL teachers with the support required "to change their teaching behavior" (Gardner 2008, p. 39) in the context of all the TEFL realms so that this modification will not be partial. Professional and life experiences reveal that taking ownership of a problem is an important prerequisite not just for its successful management (Scarpaci 2007) but also for behavior change.

5.2.2 Behavioral Autonomy

The importance of autonomy and independence for human development has been highlighted in religion, philosophy, psychology, and education, in light of the emphasis laid on an individual's capacity for self-change (as in Orthodoxy, Confucianism, and Buddhism—see Chap. 2) and for responsible social action and democratic citizenship (Benson and Voller 1997). The notions of self-regulation and self-reliance can satisfy the cul-

tural beliefs of both the West and the East because they are asserted to be rooted in the philosophical thought of both sides of the world (Benson and Voller 1997). As an educational goal, autonomy is accepted cross-culturally, although it demands divergent pedagogic applications and is limited otherwise in accordance with context (Palfreyman and Smith 2003).

The literature provides proof for the growing interest in the self-regulation of learners in the sector of academic learning and performance (Zimmerman et al. 1992). Regarding efficient language learning, in their book's clear, concise, and useful *Introduction*, Benson and Voller summarized the primary advantages of autonomy and independence for this purpose. At first, they allow for flexibility in both teaching and learning approaches. So, it comes as no surprise that, besides supporting collaboration as a natural component of successful language learning, they can also forward individualized learning, within the structure of which language teachers can satisfy personal learner needs, abilities, and learning styles, and react positively to divergent learning contexts.

Additionally, autonomy and independence have been related to the use of technology in education, which on the basis of teaching experience very much has the potential to motivate young learners of English and to support their learning. They are connected with learner-centeredness in language education as a way of promoting "the active production of knowledge" (Benson and Voller 1997, p. 7) by learners instead of its traditional transmission by the teacher; in addition, this centers teacher attention on the active roles learners can play in their language learning rather than just considering how they can teach them. Furthermore, the resulting practices can satisfy a desire to combine language learning with learner empowerment in one's role as a member of social groups, and with social and political liberation.

Freedom from the control and support of others, and self-government have been proven to be indispensable for the display of good behavior too—limited self-reliance has been found to cause misbehavior in young EFL learners (Kuloheri 2010). Consequently, their overall significance for the acquisition of knowledge can be reflected on and summarized in the association drawn between successful learning and autonomous self-control and discipline (Bergin and Bergin 1999). Therefore, these three central parameters seem to stand in an interactive relationship in which each one can contribute to the acquisition of the other. This can

be exemplified by the conclusion drawn that techniques that enhance EFL learner autonomy and self-management in language learning can improve classroom behavior (Kuloheri 2010).

By virtue of the preceding, the concepts of autonomy and independence can be connected usefully with EFL learning and positive classroom behavior. Thus, from the EFL teacher's perspective the goal should be to support young learners in the acquisition of the foreign language (FL), and the development of the ability to "take charge of their own learning" (Smith 2008, p. 395) and to shape and improve their own EFL classroom behavior. From the young English learners' perspective, and in light of what effective discipline may entail (Bergin and Bergin 1999), the implication may be that children need to enter a gradual dynamic process of change in terms of both how they learn English and how they behave in class. In this process, they are seen as active agents for their improvement, which can be related to the constructivist perception of children as autonomous, self-reflective, intentional human beings who can construct the direction of their own lives and can choose to adopt and pursue internal values (Clark 1998).

The achievement of these objectives is feasible within what Smith (2008, p. 397) called "autonomy-oriented pedagogy," where the term is used to denote an individual's eagerness and ability for independent and collaborative action (Dam et al. 1990). Within a FL learning context, this pedagogy should set the dual target of self-initiated, self-sustained, and self-governing behavior and of independent language learning. Communicative teaching seems to be a pedagogical TEFL framework promoting both targets because findings suggest its positive effect on EFL learner classroom behavior by motivating learners to "negotiate rules of conduct apt to support their learning initiatives" (Little et al. 2002, p. 6). Thus, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerges as a multipurpose methodology with children intended to promote accepted social behavior, egalitarian principles, and the acquisition of abilities for self-controlled, accountable, and effective life-long EFL learning, besides the development of communicative language skills.

Benson and Voller's meticulous report (1997) on the beneficial effects of one's self-regulation in language learning also featured the positive results that child training in independence may have in disciplined

learner behavior in the EFL classroom by catering to the needs that indiscipline causes create. More precisely, the flexibility of an "autonomy-oriented" TEFL approach may allow for a variety of lesson planning schemes that will satisfy the requirement for familiarizing children with the selected teaching methods and that can consider emergent child needs towards the construction of a positive self-concept. Its second attribute, that of learner-centeredness, can enable the adaptation of teaching/learning methods, techniques, and materials in accordance with the necessity to train children in the employment of indirect learning strategies and with the need to motivate them in EFL learning. The endorsement of collaborative work has been shown to set the cooperative, socialization context within which children can realize weaknesses and their negative effects on their behavior and, subsequently, to work towards minimizing them with their English teacher's help.

The resulting procedures are expected to raise the level of quality in TEFL and, for that reason, to facilitate achievement of the teaching/learning aims, to improve classroom behavior through the child's autonomous subscription to values and acts without direct supervision and/or assistance—a major goal of the employment of management strategies against learner indiscipline (Bergin and Bergin 1999; Clark 1998)—, to strengthen trust to English teachers and so decrease negative parental and learner attitude towards them and the EFL subject, and to restrict parents' interference. Given that within the traditional, intensive frontistirio EFL tuition (at least in Greece) there is neither time nor space for work on the preceding areas of child development, school EFL tuition can make the difference.

In Bergin and Bergin's 1999 article, it becomes obvious that investigations, in the sector of language learning based on experience, are limited and that there are even fewer studies that emphasize management targeted at maintaining children's understandings of independence and promoting self-administration. Even though research and theory make many recommendations about autonomy, control, internalization, and other related issues, they tend to not be concrete. In spite of this situation, the writers provided readers with the foundations of effective classroom discipline as they drew them out from the broad literature on parent–child interactive communication and on behavior motivation. Moreover, the

authors suggested a specific approach to discipline they called "persistent persuasion," which is valuable for the encouragement of positive behavior and learner autonomy in classes of young EFL learners.

This approach aims to secure child obedience in a current situation and to reduce his or her expectations for the use of coercive discipline methods by the adult. So, the child, it is stated, will assign compliance to her own decision. For this purpose, the adult creates a chance for the child to enter an extended negotiation scheme, in which time is provided to think about the disobedience and to gain control again. The adult repeats the request and/or provides supplementary reasons for conformity until the child does what is expected. At the same time, the adult has to keep the power levels steady, and not issue forceful threats, so that the development of self-regulation is not weakened. Later, if the rules are violated, then the adult should help the child recall former adherence to the rule.

According to Bergin and Bergin, the approach of persistent persuasion can successfully combine "cognition, emotion, and motivation" (1999, p. 203). Furthermore, in practice, it can forward recognition of the importance and usefulness of values and behaviors by children and their acceptance for their own lives. In this sense, behavioral autonomy entails deliberate choices and self-regulation by children and, consequently, the development of the child's capacity for independent operations. Thus, the overall objective in this case should be discipline *within* children; external discipline in the sense of proper behavior imposed on young learners by others will be a necessary, temporary, transitional stage, hopefully leading to internally accepted and coordinated behavior under the child's collaboration and the teacher's effective guidance and support.

Persistent persuasion can provide teachers with an alternative to punishment and a model of teacher discipline too, because it helps them to control themselves. The negotiation process it entails can satisfy the prerequisites for education in democracy (see next section) because children can make genuinely informed choices in light of information they have received from the adult, feel that their choices are valuable, and decide without fear. So, at the heart of its consequences lies the path of exercising their own will, which learners are urged to take and follow. In addition, out of this practice autonomy and self-discipline can emerge as achievable educational goals.

The process of reaching the final goal of self-control and of acceptance of and compliance with values encompasses long, gradual child training, which occurs in parallel with his or her development in many other aspects. This training period is very demanding on EFL educators. First, it requires that they have the observational power to get an astute insight into child misbehavior and the possible underlying causes. Considering their observations, teachers should be able to discern the area(s) in need of improvement and the contextual factors that operate and hinder proper behavior. Careful planning should follow, on the basis of short, achievable goal-setting with regard to behavior modes (e.g., young EFL learners learning to take turns in speaking, or to apologize). This emerges as important because practice of isolated behaviors with children is more feasible than practice of a multitude of behaviors, and because children can unconsciously become aware of the breadth of applications a single behavior skill can have. Besides these, overambitious objectives with child behavior may lead to teacher stress, learner burden, panic, failure, and negative self-concept in both educators and children. Young learners should also be given the chance to practice each behavior act in different contexts (e.g., turn-taking in class discussions, in pair work, and in group tasks).

Scaffolding by the English teacher and by more capable peers is an essential stage of learner training in autonomous self-control and discipline. In the teaching EFL to young learners (TEFLYL) context, the scaffolding of behavior modification is suggested in the sense of assisting children, who still seem unable to improve behavior on their own, to face a negative aspect in the way they act in class by first becoming aware of its unfavorable nature and then being helped to substitute it by seeing, learning, and later acquiring an alternative positive one. This may include presenting or helping them recall vital values, eliciting the problem behavior from the undisciplined children or presenting it to them, bringing out or explicitly showing the proper behavior and asking them to repeat it, simplifying it if required by breaking it down to smaller acts, encouraging them to express feelings, thoughts, and problems experienced while trying to learn the new behavior mode and responding to them, and encouraging determination and patience.

The scaffolding process during the training of young EFL learners in disciplined behavior has been shown to boost achievement of the relevant

goals set and, more generally, child development. This is managed by providing a secure framework, which potentially lowers learner anxiety and increases self-confidence. A supportive structure also encourages learning and acquisition, memory reinforcement, development of communicative competence through the children's participation in authentic contexts of communication, and the acquisition of learning strategies—for example, the social strategies of asking questions, cooperating and/or empathizing with others, and the metacognitive one of focusing their learning (Oxford 1990). It also promotes responsibility for one's own behavior and for the behavior of others, sociability through interaction with others, active participation in one's improvement, and motivation to respond to one's own needs.

Following the benefits of incorporating the acquisition of discipline in a TEFLYL autonomy-oriented pedagogy, one is led to the consideration of the possible demand for a discipline curriculum alongside an EFL learning one. This is mainly because of the EFL teachers' tendency in quite a large number of contexts to forget the children's dependence on principled, systematic teacher interventions to increase their ability for self-regulation; instead they may focus merely on teaching the language. Besides, this seems to occur with such intensity that disciplining learners becomes a questioned area in respect to its obligatory nature. Therefore, both children and English teachers are in need of a well-grounded, precise framework within a discipline curriculum.

Parallel development, introduction, and application of this kind of curriculum along with the EFL learning one in the context of the "autonomy-oriented" EFL learning pedagogy may be beneficial to young learners in multiple ways. Besides guiding the principled acquisition of the language, it could, most importantly, draw the EFL teachers' attention to the necessity for assisting behavior development in children in addition to teaching English and could enforce classwork on this aspect. This could make indiscipline management and general behavior improvements obligatory within YEFLL classes, advance the EFL teachers' profession from that of mere language teachers to that of child educators, and redress the negative parents' attitudes towards them. Second, it could encourage expression of the values and of the expected behaviors of the society the young

learners are part of, and thus immerse them in this context as individuals who respect and advance its foundational principles.

Third, autonomy-oriented EFL learning pedagogy could take some of the burden of self-study off the teachers' shoulders by informing them about the variety of management approaches, strategies, and techniques they could use. Last, but not least, it could allow for a learner-centered approach to handling misconduct by encouraging educators to observe child behavior, bring to light and study indiscipline with the help of the pupils, and explore and evaluate managerial responses to it from their own and the children's viewpoints. Ultimately, it can express the religious belief, as in Buddhism (see Chap. 2), that discipline is comprised of a procedure or state of accountability based on moral rules and on self-control, and that it can address the growing political concern for activating people in responsible ways, encouraging their critical abilities, and increasing their power for positive, self-controlled acts.

5.2.3   Education in Democracy

Independence, acceptance of social values, development of positive behavior that advances these principles and compliance with, for instance, written or oral rules or laws are closely linked with the acquisition of a democratic life attitude because democracy (an undoubtedly serious preoccupation across the globe) presupposes the voluntary practice of social and prosocial behavior—that is, respectively, behavior directed towards society and specific behavior intended to help others—and the willing limit-setting of one's own self. So, education in discipline (and in its inherent components like self-regulation and autonomy) can be linked with education in democracy, and each one can be considered supplementary to the other.

It is an undeniable fact that in many countries the promotion of democracy within education is of exceptional significance, and thus that various education curriculum components address the advancement of this governmental form in, for instance, teaching materials and working modes by instilling values and principles in learners (the citizens of the future) and by helping them shape a democratic character. First, it is the

dramatic political, economic, and social changes all over the world that dictate a positive change in governing systems for the sake of achieving higher levels of social inclusion, fairness, and sustainable development. Extensive life and teaching experience has shown, too, that under democratic educational conditions the human body, mind, and soul can develop smoothly, without haste, securely, and at each individual's pace.

Democracy also allows for experiential, experimental, creative learning and for trial and error. Individuals can learn to coexist with others, be empathetic, share, help, and cooperate. Common objectives can be set within groups and shared efforts can be made. The "what-to-learn" and "how-to-learn" goals can become the pupils' business as well, and through cooperative project work on a variety of topics and the sharing of collected information, each individual can multiply the gains and eliminate the losses. Therefore, it is firmly believed that education in democracy not only can but also should be inherent in education in discipline and vice versa, and that it can be attained through processes that guide pupils towards the acquisition of the necessary values and the development of the required skills.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) stated that "civic education, service learning and other pedagogies" are employed by educators and policymakers for the reinforcement of democracy (p. 237). It is desired therefore to claim that under these "other pedagogies" and within a wider, indispensable program of education in democracy can fall the educational practices for managing indiscipline within EFL learning contexts—namely, for controlling child behavior and guiding children in operating as expected and in acquiring self-discipline. So, the management of indiscipline can set a dual general major objective; that is, the shaping of positive classroom behavior and its consolidation, as well as the formation of democratic good citizenship in children.

Bearing in mind that the autonomous subscription to social values, the acquisition of social/prosocial behavior, and the development of democratic citizenship in children are among the basic goals of managing indiscipline in the YEFL learners' classroom, relevant distinct matters can be considered. The first issue posed is the particular values that should be cultivated in young EFL learners in order for them to develop disciplined *social* behavior. So, this brings the section to the essential cultural

principles children should become aware of, learn to respect, accept, and acquire during their English lessons; these principles may be universal and/or culture-specific. Consequently, English teachers should first be well aware of global and local ideals, of related behavior patterns perceived as negative and positive, and to acknowledge and respect them themselves. Then, they should plan their lessons for children accordingly so that they can raise awareness of the principles and the respective behavior modes, and aid them to gradually approve of and adhere to them (i.e., through exposure and practice). This will pave the way for becoming genuinely democratic in a globalized society and functioning successfully as citizens of their countries and of the world.

The second concern is the particular values that should be fostered in young EFL learners in order for them to develop disciplined *democratic* behavior. This emerges as substantial because it is true that a totalitarian system too may nourish conscious discipline in its citizens; however, such a discipline will produce the structures of oppressive, authoritarian behavior. This brings up two major topics: (1) the necessity to specify the fundamental values of democracy and (2) the need to include these in the separate "discipline curriculum" for the EFL learning suggested in the previous section. Thus, while the EFL curriculum can describe the components of English pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar to be taught and learned, and the communicative skills and subskills to be developed, part of the additional and equally seminal autonomy-centered discipline curriculum should be the democratic, humanistic principles and the positive behavior patterns to be fostered within the EFL teaching framework. Ideally, this curriculum should be aligned with the basic values shared all over the globe and with the discipline values, skills, and behavior patterns of the general educational context to which children belong (e.g., a school or a private FL institute). In addition, it should entail discipline skills and principles that have been proved to be absent and/or weak within a particular English classroom.

In light of these, the EFL learning curriculum can contain universal components (i.e., applicable internationally), culture-specific components (i.e., characteristic of the particular culture within which the program is positioned), and EFL class-specific components (i.e., emergent from a detailed analysis of the indiscipline situation in the group of

young learners to which it will apply). Such an education course should draw teachers' attention to both discipline and democracy (i.e., two life principles frequently forgotten during the stressful conditions of teaching English), urge them to learn about, concede to, and promote pluralistic ideals and the cultural context within which they work, lead them towards distinguishing between the goal (i.e., desirable child behavior in classes) and the required course of action (i.e., the most suitable ways to assist children in developing this capacity), and encourage them to bear this distinction in mind throughout the time they teach a class. Following the preceding, teachers should build their lesson plans with three broad goals in mind—EFL learning, development of communicative skills in EFL, and acquisition of social, democratic, discipline, and cultural values and skills.

Considering the values of democracy, English teachers basically should know that these support the belief that an orderly human system (e.g., a class of learners, a family, a neighborhood, a country's society) can exist when freedom is preserved. More specifically, they should understand that at the heart of democratic values lie the principles of pluralism and diversity and of citizenship and human rights that, when functioning, can create the conditions for critical debate and dialogue, for informed choices, and consequently for democracy (Commonwealth Sekretariat 2015). In more practical terms, these principles embrace the practices of human rights—that is, at least the right for participation in processes, for self-improvement, for raising one's standard of living, for security and fairness, and for forming the groups in which one wishes to work and function.

In addition, the curriculum necessitates inclusion of the practices of the equal sharing of power among group members, of a high level of active involvement of all the group process members, and of the freedom of expression and information. These rights largely will determine the criteria by which teachers should draw their lesson plans so that they include learner involvement in decision making, use of processes that do not threaten children, exchange of child roles during cooperative tasks, application of a variety of working modes, safeguarding of the involvement of all learners, and encouragement of the expression of opinions and queries by every learner.

Still, besides rights, EFL teachers should bear in mind that children (in their role as future democratic citizens) need to learn to have responsibilities too, including, for example, those for approving of and respecting differences (i.e., in an ethnic, social, racial, gender, and religious sense), for behaving in accordance with socially acceptable behavior modes, for accepting others' needs, for participating in decision making, for promoting human rights, and even for painstakingly assisting with their own progress.

If the types of indiscipline that children may exhibit during English are reviewed (see Chap. 3), then one will be able to notice the opposite of what democracy preaches, a reality that confirms the need for a discipline, independence-oriented curriculum promoting it; for instance, the violation of classmates' right for participation (e.g., hindering peers, monopolizing a discussion, interrupting), disrespect to and/or not accepting of others (e.g., physical/verbal aggression or abuse, rudeness, use of profane language), unfairness (e.g., cheating), and limited self-compliance (e.g., not being punctual, getting out of seats, disobeying the teacher, infringing on rules, showing behavior irrelevant to the EFL task). The data from Kuloheri's investigation also have shown that misconduct, compared with child behavior in L1 classes, can be either central in English only or worse during this lesson. So, it is evident that undisciplined children learning English may not exhibit democratic practices in EFL classes to the extent they may in their L1 classes. Consequently, they need to expand behavior principles and abilities to the EFL learning context too so as to become more self-controlled and, in the long run, less individualistic or authoritative and thus truly democratic.

Central to training others in democracy is practicing what one preaches. Therefore teachers' own classroom behavior should be congruous with the principles they teach. A particular component feature to being democratic as a TEFL educator is exhibiting tolerance—a principle emphasized in pluralistic systems and a virtue encouraged by religions such as Orthodox Christianity, Taoism, and Islam (see Chap. 2). Tolerance within an educational context can be defined as permitting a certain degree of deviation from standard behaviors, surviving unpleasant situations with children, showing sympathy and empathy for the young

EFL learners' negative feelings, undesired acts, and bad habits, allowing time for behavior modification, and renouncing with action any connection to the suppression of others' need for self-expression (when it is not lethal to others) and any domineering teacher action. Therefore, for the sake of consistency with educating in democracy, tolerance should be suggested as one of the attitudes and practices inherent in a democratic, autonomy-oriented curriculum, and in the EFL teachers' management of classroom indiscipline, and as a skill and value that should be acquired by young learners through teacher modeling.

Imagine in class an adult individual (the teacher) demonstrating the developed, mature, and knowledgeable human being young EFL learners should have as the archetype of pluralism. And imagine that this person manages to exhibit a willingness and an ability to accept unpleasant conditions, such as those of indiscipline, and to continue functioning well in this environment while also treating the problem, even though the learner disapproves of it. Thus, subconsciously, this person can become a most outstanding example of resistance to one's own forces to react negatively, of patience, and of endurance.

In Kuloheri's investigation, data from all the cases studied and from most of the participants led to the conclusion that the general management characteristic of the four state primary school EFL teachers was tolerance to negative behavior within limits. This is in support of the trend of experienced teachers to be more permissive of student misbehavior (Kokkinos et al. 2004), which is substantiated by their realization, after years of teaching, that problem classroom behaviors are of a mild nature (Borg and Falzon 1989). In light of child and teacher interview contributions, this tolerance is justified by virtue of the children's natural tendencies that teachers are accustomed to (e.g., their inability to always stand still and obey), the children's particular developmental level, and the human right to sometimes become disorderly.

The findings also led to the differentiation of teacher tolerance from teacher laxness during English. Laxness in the teacher's approach to indiscipline is understood to be a careless, not rigid, and negligent attitude to indiscipline as the result of the EFL educators' perceived inability to deal with a situation because they see negative learner behavior as a threatening environment exceeding their resources; subsequently, they see it

as a source of anger, low self-esteem, and low self-efficacy. For instance, one of the English teachers reported that she tended to be lax because she felt negatively about classroom indiscipline in view of her experience that misbehavior could "*destroy*" her plans, could not be controlled, and made her feel "*sick*" or "*angry*" before or after a lesson.

Data from two out of the four cases also indicated the combination of tolerance with restricted strictness as another general feature of this approach to handling indiscipline in the young EFL learners' classroom. Teacher-reported beliefs contribute to the enrichment of knowledge about the reasons why strictness may be employed in such a class—namely, because it can serve the practical roles of setting the necessary boundaries to negotiate with children, of creating a pause in their misconduct, and of providing them with the required space for calming down. Child beliefs add to this issue by suggesting that teacher strictness towards young learners should by no means cancel the learning objectives.

Surprisingly, in one of the four cases, data triangulation revealed that the English teacher and the L1 teacher were strict in almost the same way (i.e., have a serious or angry facial expression, talk staccato, and firmly deny too many discussions and negotiations). This can be credited to the reported English teacher's consultation with the L1 educator about management issues and the acceptance of the L1 teacher's advice. Strictness worked in both Greek and EFL classes, which indicates that EFL young learners may respond positively to a strategy that works well with them in the core school subjects.

Still, not all child interviewees could recognize this strictness in their English teacher's ways to the extent they could see it displayed by their Greek teacher. Probably, because of the democratic values and beliefs she reported, the English teacher could not display the same intensity of strictness in her manner that the L1 teacher could. Alternatively, the English teacher's overall kindness, which was mentioned by nearly all the children, negated the instances of her strictness in the children's minds. In general, this may imply that children can understand a practice, such as tolerance, as a teacher's effort to handle class misbehavior if this practice is in harmony with the teacher's personality in the way the learners perceive it.

5.2.4 Consistency in Objectives and CLT

To face indiscipline and promote positive behavior, the premises claimed by Porter (2006) and by Oyinloye (2010) should be put in effect; namely, respectively, that disciplinary goals cannot contradict educational ones, and that a teacher's management style exerts a significant impact on the way learners behave in class. In other words, consistency in objectives and an agreement between the way(s) misconduct is faced and behavior modes are reinforced in the EFL classroom turn out to be a sine qua non of a teaching methodology. Accordingly, the extensive list of democratic attitudes and behaviors (and the relevant goal-setting) that young learners should acquire during their English classes to become self-disciplined and independent should govern all aspects of the teachers' repertoire of managerial, educational, and teaching methods and strategies.

Similarly, if English young learners are to master democratic acts (which, as mentioned before, entail self-regulation), then teachers should select an approach to facing indiscipline that is basically pluralistic, too, and should train children to engage in respectful verbal and nonverbal communication. This, of course, does not mean that assertiveness has no place in this. In fact, more authoritative, limit-setting communication skills and management techniques also can or should be employed within the suggested framework. Democracy alone may not be sufficient to tame and shape children's creative, joyous, and often disorderly nature. Besides, it should not be forgotten that within democracy compromises and a balance between order and freedom are expected so that chaos does not set in.

Think, for example, of English teachers whose general belief is that teachers know best, and whose general tendency is to impose personal learning decisions on the children—that is, not to consult with them about their needs, problems, and preferences. Life experience indicates that it would be really difficult for teachers to support and forward a management approach that embraces teacher–learner or/and group discussion for the handling of misbehavior. The least one can wonder is how they will succeed in persuading themselves about the worth of pluralistic practices, and the children about the necessity and usefulness of learn-

ing to behave in humanitarian and responsible ways. At the same time, young learners most probably may be confused by conflicting messages they receive during their contact with some teachers.

Porter's assertion in 2006 about the consistency between educational and disciplinary aims also means that the selected indiscipline management approach will have to be in line with the learning objectives and techniques of the TEFL approach teachers of young learners may wish to embrace; in addition, this methodology will have to link, where possible, the teaching of the FL with the undisciplined and the proper way children may communicate with others (i.e., adults and/or peers). As often mentioned before, in Kuloheri's research the teaching approach in the investigated classes resembled the communicative one, which focuses on the linguistic and paralinguistic features of communication and on the communicative skills necessary for the efficient exchange of messages. As Littlewood (1981) purported, this approach systematically attends to the structures and the functions of the language, in combination with the development of communicative ability in the EFL learners.

CLT is not just the methodological schema within which young EFL learner indiscipline has been pinned to its constituent features and causal attributions in this book, but it is also still one of the approaches EFL teachers frequently adopt across the globe or one of the approaches that lends a multitude of its principles and techniques to what many EFL educators have been calling an "eclectic approach." For these two main reasons, the CLT methodology is presented as a preventive and interventive framework for managing learner misconduct. A certain number of possibilities are presented in the way these are offered within CLT in order to sensitize children to the kind of communication that can cause, resolve, and/or avoid problems, such as indiscipline, and to give them the chance to practice it.

In light of the need for consistency among the approaches for managing discipline, for teaching EFL for communication purposes, and for educating children, the belief that behavior among humans can be improved through education in positive communication (Lochner 2012), and the fact that positive communication may be equated with effective communication and vice versa, it is proposed that EFL teachers cultivate

the features of positive communication in young learners while teaching them English communicatively.

On the basis of the features of positive communication developed by Lochner (2012), within CLT, young learners can learn to evaluate when to remain silent and when to speak, as well as to think before speaking about what they will say and how they will formulate their thoughts. This is a way to enhance peer relationships, and can be achieved by training children, for example, in the employment of time-creating devices such as fillers, pauses, and hesitations. Second, children can become familiar with the positive and negative messages body language can transmit, can reflect on their own body language in the English class (e.g., during group work), and can take ameliorative action to improve it. Third, they can learn positive language functions in English to react to their teacher and peers constructively (e.g., praising, thanking, pleading, apologizing, and asking for the floor).

Fourth, they should regularly practice carrying out discussions as a way of exchanging views, respecting differences, and reaching a common decision. Lochner alerts readers about the necessity to be discouraged from agreeing to discuss other children's weaknesses. Of major importance is also the demand for helping young EFL learners develop their listening skills so that they listen attentively, understand messages correctly, and not jump to conclusions. Successful communication skills, such as the preceding, can discourage young EFL learners from entering what Lochner calls the "stuck-state cycle," in which they will continue behaving in more or less similar ways, unless they discover new reaction modes.

Because the English learners that this book refers to are young, the constant worry appears to be whether training in positive communication can take place in the children's L1 or in the English language. Taking into account that the primary aim of an EFL course is to make children effective communicators in English, teachers should take advantage of every single opportunity to encourage the use of this language for classroom interactions. As an example, teachers can teach them those English forms that can enrich their repertoire in expressing themselves positively during classroom events that are likely to cause indiscipline (e.g., "Please, stop talking to me!" or "Excuse me, Miss. I want to tell you something." or "Peter is not sharing the colors."). English also can be introduced and

used for classroom routines such as greeting each other before and after the lesson, taking the roll, expressing birthday and name day wishes, talking about a sick pupil, telling the teacher that a homework task has not be done or a notebook has been forgotten, understanding that the teacher has asked a pupil to be quiet or raise his or her hand, and asking for the teacher's permission to do something urgent (e.g., sharpening the pencil, or visiting the school nurse).

In addition, when discussing the functions of English structures with children (e.g., the imperatives "Go away!" or "Come here!" or "Stop talking!"), instructors can grab the opportunity to illustrate the negative and positive impact the phrases and the various intonation patterns may have on an interlocutor's verbal and nonverbal behaviors. This takes, of course, good organizational skills on the part of the educator (e.g., a notebook in hand), teacher alertness, determination and a strong will to spot behavior weaknesses, the language used, and the negative consequences, and to draw attention to what the child said or did, to the impact this may have had on a peer and/or on a relationship, and to other possible ways the child could have expressed himself or herself.

Equally important for disciplining children during the EFL lesson appears to be their training in the understanding of and the use of paralinguistic features. For example, they could be taught ways to be polite and civilized when they lack the English words, and to use alternatives to language expressions that may be interpreted as misbehavior and/or incite misconduct in others. Indicatively, a paralinguistic signal to adopt could be sighing, instead of complaining loudly, to express tiredness of the lesson. Another one to avoid is ardent delivery of phrases (e.g., "Do it now!"), which may make the listener respond badly in reaction to what may have been understood to be an order. Or, they could be sensitized in the role personal space may play in one's negative acts. Thus, children can learn how to protect their own space without getting uncivilized and how to respect the space of others so as not to trigger misconduct.

Still, L1 also can be very useful for intensifying awareness-raising of and for exemplifying positive and negative communication to the extent that young EFL learners ultimately may become better communicators in both L1 and English. As research (Kuloheri 2010) has shown, children learning English normally misbehave verbally in their

mother tongue. For instance, they may use L1 when they talk loudly about irrelevant matters and so get noisy while the class is working on a language task, converse with a peer, fight instead of negotiate to get a seat for video watching, interrupt speakers and not wait for the floor, and disagree fervently rather than get involved in organized argument exchanges.

Considering this, EFL teachers should take advantage of indiscipline events—that is, what could be called "miscommunication events" in the sense of failing to communicate messages effectively and harmoniously— and work with the children either individually or as a group towards suggesting alternative linguistic and paralinguistic behaviors. Such a procedure could include drawing pupils' attention to what the undisciplined learner said and/or did and to the consequences, leading a class discussion about the underlying reasons for the misconduct, eliciting and/or presenting alternative, disciplined reactions, and reinforcing the improved behaviors during the English lesson consistently.

This management approach resembles two management style models (Lewis 2001)—that is, the Model of Influence and the Model of Group Management. In the Model of Influence, teachers respond actively to misbehavior by engaging in communicative acts such as listening attentively to students, getting clarifications about their viewpoints, explaining to them the impact of their indiscipline on others, and negotiating solutions to their negative behavior that can balance the needs of both teacher and individual student. The Model of Group Management consists of class meetings at which students and teachers enter mutual communication by discussing misconduct, putting forward different views, and jointly deciding on a policy.

Lewis's two approaches are more suited to those English teachers who believe in and wish to promote democracy and who want to reply dynamically to child indiscipline through CLT; that is, because the procedures inherent in them can pave the way in the English classroom for sharing views and feelings in pluralistic modes, for tolerance, for reciprocal respect, and for the reinforcement of fairness (information from Print et al. 2002). Within such contexts, if the enforcement of rules and rewards is positively evaluated by teachers and learners, then employment of the third style model (i.e., the Model of Control), which consists

of explicit rules, rewards, and punishments, can also be useful in a sup-plementary mode.

For the purposes of promoting communication and good behavior in English, the three types of communicative activities suggested by Littlewood (1984) have been shown to be of immense help. The first kind of pre-communicative activities can be the stage at which children will not only practice using isolated aspects of English (e.g., pronuncia-tion, intonation, grammar, and paralanguage), but also become prepared to prevent misbehavior by themselves and by their interlocutors during the planned communicative event that is to follow in the next activity. This can be achieved through cognitive or habit-forming techniques (i.e., respectively, explanations and drills) (Littlewood 1984), and in terms of disciplined/undisciplined behavior through, for example, discussions and theater activities. The latter especially can contribute to the increase of learner empathy and of learner awareness of the assets and limitations of behaving well and improperly.

Similarly, the communicative activities can be the frame where chil-dren will be provided with a context for communication with peers in which they will concentrate on meanings and on behaviors in action. So, they will be asked to use the actual English language aspects they have practiced for a certain communicative purpose, as well as the appropri-ate behavior styles they have been advised to adopt. There also can be activities where the children will employ unfavorable behavior patterns together with the English language taught so that the consequences of indiscipline during human interaction can be brought out, experienced and discussed. The third type, that of the post-communicative activities, has to attain a central position in the communicative English lesson, as a final stage where young learners will be guided by their teachers to evaluate their communicative performance or the performance of their classmates, mention and correct mistakes in English, and discuss positive or negative behaviors they saw.

In conclusion, CLT can be the structure where children are likely to gradually come to evaluate the communicative events of which they may be part, to estimate the listener's social position, role, knowledge, assumptions, attitudes, and feelings, and to choose the appropriate behavior and language in English and in L1. As Littlewood (1984) put it,

the most competent communicator in a FL is frequently the individual who is the most proficient at performing a series of mental operations regarding a communicative situation, at considering parameters of this situation, and at choosing language that will send the intended messages successfully. From this perspective, considering the potential of CLT to contribute to behavior modification too, the most competent communicator in a FL also may be most proficient in behaving well.

5.2.5 Training in the TEFL Approach

One of the perceived causes of indiscipline in EFL classes is reported to be the children's unfamiliarity with and lack of training in the teaching methodology, which in the case of the research conducted resembled CLT. Even though the investigation revealed this particular teaching framework, it is obvious that no matter which approach EFL teachers embrace, a major goal of theirs must be the learners' acclimatization to the teaching and learning methods they will be using in class. The context of the learner adaptation to the (new) teaching and learning conditions should serve the purpose of informing and reasoning YEFLLs, in the sense of providing information that can supplement their background knowledge about EFL and about acquiring the language, and giving them sound reasons for agreeing to work willingly within the learning context.

In the case of CLT, within which indiscipline events were recorded and analyzed, the learners' familiarization with the approach can start with a basic introduction to the whole class about the general course goals. So, emphasis should be laid on the development of their communicative competence in English. This is the ability to get involved in communication with other children, adolescents, and/or adults at the home country or abroad for a certain purpose, for which they will be required to understand and produce English messages efficiently. Therefore, teachers should refer to the dual aspect of communicative competence—that is, the linguistic component (i.e., language form, use, and function) and the skills component (i.e., development of the receptive skills of listening and reading and of the productive ones of speaking and writing).

Providing children with samples of contexts of English language use they may be faced with—for example, wishing to play or sing with another English-speaking child, watching a play, a film, or a TV series, and helping parents abroad pay for a purchase and/or buy museum tickets—will make teacher input more concrete, persuade them of the advantages of EFL learning, and make course objectives and lesson purposes more realistic. Thus, children can grasp the practicality of learning and using the foreign language. Besides these advantages, children can widen their narrow and egocentric insights and be prompted to invest more effort, especially in responding efficiently to teachers' selected techniques.

Young learners will be helped considerably if part of the EFL curriculum is devoted to their cultural awareness, in other words sensitization in their own as well as the foreign culture. Cultural awareness and culture teaching are said to broaden the human perception that countries are equal, to expand tolerance and empathy (Tomlinson and Masuhara 2004), and to increase appreciation for the culture of the target language's community (Kumaravadivelu 2003). Quite early on, Stern (1992) led the way to the achievement of these goals by pointing out three essential lines of teacher action. First, it is the cognitive component of cultural awareness, which can be incorporated into EFL teaching by imparting knowledge about topics such as the foreign country's geography, life values, and modes of life (e.g., customs, social life, local and national holidays), and when children are older, important historical events and governmental systems. Second, is the affective constituent, which will motivate learners' empathy towards the foreign culture. The third element for teacher action is the behavioral one; this relates more closely to the issue of FL learner behavior because it focuses teachers' attention on showing learners how to interpret the behavior of the foreign people and how to show appropriate conduct when communicating with them.

Teaching EFL experience suggests that a requirement for achieving the preceding with young learners is educators' ability to provide information vividly, concisely, and in simple language that makes sense to the specific age group and to arrange for relevant experiential activities. The information, in particular, must be enriched with many representative examples close to the children's life experiences so as to be well-defined and more obvious. Of course, the younger the learners are the simpler the discus-

sion should be; at all ages however, consideration of their background is of major importance because it can direct teachers in making the information understandable and learnable.

Additionally, training in a FL approach entails getting children accustomed to various types of learning materials that are intended to be used throughout the school year and linking their selection with course objectives, with the purpose of increasing children's confidence, ability, and motivation for handling these resources. In CLT, such materials may be written or oral texts (with regard to language, authentic or semiauthentic or/and of a graded nature) that can bring the reality of English language use into the instructional context—for example, announcements, TV commercials, comics, dialogues of family members or friends, advertisements, emails, notes, supermarket lists, fairy tales, riddles, or songs.

The content of the children's introduction to course objectives, learning contexts, and materials should be repeated often and enriched in English classes. This will increase the learners' memory capacity and make it more difficult for them to forget essential background facts, will offer chances for expression of doubts and queries and thus for becoming more convinced about the worth of their time investments, and will increase their overall interest in learning English.

As educators proceed with more practical teaching matters, alerting pupils to the kinds of lessons they will have can supplement their preparation for and their training in the learning and teaching method. For example, they should get to know that they will have grammar lessons that focus on language form, use, and function, as well as on pronunciation and intonation, vocabulary development instruction, and skills improvement lessons—that is, on any of the four communicative skills of speaking, writing, reading, and listening, and lessons meant to integrate some or all of them.

Equally essential is that English teachers prepare children for the variety of activities they will engage in to differentiate them from any others they may have had in EFL learning in the past and/or from the possibly traditional exercises they may have been doing during frontistirio tuition and/or during L1 school classes. Language activities in EFL classes, most probably new to them, will, for instance, be playing games, singing songs, doing craft work, acting out dialogues or role-plays, sharing informa-

tion to identify pictures, discover missing information, or spot mistakes, and solving problems. With reference to tasks, research data (Kuloheri 2010) indicate three basic actions as imperative for the management of child indiscipline at proactive and interventive levels: input about task purposes, training in task processes, and understanding collaborative procedures.

Task aims and rationale provide learners with good reasons to perform, direct attention to the required use of the language, encourage learning to communicate in English through interaction, draw a distinction between fun and games and enjoyable language learning and education, and indirectly enforce self-controlled behavior. Task processes as a sequence of ordered shorter actions set up the structure of the activity and the steps to be taken for the achievement of its purpose. As such, they encourage concentration and self-management, organize mental actions, link the use of body skills with the use of English, discipline body action, and systematize mind–body connections. Team processes regulate individual action towards common achievement and build productive relationships and cooperative acts among team members, where "team" refers to pairs or small groups.

Kuloheri's study revealed the necessity for preparing children in five areas of team processes. The two primary ones are effective communication and conflict avoidance; two additional ones are decision making and reorganizing one's self and/or the group. For the purpose of exhibiting disciplined behavior, effective communication refers to issues of a linguistic and psychological nature. As such, it is believed to be a complex and demanding process presupposing the successful encoding and decoding of verbal and nonverbal messages and the application of relevant useful mental processes. Examples of abilities that can fall under the general team skill of effective communication are listening carefully, not interrupting, giving and taking the floor, carrying out argumentative discussions calmly, speaking softly and not shouting, coping with noise, focusing on the team's mutual interest of carrying out the task, and avoiding being judgmental.

Conflict avoidance encompasses those skills and abilities that can lead young EFL learners to self-awareness and self-control and to behavior acts that create a friendly, frictionless collaborative environment such as con-

trolling negative emotions and impulses during communication, avoiding fighting with peers, following rules, being polite and responsible, respecting peers, sharing materials, changing the subject, and avoiding mention of a subject of contention. Decision-making and problem-solving processes can be regarded as partially overlapping abilities and may involve reasoning, becoming aware of available options, weighing pros and cons, thinking critically, forecasting consequences, negotiating actions, and reorganizing one's self and/or the group.

Overall, preparation at these levels can have wide-ranging advantages in TEFL. For instance, it can support the young learners' development (especially that of a positive self-image), motivate learning, increase a positive stance towards performing in the FL and adhering to instructions, guide strong, inspired language performance, forward language acquisition, and build effective relationships among them.

Among the demands for successful preparation and performance is the EFL teacher's response to at least six central practical requirements. These include the need for short and clear instructions—use of L1 too will be valuable, if required—accompanied by as many examples as necessary. Then comes information-checking questions at the stage of setting up the activity to ensure that children have understood what is to be done and said and to clarify misunderstandings. Fourth comes monitoring child performance and discretely supporting it. Fifth in order is the provision or elicitation of feedback on segments central to teaching and learning. Last, but not least, is time management, which sets the key to effective implementation of all the necessary procedures in class without delays against task performance and/or lesson-plan duration.

Feedback entails evaluation of class performance at the post-activity stage. It can be directed to at least four levels—namely, those of English language use, of task application and team processes, of personal behavior, and of rule observation. Involving children in spotting and correcting language mistakes, and in sharing experiences and observations in respect to task procedure, team operation and behavior modes will raise their self-awareness, keep them active during the whole lesson, and instill the sense of accountability for what occurs in the EFL classroom. Learner suggestions about improvement should be an essential part of evaluation, connecting performance with the potential for change. YEFLL feed-

back should consider children's recognition and approval of the need for change and for taking additional steps in the next activity to achieve this. Therefore, it should be taken into serious consideration, discussed, and, whenever possible, accepted.

EFL educators are, in addition, advised to bear in mind that activities and tasks representative of their selected teaching approach should be employed on a steady basis in class. In this way, they will be reinforced in the children's minds, and children will get used to the relevant processes and be persuaded about the associated learning benefits. Moreover, it should not be forgotten that behavior rules during tasks and activities are a must for the purpose of maintaining class order, creating a positive learning atmosphere, restricting distractors, and helping children focus on both language use and behavior.

Rule-setting can be initiated by the teacher. However, behavior rules can be supplemented by the young EFL learners themselves while the class will be evaluating the positive and negative aspects of their performance after completion of the activity. Similarly, adherence to rules at a class level can gradually become the pupils' responsibility. It is vital that the importance of conforming to rules be explained to or elicited from young learners, and that learners give their consent for the application of a rule. Finally, consequences to rule violations should be agreed on between teachers and learners and imposed steadily, and teachers should strive to strike a balance between love, care, and tenderness, on the one hand, and firmness and strictness on the other.

5.2.6   Positive Self-concept: Academic Success

As was shown in the related section in Chap. 4, in undisciplined English classes of children a child's self-concept and the related issues of self-image, self-esteem, and self-efficacy have been found to act as indirect causal attributes of indiscipline (in particular, within a CLT English as a FL learning context). The development of one's beliefs, understandings, and evaluations about oneself and about one's abilities is specified as being a very important issue because it stands in a reciprocal relationship with one's view of the world, in the sense that the way the world is

perceived affects one's self-concept and one's self-concept determines how the world is seen (Williams and Burden 1997).

Consequently, within learning contexts, educators should observe closely, as well as manage efficiently, what may prompt the young learners' idea of themselves and towards which direction so that the children can get the necessary feedback for the construction of a positive self-concept. As can be concluded from William and Burden's report, the positive idea of oneself can have a beneficial impact on a person's sense of attainment, motivation, and establishment of one's opinion about abilities and skills (self-efficacy) in this field. If this is corelated with Kuloheri's findings, then a positive self-concept can further encourage disciplined behavior.

As discussed earlier, what pushes children to attach importance to their self-concept is claimed to be their natural tendency to wish to become the praised center of attention, and the need to feel protected and approved of through the acquisition of knowledge (Berk 2003; Scott and Ytreberg 1990). Moreover, Kuloheri's data indicated that it is also the inner drive to compare themselves with their peers and to regard themselves more positively than their classmates. Additionally, at the realization of their learning and social difficulties (e.g., failure), of the resulting negative emotions and thoughts, of their peers' achievements in EFL learning, and of their restricted development of affective and cooperative strategies, the children become undisciplined.

The close association of favorable academic outcomes with positive classroom behavior and, on the contrary, of failure or weak EFL learning progress with misbehavior (Anderson and Spaulding 2007) indirectly links the determinants of self-concept in teaching and learning with behavior acts. This backs up the Bergin and Bergin (1999) belief that an important goal of the implementation of strategies for handling misconduct is academic success, and, consequently, poses the young EFL learners' positive learning results at the center of the EFL educators' agenda for managing classroom behavior. This conclusion makes EFL teachers very much responsible for the reinforcement of discipline in a class of young learners through lessons of high quality, leading to the accomplishment of short-term goals and, in the long run, to the successful acquisition of both the FL and an accepted social behavior code.

Subsequently, it once more has been indicated that English teachers of children should take ownership of the problem of classroom indiscipline. One way they should do so is by creating helpful conditions in the EFL classroom for the children to learn, to get trained in self-evaluation processes and in the realization and appreciation of their abilities and development, and to motivate themselves to set more attainable goals and work seriously for their fulfillment. As Dunn (2009) maintained while discussing the proactive essentials of managing pupils, learners need to "taste success and taste it regularly and (be) made fully aware of it" (p. 24).

Within a quality EFL teaching and learning framework, the principles of differentiated learning also should be put into practice, especially within contexts similar to the ones the multi-case study gave prominence to (e.g., where classes were of mixed abilities and learners responded to tasks in divergent ways). This kind of learning allows for setting feasible objectives and for embracing processes that can support successful language understanding, practice, and use. Thus, teaching and learning should be determined differently in terms of content (e.g., topics, sets of lexical items, and grammar phenomena), of process (e.g., planning a variety of activities for weak and for stronger learners), of product (e.g., asking some young learners to create a poster and others to write a short story), and of learning conditions (e.g., asking some children to work in pairs and others to work in groups, to listen to a dialogue or to listen to a song). Modification of curricula and adaptation and/or supplementation of materials also may be essential, as such adjustments are claimed to increase on-task behavior, correct task responses, and decrease inappropriate acts (Lewis et al. 2004). Furthermore, to establish learning, to respond to the children's need to project a positive image to adults and peers, and to encourage discipline, the children's accomplishments should be acknowledged and stressed, made known to parents, and rewarded (e.g., through an official assessment scheme and/or provision of prizes at the end of activities).

In light of the preceding, the management approach and strategies of indiscipline in YEFLLs in response to the causal attributes of self-concept and academic success should be embedded in the improvement of instructional learning. This should constitute careful lesson planning that is developed along two interdependent lines of action comprising

suitable language objectives and proper decision making in terms of teaching approach, method, techniques, and materials. The desired quality in TEFL presupposes valuable teacher opinions and actions, relevant also to the rest of the management parameters elaborated in this chapter.

5.2.7 Indirect Learning Strategies

In terms of L2/FL learning, learning strategies can be defined as those learner behaviors or activities performed during the learning process for the purpose of understanding, obtaining, storing, retrieving, learning, and using (new) information and performing tasks, thus increasing the learners' responsibility for and effectiveness in their learning (based on Ellis and Sinclair 1989; Hismanoglou 2000; Vann and Abraham 1990). In general, child training in this area at a proactive and/or intervention level is expected to contribute significantly to the elimination of the causes of EFL classroom indiscipline, to the creation of an environment conducive to enjoyable and effective learning, and to the development of child autonomy and self-regulation.

In particular, besides serving learners cognitively, their reinforcement could support children in developing communicative competence in a foreign language (Lessard-Clouston 1997) and in constructing autonomy during the FL learning process (Hismanoglou 2000). As mentioned initially in this book, the development of especially affective strategies was emphasized by Saint Chrysostom very early as an essential personal tool for self-regulation and for overall self-progress (Yorda 1999). Considering the conclusions drawn about the probable nontransferability of learner strategies from L1 learning to EFL learning, the strategies practiced within a foreign language learning context can become a new repertoire of techniques for learners, which they can employ to learn a new language efficiently in a way different from the one they were accustomed to during L1 instruction. Nonetheless, in light of the boost that may be given to their own responsible attitude towards learning, evidently, training in the indirect learning strategies also could back learners up in establishing and refining their innate tendency for what already has been emphasized as essential to being disciplined—namely, to take problem ownership.

A review of the relevant literature (Hismanoglou 2000; Macaro 2006), however, certifies that learner strategies have been associated with academic performance, but not with nonacademic behavior.

Kuloheri's findings have contributed significantly to broadening the scope of the contribution of the learning strategies. It has been confirmed that in the absence or restricted development of indirect language learning strategies young EFL learners become undisciplined. Therefore, child training, particularly in this field, is believed to contribute to the development of self-management skills and self-control and, consequently, a decrease in their classroom misconduct.

In terms of the problem ownership referred to previously, of major importance is the fact that, by addressing the necessity to help children adopt these mechanisms, English teachers will in fact be improving the teaching parameter too, because work on the acquisition of indirect learning strategies by children has an immediate positive impact on teaching materials and teaching procedures. Subsequently, teachers also will be assuming the responsibility for classroom indiscipline indirectly. As a result, the asymmetry between the extent children and teachers were found to hold themselves responsible for the problem of misbehavior will be rectified.

As seen in the previous chapter, the strategies associated causally with child misconduct and subsequently required for learner training are the metacognitive one of knowledge about learning (i.e., knowledge about task and about the need to center one's attention), the affective strategy of taking control of one's emotions, and the social strategy of cooperating with others. These three basic types of strategies are thought also to train children in the TEFL approach of the communicative type by increasing their metacognition about it and their ability to concentrate, by enabling them to become aware of their feelings and control their emotions during EFL activities that invite enjoyment, and by reinforcing smooth and productive work with peers. So, practically speaking, their enhancement in young EFL learners is expected to contribute to both the restriction of their indiscipline and a change in their EFL learning for the better.

In respect to the development of metacognition in the form of knowledge about lesson stages, tasks, and processes, this is considered crucial because, amidst the learners' bombardment with an overwhelming

amount of new knowledge and experiences, it can help them control the learning process and gain focus. Increasing learner concentration (Türnüklü and Galton 2001) also can address the indiscipline determinant of learner distraction through, for example, the identification and/ or definition of goals, objectives, aims, and processes and their consistent revision in class, the relationship between new knowledge and familiar material, and the monitoring of themselves (based on Oxford 1990). Towards the achievement of these, teachers should insist that children conform to and participate in processes of self-awareness and goal-setting, and evaluate themselves to see the contribution of these procedures to their learning and to their gradual progress in self-realization.

Because games were found in the multi-case study to encourage disruption, their context can be particularly exploited to address the indiscipline causes of limited metacognition and predominant perceptions about EFL learning. In particular, to increase knowledge about task, teachers need to enhance clearly defined goals, which Kahn (1991) considers a sine qua non of a communicative EFL game, and an explicit game procedure. To face predominant impressions, Khan's suggestions can be of immense help—namely, to emphasize to children the distinction between playing, which is unrestricted, and gaming, which is rule-governed and goal-oriented, as well as the idea that enjoyable fun tasks have clear purposes that should be achieved.

Kuloheri's findings also indicated scaffolding as part of the children's training in the development of metacognition in EFL learning, and therefore of their discipline process. The advantages of scaffolding already have been discussed while putting it forward as a necessary mediating stage in child training in autonomous behavior. Now, scaffolding acquires an even broader dimension because it is applicable in tutoring young learners in the acquisition and use of knowledge about the EFL learning procedure and about its objectives. Thus, in this case, it should include an EFL educator having the simplicity, precision, and exemplification skills in L1 to guide pupils in seeing how what they do in class (as in activities and tasks) relates to the reason(s) why they are learning English and, in specific, with the development of their ability to communicate with others in this language. So, for instance, before doing a task, task aims can be explained and written on the board as a constant point of reference (e.g., reading an

email to gather specific information about what a friend did the previous weekend, or listening to a poem to understand the poet's feelings). This step provides vital assistance in raising self-awareness and making learning more conscious, effective, and disciplined. By first attending to learning objectives and then practicing them, gradually learners can proceed from controlled cognitive processing, which is intentional and effortful, to automatic cognitive processing, which occurs without the need for attention and effort. So efficient learning is facilitated, according to Smith (1991).

Child attention should be drawn especially to the preparation stage for each activity because the clearer the children are about its "what" and "why," the more self-confident they will feel and the better their performance will be. Besides giving instructions, the teacher can elicit the language needed for good performance, describe the activity, and ask a couple of learners to act out the activity steps to make the process more vivid and to allow for questioning to emerge. Last, but not least, a behavior code can be compiled with the children's active participation in light of their past experiences with peer indiscipline during particular activity/task types so that misunderstandings about the behavior freedom allowed can be cleared up. In addition to the preceding, the selected teaching approach should be applied consistently, and child training in it should be systematic, regular, and well-planned so as to increase learner familiarity with the method and to facilitate learner success.

The enhancement of the second essential type of indirect learning strategies, the affective ones, which can help children control their feelings, motivational powers, and attitudes, seems to be achievable in two sectors. The first one relates to the EFL activity types (e.g., games, songs, and contests) and the second one to bad peer relations. Because the core problem in these two areas is the children's inability to handle intense emotions, it appears as fundamental to combine the teaching of the English language with activities especially organized with the affective strategy known as "taking your emotional temperature" in mind. According to Oxford (1990), this strategy is comprised of four substrategies: listening to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing your feelings with someone else.

Each of these techniques can be regarded as making up one step of a longer activity focusing on both emotional reactions and peer relations that affect learner classroom behavior. For instance, the young learners

can be asked to participate in an EFL contest and during this activity pay particular attention to their own feelings and reactions, as well as to the extent these are influenced by certain relationships with peers. After the activity, they can be asked to open a feelings diary and record negative feelings and responses and the possible underlying reason(s) for these. If the children are not yet in a position to give names to their emotions, teachers can provide them with a list of adjectives to choose from; the older the learners are the more English words this list can include. The word "Other" at the end of the checklist is a must because it can allow for the addition of feelings that did not cross the teacher's mind. In this way, children's records will be original and not guided.

Diaries provide a safe context for unraveling two kinds of emotions: the observable and the unobservable. In the process of narrating events in writing, diarists can realize side events and underlying relations they were not aware of and reach influential feelings and experiences deep under the surface. A personal understanding of the learning reality can be constructed in terms of the language they, their teacher, and/or their peers use and of relevant reactions during their interaction with others, which overall can lead to personal change and growth. In this sense, diaries can be considered a kind of meaningful (EFL) activity that can put into practice Kelly's personal-construct theory, whereby learners are active in understanding information in their own diverse ways (Williams and Burden 1997). Especially by noting down possible alternative behaviors, young learners can be not just conscious participants of their present but also constructors of their future.

Oxford's additional stage of discussing feelings with others points towards the usefulness of sharing emotions and events in class or in private with someone children choose. Discussions about feelings and about the associated social context(s) that gave rise to them will offer the opportunity to each child to clarify individual understandings, externalize their perceptions of the world of their EFL classroom, and realize their common or divergent constructs. Through these realizations children can leave their own restricted experiential domain, open up their narrow perspectives, enter the world of others, show concern for their peers, and, as many religions preach, limit their egocentricity. Through realization and empathy, it has been purported that children can become more mature,

more human, more democratic, more disciplined, and, consequently, more harmonious in their cooperation and flourish more in life.

Processes like the preceding embody a humanistic approach to educational psychology and to EFL learning, which in principle and practice attaches importance to a person's emotions and thoughts, a major achievement of these being that they act against the young learners' alienation from the other learning event participants (their teacher and their classmates). In light of Stevick's claim (1976) that such alienation can be responsible for the learners' failure in language learning, the suggested activities can contribute to successful learning too.

Having considered the two types of the metacognitive and affective indirect learning strategies, now this section turns to the social one of cooperating with others. According to the study findings, the main social attribute for the young English learners' indiscipline is their difficulty with peer cooperation, especially in the context of CLT, where pupils should repeatedly interact in controlled, less controlled, or freer communicative language activities. Poor cooperation has been proven to result from their unsatisfactory collaborative ability, as well as from bad peer relations, which encompass a cause of forceful emotions and an indirect cause of disruption. In light of these, during English children need to develop the social skills claimed to be directly introduced into peer relationships (Porter 2006) and into collaborative procedures.

First, because empathetic understanding and improved communication are two advantageous consequences of the application of social learning strategies, this clearly suggests the need for (EFL) activities that cultivate these two social subskills. Since Oxford's suggested activities elaborated previously for the purpose of developing affective strategies in children do contribute to nurturing the abilities of empathy and of successful communication between them, it is hereby stated that such activities are expected also to train children for positive cooperation with their peers. Classroom tasks to help pupils learn—for instance, how to maintain reciprocal interactions, make suggestions, negotiate, and compromise—also will be beneficial.

Cooperative learning can be reinforced by encouraging students to work together to achieve shared goals (Johnson and Johnson 1999). This can serve the objectives of curricula such as the Greek Curriculum

Framework, which aim at making language learning participatory and at enhancing the students' socialization process (*Official Gazette* 2003). Pair and group work contexts in activities/tasks of a communicative kind can allow for this (Little et al. 2002). Nonetheless, to enhance collaboration in the children's minds, teachers ought to make efforts to evaluate group achievement and not individual attainment and to launch consistent and effective teacher–parent cooperation.

Cooperative learning seems to be able to address powerfully multiple direct or indirect causes of negative behavior in children's EFL classrooms, especially in motivating them to learn English. Specifically, it can promote peer scaffolding and, through this, learner responsibility and more autonomous language learning in class (Johnson and Johnson 1999) and, through learning autonomy, the development of more self-regulated classroom behavior (Johnson and Johnson 1999; Little et al. 2002). Cooperation at a group level can decrease the influence of negative learner outcomes and of low self-concept about behavior by increasing academic performance; as Johnson and Johnson purported: "Extraordinary achievement comes from a cooperative group, not from the individualistic or competitive efforts of an isolated individual" (1999, p. 67). Collaboration can give learners with a high self-concept, such as private EFL institute attendees, opportunities to show what they know by teaching group mates (Johnson and Johnson 1999) and as a result, to restrict their misconduct. Furthermore, children can learn to engage in shared decision making, and practice interaction skills—this was an area that data indicated as problematic during class discussions.

5.2.8 Young Learners' Motivation

Research into undisciplined classroom behavior of young EFL learners (Kuloheri 2010) has highlighted child demotivation as one of the primary direct, internal causes of indiscipline in the EFL classroom in Greece (and probably in other identical EFL learning contexts around the globe). In addition to the relationship already posed in the literature between motivation and success (e.g., see Ushioda 1996), the study data put forward a connection between motivation and disciplined child

behavior in the EFL classroom, strengthening thus the existent claim by Ushioda about the "active, functional and dynamic role" of motivation "throughout the learning process" (p. 11). This increases the value of learner motivation for the acquisition of not just a foreign language but also of socially acceptable behavior acts, and it reinforces the necessity to eliminate demotivation for promoting academic success as well as disciplined behavior. Taking into consideration the importance of learner autonomy for disciplining and learning purposes, then the reinforcement of self-motivation in classes of young EFL learners appears as an additional fundamental concept for the management of indiscipline.

Because of the dual influential role of learner motivation in the acquisition of the language and of positive behavior, a first specific course of action is addressing relevant issues in these two domains. Second, the determination of the birth of indiscipline out of certain causes of learner disinterest—namely, lack of learning challenge, negative learning outcomes, and negative response to EFL materials—suggests focusing on these three mediating parameters for strengthening motivation and desired acts. Concerning proper classroom behavior as such, English teachers should supply reasoning to young learners in an effort to stimulate and guide the acceptance, adoption, and internalization of principles and values that could lead to discipline.

Praising is a supplementary tool for constantly encouraging, supporting, and acknowledging child efforts to exhibit good behavior in class. Informing colleagues and the school head about the improvements in the classroom behavior of particular pupils certainly will be of special motivational importance. This is because it can alleviate the psychological burden that labeling may have put on these children and/or contribute to the further encouragement of their disciplined acts in other school subjects and, in the long run, to the solidification of positive behavior. It also is crucial that parents be informed about their child's behavioral progress because a positive parental attitude to behavior usually is seen to affect the acquisition of good behavior. As a result, child improvement in EFL classroom behavior should include sessions of teacher–parent meetings.

Considering the underlying causal parameters that give rise to demotivation, fundamental to motivating learning is that children are per-

suaded of the gains they will obtain by attending to the English lesson and by investing their time and efforts. They need to feel that they are involved in an EFL course of high quality. So, it is significant that there are meaningful, beneficial, and feasible learning objectives in their basic EFL learning program (especially when they receive supplementary EFL tuition too), and that these are clearly set. Indispensable features of a motivational teaching and learning process are success-oriented and success-ensuring lesson plans, purposeful tasks, awareness-raising of task purpose, increased child understanding about task requirements, and thorough learner preparation for each task. Shak and Gardner's study (2008) on Bruneian young EFL learners' attitudes on focus-on-form tasks—namely, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising, grammar interpretation, and grammaring tasks—indicates the potential for these task types to motivate children and to support good performance within communicative teaching. By implication, in light of the multi-case study findings, they may act against demotivation variables too and thus classroom indiscipline.

Steady application of the methodology the English teacher has selected, along with the reinforcement of behavior rules during the English lesson, will help children get used to procedures, task/activity types, and expected behavior modes. Learning strategies can, additionally, motivate learners by providing them with an enjoyable learning experience (Oxford 1990) and can increase their autonomous, self-directed involvement in FL learning (Hismanoglou 2000), which constitutes a requirement for the development of communicative competence (Oxford 1990). Motivation and effective learning will be expected, subsequently, to influence attitude towards the subject and the teacher positively and through this to decrease class disruption. To create and/or sustain motivation, teachers should urge all the pupils to participate, invite and welcome learner queries, consider the level of task difficulty or easiness and its connection with learner demotivation and failure, and study and cater to learning needs at an individual and group level.

English as a foreign language (EFL) educators also can consult with children about their preferred EFL materials and activities. Research evidence (Peacock 1997) aligns with most TEFL experience in that especially authentic materials can restrict off-task behavior. Gardner (2008)

purported that within communicative grammar teaching "authentic texts from recognizable genres," such as recipes, "work well when they illustrate the grammar being taught" (p. 42). Case study data suggested clearly that EFL games and graded readers have a strong motivational force too for young learners. So, they can be used to improve behavior by developing in children an attraction for two central features to communicative approaches to ELT: interactive and learner-centered principles (Kahn 1991). With regard to behavior, they may contribute indirectly to child efforts for self-regulated acts by urging them to get actively involved in their own learning.

In conclusion, it is evident that learner demotivation as a direct, internal causal factor of young EFL learner indiscipline requires teacher action along two lines, those of achieving motivating EFL teaching and learning and of encouraging the adoption of disciplined classroom acts. Along with nurturing child motivation and securing their excitement, English teachers should exhibit firm determination in calling for discipline as a prerequisite for having learner motivation and excitement satisfied. Besides firmness, they ought to express their insistence with true love, a caring attitude, and understanding and tolerance towards the children's natural tendencies. Motivation and discipline often seem to ask for English teachers to walk on a tight rope.

5.3   Management Approaches and Strategies

5.3.1   Introduction

An approach to managing young EFL learner behavior can be defined as a general framework encompassing the manager's (English teacher's) beliefs about childhood, about discipline and indiscipline, and about the most effective ways their behavior can be modified positively, as well as his or her personal life principles and educational values (based on Porter 2006). Obviously, the selection of teacher approaches (and of the accompanying strategies and techniques) addressing pupil misbehavior in the classroom is a subjective matter to such an extent that it is not to wonder

why in a staff room teachers are often heard expressing so many and divergent opinions about the treatment of the misconduct of the same children.

This selection emanates mainly from teacher attributions of learner misbehavior (Porter 2006). At a secondary level, it also may result from at least five elements. These are initially teacher definitions of bad child behavior (Porter 2006; Purkey and Avila 1971), conceptions about children and child development, and beliefs about education and discipline—for example, about the degree of control to be exerted on learners and the desired aim of discipline practices such as teaching children to conform to rules or to think independently. Besides these come the additional two parameters of the teachers' beliefs or principles that guide their individual and professional behavior and contextual classroom factors (Porter 2006). The former can be understood as, for example, their political ideology and life attitude supporting the incorporation or absence of democratic practices, and their preference for a quiet classroom and respectful learners or an enjoyable, but quite noisy learning context that advances teacher satisfaction, learner happiness, and learning success. The latter indicatively can be the duration of teacher-class contact time and the learners' abilities, special needs, and/or ages. In light of the preceding, the management choices available to EFL educators of young learners may be positioned along the continuum presented by Porter, which starts from the autocratic approach to discipline at the one end of the teacher's role power, through to the authoritarian and the mixed approaches, to the egalitarian one of the teacher's connection power at the other end.

A teacher's indiscipline management approach is realized through the implementation of management strategies. These can be understood as particular classroom applications in response to learner indiscipline, and aim at changing negative learner behavior and aligning it with the operating principles set by the teacher and/or the learners for the particular class. Strategies may result in a change of the contextual parameters too (e.g., of learner–learner/teacher–learner relations, classmates' behavior, group processes, and teaching methodology).

In light of extensive teaching experience, and of the literature on the management of indiscipline (e.g., see Ackerman 2006; Anderson and Spaulding 2007; Bergin and Bergin 1999; Laws and Davies 2000; Partin

et al. 2010; Porter 2006; Read 2005), certain strategic mechanisms for dealing with learner indiscipline can be identified as "universal" in Anderson and Spaulding's sense—namely, as actions employable with all learner ages and grades and perceived as suitable for successfully decreasing various misbehaviors in a classroom while also reinforcing learner academic success. Examples of universal strategies are setting rules and consequences, shouting, punishing, administering warnings, discussing with the undisciplined child and/or with the class, meeting learner needs, and teaching social skills. Nevertheless, universal strategies have not been demonstrated as adequate for facing all situations of indiscipline events effectively.

This is because, alongside misbehaviors that the majority of the learners may show and that can be faced with management techniques of a general applicability, it is very often the case that misconduct is exhibited by individual children or by individual groups of learners only and/or is linked with individual parameters that require the application of the second category of strategies known as "tailor-made." These are solutions suitable to the parameters of specific EFL classes or learners. In Kuloheri's multi-case study, the interview responses of the adult participants (EFL teachers), triangulated with data from more sources, validated the necessity for custom-made strategies by revealing the unsuccessful treatment of indiscipline events through mainly universal mechanisms in the form of a general teacher response to classroom disruption instead of particular responses suited to the specifications of each case.

When, for example, there was for one more time much disruption during an English creative communicative activity in Year Four (student one describes the picture and student two draws it), the English teacher reacted by employing the universally applied strategies of shouts and punishments. Her shouts, her denial to negotiate with the children an acceptable level of noise, her inflexibility, and the final punishment she gave to the whole class caused the fury of the majority of the children and such anger by one of the boys that he refused to participate in the rest of the lesson. As for the actual learning activity in process and the teacher's feelings, time was lost, the activity collapsed, and, as she explained, she felt disappointed with herself because of the failed attempt to ensure order,

and was more stressed under the heavy demands of the EFL curriculum and the limited time available.

Obviously, the way the teacher handled the indiscipline event was inappropriate (despite the universal nature of her strategies), one reason for this being that she lost one learner, who she knew right from the start had been continuously faced with his parents' strong disagreements and shouts at home and who seemed to have been engaging in angry relationships with other adults in similar situations. So, had she thought about the particular situational requirements and shown discretion through a balance among limit-setting and tolerance, and between strictness and affection, she may have ensured the boy's cooperation, the whole group's efforts to discipline themselves, and the continuation of the task.

In the TEFL literature, the choice of universal management strategies often has been associated with the type of indiscipline they are to address. For example, when students chat, they can be distanced from their groups (Wadden and McGovern 1991), and when they fidget with objects, these objects can be confiscated temporarily and/or teachers can teach the actual English words for them (Ball 1973). The established relationship between indiscipline type and management strategy can, however, also reinforce the idea of employing practices tailor-made for specific forms of negative behavior and can thus increase the effectiveness of a behavior management approach for TEFLYL. Nonetheless, Ball's and Wadden and McGovern's previous suggestions can be considered restricted evidence of reported consideration of the matter. Furthermore, there is insufficient (or nonexistent) proof that the suggestions have worked in English classes (and especially those of children), so they can be thought of as mainly theoretical.

In Ball, the application of the solutions was restricted to only Greek relief EFL classes of male learners in a secondary boarding school, so they may not be able to cover the needs of teachers of undisciplined regular EFL classes of mixed gender in other learning environments. Also, the preceding writers provide solutions that emerged from teacher perspectives only; so, they fail to consider learner views about those suggestions, and learner ideas about what else could work in the cases of the misbehaviors described. Last, but not least, there is no indication that the proposed strategies can have a lasting effect on the students' classroom

behavior. Wadden and McGovern (1991) stated indicatively, in the case of disruptive talking, that their proposed solution "eliminates the immediate problem" and "temporarily" saves the teacher's dignity (p. 122). Consequently, as pointed out elsewhere, the need emerges for a more serious consideration of the issue of facing indiscipline in EFL classes (especially, of young learners) in the related literature.

Besides the attribute of universality, additional characteristics have been attached to strategies. Consequently, they have been divided into preventive or proactive, and interventive ones. Proactive management practices are intended to prevent classroom behavioral problems by increasing and/or introducing good behavior types and by restricting the contextual factors that may give rise to misconduct; interventive ones are aimed at dealing with a behavior problem after its occurrence and at preventing its escalation. Between the two, knowledgeable, experienced, and mature educators can all agree that prevention is by far the best and most seminal objective of an indiscipline management scheme. But intervention also emerges as a must considering the quality of unpredictability inherent in human beings.

The research data has confirmed this. In the YEFLL classes investigated (Kuloheri 2010), the findings mirrored ineffective and so unfavorable teacher responses to child indiscipline on the basis of the fact that, despite the employment of interventive mechanisms by the EFL teacher participants, proaction was loosely and/or carelessly applied, or there was a complete absence of prevention. Within this context, both teachers and young English learners stated that misconduct persisted and verified their teachers' behavior management as inadequate. Therefore, the study confirmed that neither of the two strategy types (i.e., proaction and intervention) may suffice alone, and that it is vital that they coexist in an English teacher's indiscipline management agenda.

A fundamental, simple framework incorporating proaction and intervention in indiscipline management is the three-layer program presented in Porter (2006), which although put forward as a program for managing behavioral difficulties at the school level, has proven to be effective at EFL classroom level too. According to this program, English educators are advised to plan the primary component of their scheme (i.e., "universal prevention") with the aim of ensuring positive behavior by the majority

of the learners through protective mechanisms and thus decreasing the number of indiscipline events (Algozzine and Kay 2002; Kerr and Nelson 2006; Lewis et al. 2002).

At a secondary prevention level, educators are advised to plan for "supportive interventions," focusing on particular children who exhibit behavior difficulties and/or learning failure. At a final level, they should plan for intervention, or "enacting solutions," targeted at preventing a behavior problem from becoming worse (Algozzine and Kay 2002). Of course, it goes without saying that teachers should become resilient too and adapt to the requirements of facing child misconduct because, as mentioned before, welcoming, understanding, and responding to challenges is a basic part of problem solution.

An additional precise, systematic interventive process that has been tried and proven productive comprises what is known as "cycle of discipline action." This constitutes a core cycle of action that addresses one specific kind of indiscipline each time and is repeated after its evaluation stage as many times as required for the same indiscipline. More specifically, English teachers observe and identify the misbehavior. Then, having decided to work on its improvement, they identify the goal(s) of their intervention in regard to the major and more subtle changes they want to achieve in the child behavior, and describe (preferably, in writing) the wished behavior act.

Next, teachers plan a course of action and formulate it on paper in terms of short steps, work mode in class, required materials, and time requirements. Also, they note the specific strategies and techniques they have decided to employ every time this misconduct is shown, in light of the lesson processes and of the pupil's personal features that are likely to be seriously affected by the teacher's management style (e.g., task process, social position in class, peer relations, and psychological situation). During the shortest duration of part of the lesson in which the indiscipline is demonstrated, teachers employ the strategy or technique and monitor closely the outcomes in terms of pupil and peer reactions, of lesson procedure, and of the teacher's own reflections and emotions. Observations are recorded on the spot in note form in an observation fact file that should be completed at the end of the lesson. Teachers need to evaluate their management and proceed to improvements.

They then can design a new cycle of discipline action that follows the same sequence of processing and editing.

EFL teachers may decide to focus on one negative act only or on more during the lesson; nevertheless, it is necessary that they restrict the numbers of indiscipline types to the maximum they can deal with during one single lesson, as the simultaneous exercise of TEFL and of indiscipline management is immensely demanding. If more than one misconduct type is to be handled, then teachers should design as many separate cycles of action as these types will be. So, a sequence of parallel management of different forms of indiscipline will take place. The more experienced and the more skillful English teachers become, with regard to management, the more automatic the process will be and the larger the number of indiscipline events that can be accommodated; this, however, heavily relies on time and teaching maturity.

In the following, those indiscipline management strategies, which the EFL teacher and child participants in Kuloheri's research reported and evaluated, are presented. As will be seen, the data strengthens Johnson et al.'s finding (1993) that primary teachers do not employ discipline strategies directly related to aspects of their teaching. This is evident in that the reported strategies aimed at intervening into the children's behavior and not, for instance, the English teachers' own behavior, teaching styles, and/or methods. So, the conclusion previously drawn, that YEFLL teachers (e.g., the Greek ones) do not take ownership of the problem of pupil disruption, is reinforced.

Johnson et al. attribute the employment of strategies unrelated to teaching to the possible reluctance of primary teachers to accept innovations in teaching issues too. Additionally, it may be possible that, though teachers like Kuloheri's participants are concerned with the relation of misbehavior to teaching and learning, they are unaware of the deeper beliefs of theirs. Indeed, one of the teachers informally told the researcher that never before had she consciously and seriously thought about the issue of disruption in her classes; this statement indicates the importance of becoming self-reflective for the purpose of improving parameters of EFL teaching/learning in one's classes, and the powerful contribution research processes can have in the participants' self-reflective development.

5.3.2 Authoritarian Approach

The multi-case study by Kuloheri on the indiscipline of young EFL learners revealed the extensive approval and implementation of the authoritarian theory of discipline by EFL teachers and, in particular, of the assertive approach to discipline and of Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA). Consequently, the findings revealed the dominant position of quite unyielding and inflexible behavior management practices in Greek TEFLYL classroom contexts. In respect to the assertive approach, research findings intensified the claim that this approach is the most extensively used one for managing behavior.

Having grown from the authoritarian approach, assertive discipline and ABA stress and promote the teachers' institutional role power, their coercive power to penalize learners in order to get them to obey, and their power to endorse and reward learner achievements (Porter 2006). The assertive discipline approach emphasizes the teacher's right to exert external control over learners, to get their compliance, to enforce orderly structures, and to inform them about the expected behavior. ABA argues that appropriate behavior is learned when it is rewarded, while inappropriate behavior is limited when punished. So, practically speaking, to establish learner compliance and encourage the appropriate behavior, the former is based on the employment of rules and of positive and negative consequences, and the latter on the administration of rewards and punishments. Coercive management strategies and techniques place the behavior manager (educator) at the center of deciding about, planning, applying, and controlling the management processes. Nevertheless, over the years this management practice has acquired democratic and cooperative features too.

More analytically, the main principles of action of assertive discipline (Canter and Canter 1976) are based on the premises that negative learner behavior is not to be accepted and tolerated, as teachers have the right to do their job properly and learners have the right to enjoy the fruits of being taught and of learning. Teachers should consistently observe when young learners do something satisfactory and valuable and should point

this out to them, helping them understand that this particular act is liked and appreciated. They also should protect all learners from the probable bad results of misbehavior, no matter whether they are the misbehavers or the recipients of others' misconduct. Rules are essential in setting the behavior limits within a classroom because they reinforce positive, respectful behavior. Learners will obey to rules when they know they will gain something. This is why expected behavior should be rewarded (or given positive consequences). On the contrary, when noncompliance is observed, the reinforcement of negative consequences set beforehand will urge children to remember their indiscipline and learn the alternative, accepted behavior. The approach supports teachers in the structure and function of teacher-led processes that aim at positively shaping the learners' behavior acts.

Applied Behavior Analysis (Kerr and Nelson 2006) asserts that educators should persist in establishing order, exerting control of learners, and handling their learning environment in ways that can bring about positive behaviors. Such acts can result from reinforcing compliance positively with rewards and from disapproving of noncompliance with punishments. It is considered necessary that teachers spot the cause of indiscipline and first try to alter the conditions that brought the act about. Following this, they should try to enforce a positive behavior in the learners and in the end discourage the negative one, if required. Therefore, ABA supports an organized approach to dealing with indiscipline that consists of behavior assessment, adjustment of conditions prior to the indiscipline, reinforcement of positive behavior through breaking it out into smaller acts, modeling it and scaffolding learners, and administering rewards and punishments. Rewards and punishments should suit the indiscipline needs of the individual at the time it occurs, should not detract from teaching and learning, and should limit the freedom of the undisciplined to the least required so that he or she can contribute to the achievement of the behavior aim set.

Such approaches to handling child behavior reflect the principles of certain religious systems such as Legalism. As discussed in Chap. 2, Legalism advocates order and limitations through the maintenance of teacher leadership and the employment of commands, rewards, punishments, and restrictions on behavior, contrary to Taoism, which espouses

that teacher governance and learner submission be avoided. Although St John Chrysostom also endorsed the need for a scheme of standards (norms) of proper behavior, which children should be conscious of, and for punitive behavior management, nevertheless he pointed out the necessity of reinforcing positive behaviors so as to forward the natural human ability for virtue, educate children to assume responsibility, and encourage good autonomous acts. Moreover, he saw the danger of children getting used to punitive modes of behavior learning and warned about the necessity to limit these practices in number and frequency. In addition, St John Chrysostom heightened awareness of the central importance of experiential learning for children, of the behavioral teacher model, and of advice, and he emphasized differentiated pedagogical applications.

English teachers who believe that children need obvious, indubitable behavior limits that will help them feel secure and support their successful learning presumably will prefer the authoritarian approach to child discipline. As assertive educators, they are also likely to think that their young learners become undisciplined because they cannot control their emotions or are not self-confident, and that they as their teachers should teach them conformity to one's moral or legal rights, or ability in self-control. This kind of obedience can satisfy the learners' need to feel safe and protected and urge them develop sensible abilities.

Teachers who want order to prevail can select assertive strategies of, in particular, a preventive or interventive nature, even though Canter and Canter (as well as Taoism, and St John Chrysostom in the Orthodox religion) believed in the effectiveness of proaction and prevention rather than of reaction. Strategies of a preventive nature will build and retain organization and harmony (i.e., "order"), according to Porter (2006). These indicatively may be not only the establishment of classroom rules and the delivery of supportive feedback for the purpose of emphasizing their accepted behavior (e.g., the behavior reinforcements of praise and rewards), but also the teacher's effort for a high-quality lesson, and the cultivation of a good relationship between teacher and young learners for the creation of the necessary conditions to affect them. For interventive purposes, there is, for example, the employment of corrective discipline, which comprises teacher responses to the learners' behavior. Corrective measures may entail reminders to learners of how they are expected to

behave, a kind of positive consequence (e.g., a smile and/or a "well-done") and of negative consequences (e.g., a change of seat, negative comments on class work, giving additional work, and not allowing participation in activities very much liked by children). Interventions of an assertive character also include contact with parents and sending pupils to the school head.

The kinds of assertive and ABA strategies will be presented in the following; these are ones that, according to Kuloheri's findings, Greek EFL teachers prefer to employ. Their application will be evaluated in light of EFL teachers' and young learners' experiential perceptions. So, readers will be able to gain an insight into probable advantages and disadvantages of the kinds of management they have employed and will be in a position to form a personal opinion about the possible reasons why they may have succeeded or failed. However, it is of utmost importance to investigate the same issues in other TEFLYL contexts internationally so that generalizations can be made known.

5.3.2.1   Rules

In the realm of TEFLYL, Read (2005) proposed the promotion of behavior norms and rules of classroom behavior as an integral feature of a framework for managing children positively, with the main aim of creating and maintaining a happy working classroom environment, and of promoting purposeful, motivated learning. Norms are understood to be standards or behaviors accepted by the majority, and rules are perceived as accepted principles that declare how the classroom environment should be organized and that describe the behaviors agreed on or not agreed on. Besides classroom rules, examples of such schemes can be the creation of behavior codes of student–teacher responsibilities and of rights (Ball 1973; Read 2005; Wadden and McGovern 1991).

Read's proposal was in agreement with the explicit establishment of a working structure of norms and of "clearly understood boundaries of acceptable behavior," as he puts it (p. 4), that were recommended centuries ago by personages who argued for norms in child education. One of them was St John Chrysostom, who in the name of child progress and development advocated the regulation of the framework of child edu-

cation by behavior standards that would be regularly implemented by children and instructors. Inherent in this system, he saw the teachers' obligation to raise self-awareness in children of their deviation from these patterns and to make consequences of unwanted acts known to them.

Extensive TEFL experience indicates that rules and norms do satisfy the prerequisites for the promotion of EFL classroom discipline and of a balanced atmosphere in class, where understanding, learning, and feelings of safety and self-confidence may be built. Rules also have been proven to function as an assertive management practice for both prevention and intervention purposes. This is because they can be put together, presented, and underlined not only before indiscipline appears but also after certain unpredictable misconduct types have become evident. So, their flexibility as a management tool allows for the supplementation of preventive sets of behavior norms with interventive ones in the case of unforeseen persistent misbehavior.

Behavior standards may be shared among various educational contexts of the same or diverse cultures and thus may lead to the expression of general, universal, cross-cultural discipline rules in the context of young EFL learners. Such common rules are usually basic such as "Follow instructions," "Listen carefully," "Ask when you are unsure," "Participate," "Be nice," and "Raise your hand and wait to speak." Given that common indiscipline can be identified across separate English classes (e.g., in the cases studied by Kuloheri 2010), EFL teachers who are working in these contexts can cooperate on creating, administering, and reinforcing a general EFL-learning behavior code, which is very likely to instill the seriousness of disciplined behavior in the children's minds and to increase the effectiveness of the teachers' management approach. Such efforts, in the long run, could contribute to the development of a classroom discipline policy within general education schools and foreign language schools, which at the moment is nonexistent in many countries such as Greece.

Nevertheless, because of the individual features that each EFL class can be assigned by the learners' needs and learning styles and by particular indiscipline types, discipline rules also may be group-centered or child-centered. Especially because of their advantage to address particular misconduct (Anderson and Spaulding 2007), they can be used to draw attention to the exact behavior that needs to be improved and/or

acquired in each context. Thus, they may contain behavior practices that specific EFL classes and/or particular learners of a class lack, and that are of absolute importance for the achievement of the aims of each lesson and of the EFL and behavior curricula.

For example, in some classes of children it appears essential to add the rule "Stay seated when the bell rings." because a number of them seem to be ready to jump off their seats the moment a break is signaled, even before the teacher or another learner finishes talking, before the class says goodbye, or before the homework is explained. Or "Keep hands and feet to self" because kids may seek physical contact with their peers during the lesson. Or "After the break, get ready for the lesson fast." because it takes some children ages to take out their books and notebooks. Or "Avoid cheating" because certain learners feel uncertain of what they know or have not studied at home and thus tend to copy from classmates.

A third category of discipline-focused rules should be the activity-centered ones. These include reminders of how children should act during particular EFL activities they do in class, especially when they tend to confuse learning with sheer enjoyment. This category is of immense importance for a YEFLL classroom because of the indiscipline young learners are observed to show during activities they are not used to doing in the other school subjects. As has been shown, Kuloheri's research brought to light and singled out the necessity of regulating child behavior during information and communication technology (ICT) tasks, dictations, EFL games and songs, listening, reading and speaking tasks, project work, and tests.

The types of classroom rules can be further supplemented with the fourth category, "culture-specific regulations." This rule group is imposed by the contemporary reality English teachers in certain countries frequently may be faced with in a multi-national classroom of young learners, such as Pakistani, Albanian, Nigerian, Greek, and German children in Athens, Greece. In such contexts, the list of classroom rules should also include norms and rules derived from the behavior codes of the civilizations of those children who come from the divergent cultural contexts, with a possible emphasis on the standards and principles pertaining to the dominant culture of the country where EFL learning is taking place. Such an approach to rules

can help with understanding, respect, and peaceful coexistence and cooperation between different people, foster social inclusion and acceptance of diversity, soften and end group tensions, cultivate class coherence, and increase success in learning. So, it appears as a sine qua non in the modern multicultural TEFLYL world that educators become knowledgeable about the practices of disciplined behavior of the societies their learners come from, respect and honor them, and consider and promote them in their classes systematically.

Associating rule formation and observance with the profiles of individual children and with cultural needs can transform the authoritarian aspect of the assertive approach to a more humanitarian and personalized one. Its egalitarian side could be given further prominence if English teachers involve children in the formation of classroom rules during organized class discussions. To enhance the possibilities for success, teachers should first explain the aim of their meeting and ensure the children's consent to the process. Second, it is fundamental that learners be encouraged to recall the rules they had to observe in their classes during the previous school years, discuss their importance and their lived past experiences, and so confirm, modify, and/or reject them. Then, they can be invited to recall discipline problems that burdened them and their English class, select those that seem the most significant to them, and turn the indiscipline cases into behavior rules expressed in a positive way. This whole rule–value process can engage young EFL learners in a creative mental and psychological process that strengthens rule memorization, respect, and rule observance and trains them in becoming more critical, communicative and responsible. Expressing rules in English and displaying them in class for constant reference will turn the rule-formation process into useful practice in the use of English for real-life communicative requirements.

The humanitarian character of rule reinforcement can be strengthened too if TEFL educators manage to not become slaves of rules in their classrooms and instill the same attitude in their young learners. This may well mean that rules will indeed be in force during English, unless serious reasons make it imperative that they are broken in specific cases. Daily TEFL practice with children indicates the necessity for educators to often enter discussions (sometimes fervently) with the young ones about the

reasons why one rule can be broken while another one cannot. Despite the demands such discussions present English teachers with, they raise behavior management at a classroom level to a matter of mutual concern and negotiation between children and educators, strengthen children's problem ownership, and increase the chances that learners will accept and internalize values and behave positively in class with less supervision. Dunn (2009) claimed that dialogues with learners may acquire an educational character and become more significant and less risky if teachers refer to expectations rather than rules, and if they can put forward good reasons for these expectations. The writer also stressed the need for teachers to act as behavior models rather than to expect pupils only to conform.

Trustworthy research data can function as the source of interesting information about the place of rules in concrete educational environments of young EFL learner classes. For example, in Kuloheri's multi-case study (2010), child and English teacher responses revealed that rules are employed during English lessons in Greek primary state schools as a helpful and necessary teacher practice for the management of misbehavior. The rules in one of the classes, which both the teacher and the children brought up during interviewing, were the general, universal ones of being quiet and raising hands to speak. The teacher alone added general, as well as group-centered rules, regulating pupil responsibilities, learner attention, peer relations (e.g., not rejecting disliked peers), and turn-taking.

The children added more group-centered rules about irrelevant engagements (e.g., to not play noughts and crosses and to not run in class during the lesson). In another English class, although the children confirmed the application of them, the rules quoted were relevant mainly to the use of physical force (e.g., to not beat on one another) and to off-task behavior (e.g., to not jump or run in class). Their English teacher also reported the rule of not interrupting others; however, this rule could not be triangulated with child feedback except for the interview response of one child.

Successful experimentation with the application of group interviewing rules that aimed at regulating turn-taking and effective communication in the specific research context indicated the potential of rules to control interaction between children and within the class during a primary school EFL lesson. In particular, child interview contributions were governed by a number of rules, known as "rules for democratic, ethical behavior."

They were compiled by the interviewer beforehand in light of her rich experience with children and were placed in front of each group. The groups gradually were taken through the rules, and examples were elicited and/or given. The rules contained two categories: (1) what the child interviewees could do and (2) what they could not do. They handled turn-taking, the communicative functions children could perform (e.g., telling their opinion, disagreeing, and persuading), and mutual respect and confidentiality. They were accompanied with the use of a soft anti-stress ball (presented to the children as the "turn-taking ball"), which interlocutors had to hold in their hands before starting to speak. Child input was surprisingly so organized, and group interviewing ran so exceptionally smoothly that after observing English lessons and indiscipline encounters, the idea occurred in the researcher that the same rules could probably be of great help to the English teachers in real EFL contexts. So, for experimental purposes, she suggested that one of them continue with the reinforcement of a revised version of the same rules and the use of the turn-taking ball during actual lessons.

The researcher shared the rationale of the process with the teacher and gave her a copy of the rules and a ball. The teacher agreed to apply the procedure for a month's time, and then to fill in an electronic feedback report. Obtaining feedback from the children was not feasible because of a lack of available time to get parental consent. The teacher's evaluation of the preceding rule-application process confirmed the positive effects of the particular basic interaction rules on the elimination of indiscipline during group cooperation. This appears generally consistent with the multi-case study finding that rules as a discipline strategy in EFL classes of children are essential and useful.

The striking difference between, on the one hand, this implementation phase and the English lessons throughout the rest of the school year and, on the other hand, the previous lessons the teacher had taught was that, according to the English teacher, rules were not blown up (as would normally happen in her lessons) but were kept to by the children. She also mentioned that after the second week the children would apply the rules without reaching for the ball. After reflection, it was evident that this positive result was because of the fact that the children were taken through the particular rules, the rules were explained and illustrated,

child performance was monitored closely, and rule violation was immediately pinpointed and corrected.

This may support the conclusion that systematic rule application encompassing rule clarification and understanding, close monitoring of child performance, and on-the-spot correction of the erroneous behavioral acts may lead to rule acquisition and self-regulated behavior. Second, the teacher's evaluation showed that particular rules can contribute to the enhancement of the learning strategies of centering attention and cooperating, as they were observed to increase concentration and to support group/pair work successfully. They were said to reduce the noise level and peer violence too (even in the case of hyperactive children). Furthermore, this rule-application process was found to encourage learner initiative in class and student responsibility (e.g., children tried to persuade disagreeing peers about the importance of trying the rules out and suggested solutions for cases of uncooperative classmates). Rules also were proved to facilitate teaching and learning (Porter 2006), as the class was reported to play more language games without problems.

From the teacher's evaluative understandings, it can be inferred that the successful application of these rules may have been because of the following. First comes the children's committed compliance, probably as a result of the rules being explained—that is, what the process entailed and why it was necessary—and of the children being given the right to choose whether to implement them or not. This possibly may show that sufficient external justification can be closely connected with compliance in discipline (Bergin and Bergin 1999), and may suggest reasoning and choice as two variables of motivation for child discipline. Also, the successful "trial" phase of rule application during interviewing may have boosted the children's confidence for good class performance. This can indicate previous relevant successful disciplining experiences in children as a motivational factor for encouraging committed compliance to positive classroom behavior. Third, it may be that the rules were clear to the children and consistent throughout the lessons (Porter 2006) and limited in number (Purkey and Avila 1971). But the teacher said that the most important stimulus for rule reinforcement and for the subsequent behavior modification was the ball.

The researcher's interviewing experience verified the motivational force of this tangible (i.e., a ball) for practicing turn-taking rules. This must

be so because getting hold of a familiar and much-liked item to children may have had the force of a powerful reward or consequence for them; so from the operant conditioning view, when certain behaviors are associated with specific positive consequences, these behaviors will increase (Bergin and Bergin 1999). The negative consequence set that it would be taken away if rules were violated must have motivated rule application more. The effect of the ball generally can indicate the immense support that a motivating stimulus (or token reinforcement), especially one that is novel to the children, may provide to behavior intervention and to language learning in the case of young learners.

Data triangulation also suggested rules as a generally common practice within a Greek school unit, approved and encouraged by Greek school heads. In one of the case studies, for instance, the head confirmed the emphasis on rules at school level, and the examples of rules he quoted were similar to those promoted by the English teacher. In this same case, the EFL teacher interviewee certified that classroom rules were set by all the school teachers. This points towards the existence of a basic, common rule-governing system across classes, a policy that can enhance approved and controlled behavior in children's minds and, consequently, increase positive pupil behavior in the English classroom. Unfortunately, though, this system was not documented in writing and was not made known to parents.

It also was found that only one of the four school heads had been aware of the application of rules in the English classrooms and openly accepted, stated, and forwarded regulating pupil behavior with them at a unit level (a practice confirmed by the Greek teacher during interviews too). The rest of the heads agreed with the seriousness of establishing behavioral rules, smoothed over teacher-to-child or child-to-child indiscipline instances, but made no organized effort to systematize rule application throughout their institutions. This confirmed many Greek EFL teachers' experience that school heads are often superficially involved in the management of EFL learner indiscipline and frequently are distanced from the reality of the English classes and unaware of the indiscipline situations with which teachers and their young learners may be faced.

Unfortunately, there was also little or no indication of a planned approach to rule reinforcement during English. Indicatively, during les-

son planning rules were not thought about beforehand, behavior problems were not anticipated, and lesson stages (e.g., reading, writing, or speaking) and EFL activities (e.g., games, contests, and songs) were not related to the application of proaction or intervention. Rules were not rehearsed in class either, so the learners' understanding of what each one actually meant may not have been ensured. Pupils were not involved in rule-setting or behavior evaluation either; on the contrary, they appeared to be passive recipients of what was to be applied.

One of the English teachers, for example, reported that she had made classroom rules known to her pupils at the beginning of the previous school year, when she first met them, but did not refresh the children's memory at the start of the current year because she viewed the rules as known. So, not only did she not elicit these rules from the young learners but also she did not invite them either to evaluate the rules for the current year in light of their past classroom experience and their feelings, to turn them down, and/or to improve them. Consequently, it may not have been a coincidence at all that, as she stated, her class rules were "*blown up into the ai::r, + very very _easily_* ." The young English learners agreed with rule-application process because, in their view, they reflected adult wisdom and were for the children's sake. Nevertheless, they shared their teachers' understanding that in the English lesson they were not respected at all.

The case study research also brought to light a striking conclusion from the comparison of the rules each teacher and her pupils believed existed in their English classrooms. Specifically, it was demonstrated that teachers and learners of an EFL class may share a partially divergent reality in terms of which rules are in force there. This can be related to the observed absence of written rule reminders in the English classes and of documentation of EFL classroom rules to parents, the disregard of a school behavior system, and the dismissal of a planned approach to rule reinforcement. Also, it may explain why the memorization of and observance of rules in the EFL classroom were not maximized (Porter 2006).

Conclusions drawn from the multi-case study findings led to certain specifications of the rule-application process in the EFL classroom. First, it is essential that rules (together with consequences) be presented in writing in the classroom so that they encompass a steady point of refer-

ence for learners and teachers at any time. School principals should be informed about the problem of indiscipline in the English classroom and supportive of the teacher's efforts to manage it. Lesson planning addressing indiscipline problems and rule-setting is an important precondition for managing the problem consistently and effectively.

Involving children in the process of drawing up rules and of behavior evaluation can emphasize the importance of rules in the children's minds and increase the chances for autonomous behavior modification and for the assumption of responsibility for problems. Besides these, Burke (2008) pointed out six additional conditions for successful reinforcement of behavior standards in class—namely, the need to restrict the number of rules to five, to provide children with input information about rules (e.g., why they are essential), to deny negotiation of some of them, to allow for them to be consistent with school regulations, and to draw a distinction between rules and processes. Experience has shown that making classroom rules known to parents raises the learners' respect for these principles of behavior and increases rule obedience.

5.3.2.2   Consequences

Besides rules, the application of the assertive approach to indiscipline entails the behavior modification model of consequences too. This is based on the behaviorist premise that behavior is shaped by its consequences. Expected behavior will be repeated when individuals obtain something they wish out of it (i.e., a positive consequence), while disliked behavior will be restricted if they are deprived of something desirable (i.e., a negative consequence).

Consequences are intended to reinforce the notions of cause-and-effect and of decision-and-result in children, and their understanding of the responsibility they carry for what they do and/or say during the lesson by letting them experience the outcomes of their choices. In this sense, consequences can be claimed to encourage self-awareness, problem ownership, and maturity and indirectly may contribute to self-involvement in the successful solution of problems. In the sense of the logical result of the children's decision to act in a certain way, consequences fall under the

umbrella of corrective discipline (Porter 2006), and can be divided into two categories: behavior reinforcers and behavior demotivators. Each one of these categories includes teacher acts in response, respectively, to the observance and to the violation of behavior rules by individuals or by groups, and in the order given, they aim at the increase and the restriction of the appearance rate of desired and undesirable behavior.

Reinforcers (or rewards) may be social such as a smile, a pat on the back, a hug, a handshake, high-fives, public praise, positive notes to parents, pairing up with best friends during tasks, and becoming the teacher's helper. They also may be tangibles (e.g., bonus points, congratulation certificates, and stars and stickers), tokens (e.g., little stones for exchange, EFL activities they prefer like doing art-and-craft in English, reading an English comic, singing their favorite songs, and playing an EFL game on the playground), and last, but not least, the removal of something they consider negative (e.g., being assigned less or no homework). Demotivators can be establishing eye-contact with the young learners in a way that expresses the urgency for realizing one's act and modifying it on the spot, changing seating arrangement, assigning more homework, depriving children of a right (e.g., not participating in an EFL game they are fond of), writing a negative comment in their school diary, giving a lower mark, not allowing them to watch the English film scheduled for their class, inviting parents to school, and sending pupils to the headmaster.

Regarding reinforcers, common evidence in Kuloheri's multi-case study confirmed the application of rewards during English. From the wide range of rewards presented previously, teacher understandings brought up mainly the activity reinforcers of providing lesson time for drawing, showing young learners an interesting English film suitable for their age, offering them the chance to play EFL games, singing songs, doing computer tasks, reading them an English story, and allowing them some freedom to do what they want for a short period of time.

Concerning the effectiveness of this strategy, the study substantiated the children's fondness for it. What is more important, it reported one of the English teachers' perception that the reason why indeed it was considered useful was because it could make the undisciplined pupils

put an end to their negative behavior in order to listen to the reward a classmate of theirs received. Nevertheless, the research also proved that a teacher's reinforcing action towards young learners may not always be understood as such by the children, as some child interviewees were surprisingly unaware of the provision of rewards during the English lesson. This can be recorded as the possibility that some of the practical advice for providing rewards (Porter 2006) were not followed. For example, they may not have been given in time.

As Porter argues, in the early years of primary education, immediate reinforcement within one day is more effective, whereas in the rest of the primary school years it can be given within a maximum of a week. Alternatively, rewards may not have been applied as systematically as necessary for the learners to view and understand the importance of their positive behavior. The teacher may not have explained clearly beforehand what the expected behaviors were and what the reinforcement process would entail, or the children were not asked to choose reinforcers. Besides this hands-on advice, Dunn (2009) alerted EFL educators to the transient nature of the change rewards can bring about and to their ineptitude to safeguard a long-lasting modification of behavior. Moreover, the writer warned teachers of the possible psychological damage reinforcers may inflict when learners belong to the category of those children who are regular attendees of the rewarding of their classmates but are never the rewarded ones.

In respect of the second consequence type, behavior demotivators, the TEFLYL research has shown that English teachers in Greece match negative consequences with punishments, which were said to aim at putting an end to misbehavior and to help the class calm down. However, they were found to not work during the English lesson. Punishments took the form of, for instance, the children producing multiple written copies of English texts, of the deprivation of a child's enjoyment (e.g., not participating in an EFL game), and of being kept in class during the break. Nevertheless, the Greek EFL teacher participants turned out to not be in favor of them and to try to avoid them whenever possible. But as one English teacher confessed, they seemed necessary to her because:

"*Some kids see that they:::: get away with it* (she means with their indiscipline)*, and don't work at all. + neither at home, nor in class.+*"

The avoidance of punishments by Greek EFL teachers of children aligns with Bibou-Nakou et al.'s finding (2000) that Greek primary teachers adopt punitive management strategies the most seldom. However, this is in strong contrast with the Johnson et al. (1993) and the Lewis (2001) findings that, respectively, South Australian and American primary school teachers often employ punishments. This contrast may be explained in terms of the various cultural and religious contexts in which these teachers may have been brought up and, subsequently, of the divergent attitudes they may have developed towards punishment, and/or of the disparate TEFL framework in which they may have been trained as professionals.

Concerning the child participants, the findings of the particular study indicated that negative consequences are inscribed in the Greek children's minds merely as punishments, while behavior reinforcers and alternatives to punishments are difficult to be perceived. Indeed, when child interviewees were asked by the researcher to brainstorm on kinds of consequences that could be delivered in response to unpleasant behavior in class, punishments were the sole suggestion that crossed their minds; and when they were invited to think about ways good behavior could be rewarded, they experienced difficulty in answering. Moreover, the young learners' general evaluative opinion about punishments was unanimously positive.

As they believed, punishments contribute to the improvement of bad pupil behavior, while their absence may result in its continuation. Besides regarding them as an effective management strategy, the children also would think of punishments as a justifiable consequence of their negative classroom behavior. This was shown in their expectation that punishments follow unacceptable acts in class, and in their evaluation that they work in Greek school lessons. In light of social experience in Greece, the children's positive evaluation of punishments can reflect the effect exerted on child beliefs by the Greek cultural reality, in which punishments are a common authoritative, assertive method of handling child misconduct in family and school environments.

Considering the finding that, contrary to what would happen in the English class, punishments issued in the L1 classes did work, this can be

attributed to a number of parameters. These could be the child-perceived low status of the English teacher at school, the observed fact that the issue of negative consequences was delayed (e.g., it occurred after escalation of the misbehavior), and/or the possible weak effect of this negative consequence on a particular class or EFL learner (Porter 2006). Alternatively, the English teachers may not have been persuasive enough because of their open dislike for this strategy or of the pressure they exerted on themselves for its use.

In spite of the learners' positive evaluation of punishments, teaching experience has indicated that punitive indiscipline strategies such as these do not ultimately change individuals for the better, but rather have the potential to create flaws in the children's personalities and characters and impair their learning. For example, they can be followed by, at least, a serious decrease of children's self-confidence, withdrawal behavior, physical/verbal violence, a rise of fear in them, refusal to obey, feelings of revenge for the educator, a negative attitude to the English subject and lesson, and/or severe demotivation.

In the case in which the indiscipline management strategy misses the target of supporting the improvement of one's acts, the neo-Adlerian theory proposed that educators positively impose on their learners logical and reasonable consequences for indiscipline in the form of cause-and-effect, which can be adjusted to learner feelings and needs (Albert 2003; Burke 2008; Dreikurs and Cassel 1990; Nelsen et al. 2000). For logical consequences to have the intended effect, it also suggested that they are issued when proaction is already in force, when other solutions cannot work, when the learners' opinions about the preferred consequences are taken into consideration, and when consequences are not the result of teacher revenge. Finally, educators also should bear in mind that consequences would preferably be implemented for one lesson only, and not be carried on to the next English lessons. If young learners receive negative consequences continuously, they may well form the impression they are unable to change their behavior to the better.

5.3.2.3 Warnings

According to the multi-case study findings, the Greek EFL teachers were found to employ warnings too. Warnings, or "reminders" according to

Wolfgang et al. (1999, p. 46), generally are aimed at encouraging children to concentrate more on their classroom behavior -at urging them, in particular, to realize the negative behavior they have shown- and at reminding them (directly or indirectly) of the respectful, positive behavior expected. As such, these can be considered a proactive, self-awareness technique. But due to the fact that teachers issue them not merely in anticipation of a misbehavior, but also in response to a misconduct, warnings can be considered an interventive management strategy too. In recognition of the children's incomplete development and especially their weak memory, they also can be understood as an ethical means of facing their tendency to repeat faults before treating them in a stricter and more definite way.

In light of the claim that interventions should be staged from mild to more forceful, warnings are considered an indispensable initial part of corrective action, but should be stopped when they tend to become repetitive (Porter 2006). The interventions may be of various kinds, and thus come in the form of a teacher frown directed towards the misbehaving child, of a critical look, of a pat on the shoulder, of repeated teacher motion near the child, of pointing to the rule on the notice board, or of showing an agreed-on reminder item like a picture. Warnings may be systematized too. This can be demonstrated with the method one of the English teacher participants described during Kuloheri's study, a behavior card system. According to the English teacher, this system was employed to make the children aware of and responsible for their disruptive behavior. It was comprised of a green, a yellow, and a red card. Each card was intended to send the message to the undisciplined children that something was wrong with their behavior (green card), that they had just one chance to make the same mistake again (yellow card), and that the next time the indiscipline occurred they would be referred to the school head to explain what they had done (red card). Classroom observation and child interviewing data proved that the system was regularly applied and that the process was comprehensible.

The system was evaluated very positively by the EFL teacher and the children. According to group child interviewing data, the children liked it because it helped with good behavior, was entertaining and gentle, and provided them with chances for improvement instead of being penalized with a direct negative consequence. This favorable child view and feeling can provide the argument that nonaggressive discipline techniques are likely to develop a positive attitude in children towards behavior

improvement. Case-centered evidence also supports the claim that a warning system and, more generally, a behavior management practice that is clearly defined and administered and consistently applied with young EFL learners can be accepted by children and teachers alike, and that it can have constructive effects on behavior modification. Teaching experience also can advance the idea that when a discipline system is accompanied by visual stimuli (e.g., colored cards), then the chances for behavior reinforcement in child memory are apt to be increased.

Nevertheless, one of the groups interviewed expressed their dislike specifically for the association of the red card with the referral to the school head because, as they mentioned, although such a visit could keep them from repeating the misbehavior, it made them feel bad. This can be linked with the research finding in the same investigation that children lose face when they are sent to the headmaster. Subsequently, one can understand that such a referral may disempower school children and contribute negatively to the formation of their self-concept and to classroom relations. Given that bad peer relations can act as an indirect cause of indiscipline in an English class of young learners and self-concept as a direct one, the preceding indicates referral to the school head as an unsuitable technique for managing young EFL learners' disruption.

Senior educators' perceptions supported the inappropriateness of this strategy in light of their understanding that teachers may also lose credibility in class. So, the child interviewees' suggestion for a modification of the system with the addition of one more step before the children were sent to the school head sounds right. As they suggested, this supplementary step could be a classroom discussion about the events that may have led to indiscipline and, if required, sending the undisciplined child out of the room for a few minutes. Altogether, it seems sound not to include referral to the head at all.

Experience with teaching English to children indicates that warnings and negative consequences should be practiced with caution, mainly because of the children's natural need to feel safe and protected, and to the danger of distracting young learners from working rather than urging them to pursue work after their indiscipline. As a result, educators should attend to the following management areas, which have been established as of immense importance. First, the warning and consequence systems

should be discussed and agreed on with each English class so that children do not react against them but rather share the responsibility for their application. They should be announced discretely from a close distance from the child and not across the classroom so that the undisciplined one does not feel embarrassed or lose face, and the attention of the rest of the class is not diverted. They both should be employed regularly, and teachers should not be hesitant or child-sensitive when administering them; children can perceive adult weaknesses and may exploit them. Last, but not least, warnings and negative consequences should not be issued to the learner in a harsh way as a punitive sanction or as revenge, but rather in a calm and steady tone of voice as a natural outcome of the act.

5.3.2.4   Reprimands, Shouts, and Threats

Verbal reprimands have been claimed to be one of the two kinds of aversive punishment—the other one being corporal punishment (Porter 2006), which was not found to take place at all in the Greek EFL learning contexts. They are experienced as negative oral, evaluative teacher comments on indiscipline addressed to the misbehaving child. They normally express the adult's limitation in standing misconduct and indicate an urgent conscious or subconscious need for the teacher to see the child adopting positive behavior instantly.

The TEFL multi-case study revealed strong unanimity in child perceptions about reprimanding and shouting as one of their English teachers' frequent practices in the management of indiscipline. This conclusion refuted the Wragg (1999) finding that scolding is rarely employed. The study data also shed light on child views about the reasons why shouting and scolding cannot help with behavior improvement and EFL learning. As one child interviewee stated:

> "*The mi:ss, of English, … e:::r shouldn't shout because the kids will show:::, this behavior that the teacher has,-*".

Thus, indirectly the interviewee provided a feasible explanation for the reason why the young learners of that particular class also were reported to shout a lot when misbehaving. Additionally, child participants claimed that these techniques added to classroom noise, reduced lesson quality, wasted valuable lesson time, and distracted learner concentration. Their views can support the more general argument that Greek young EFL learners are concerned primarily with the teaching and learning aspects of peer indiscipline. The child perception that shouting distracts their attention from the lesson can add to the evidence in support of the claim that teacher aggression can disrupt learner focus on class work (Lewis 2001). As some of the children added, these practices have either short-term results or no results at all because despite the probable momentary halt of misconduct, the children

> "*would not li:::sten to the mi:ss*" or "*would not knock some **se::::nse** , into their minds!*"

Consequently, they would repeat their indiscipline in subsequent lessons. Kerr and Nelson (2006), however, asserted that when verbal reprimands are not issued in public and do not degrade pupils, then they can bear fruits.

When asked about the strategy of threats, only the child participants understood that these were made in the English class. This again may imply that EFL teachers in Greek primary state schools perhaps are unaware of how they react to indiscipline, probably because of strong emotions they may be experiencing (e.g., anger) or the stress they are under when they teach. In addition, child beliefs were consistent and definite in that threatening is ineffective and can thus either not improve the children's behavior at all or have short-term results (e.g., for a quarter or half hour).

As mentioned previously, two girl interviewees provided the striking perception that threatening strategies, such as warning pupils for referral to the school head, make them lose face and do not prevent them from any misconduct. This perceived ineffectiveness may be because of the

reported child understanding that threats remained mostly unrealized, and that the teachers did not manage to instill fear in them. Child interviewing further revealed that if an English teacher's lenience prevailed, and if threats were not realized, then no change of behavior took place because the misbehaving individuals simply disregarded them as of no significance. Alternatively, in light of teaching experience, threatening may not have been consistent or strong enough, and thus it may have gone unnoticed by children.

In light of teacher training experience, English teachers of young learners gradually resort to shouting at children, scolding them, and finally even threatening them before they issue consequences. So, shouts, scolding, and threats can be considered escalated stages of more assertive systems. If these three are administered consciously and rarely by the English teacher as a way of causing some kind of shock to children who display insistent distracting behavior during English, and as a way of waking them up from their certainty that misconduct will cause them no harm, then they could have some effect, provided of course that the undisciplined learners and the rest of the class feel no insecurity. However, if the previous three stages contain a sentimental, instinctive, uncontrolled reaction of the teacher to persistent misconduct and a sign of gradual loss of the teacher's temper, then they obviously show improper indiscipline management.

First, they deprive young EFL learners of the necessary discipline model during their education, as they exhibit the adult's inability for self-control within an educating context that aims at training children in developing a strong awareness of and willpower over their actions. In addition, they may bring about feelings of intense insecurity in children, reduce their self-confidence, make them react defensively, upset an otherwise calm learning environment, activate more indiscipline, and cause a dislike for the English language and for English language learning.

5.3.3   Consultation with Learners

Engaging in a dialogue with young learners before making a decision is one of the humanistic teacher responses to handling classroom problems,

in the teachers' effort to treat children as thinking human participants in processes of mutual interest. Learners can be supported in becoming self-aware individuals and in developing thinking and learning skills, and teachers can be guided in understanding aspects of the indiscipline problems that are more obvious to the learners but hidden to them; so, it is thought that the most appropriate solution to the indiscipline problem can be found.

Discussions are the working area where the application of religious and philosophical educational principles can be supported. For example, teaching can be linked, as Plutarch aspired, with passing on knowledge to children, and conversation can be used in the Socratic way of reflecting on classroom experience, classifying it, reaching knowledge, and ultimately improving oneself. Emphasis can be placed on the development of Aristotle's good child reasoning and argumentative thought through the teachers' activation in their role as systematic leaders to thinking processes and the acquisition of good behavior. Children can become what Locke considered active knowledge seekers and rational thinkers; and they can achieve Rousseau's objectives of gradually reaching knowledge on their own, developing reasoning and critical thinking, becoming autonomous personalities, and learning how to learn.

The doctrine of Confucianism can be satisfied too in light of the fact that educators of disorderly classrooms come to understand learner emotions and varied needs and so choose techniques that unlock learner potential and bring self-change. In addition, discursive practices can encourage the Buddhist aspiration for freedom of thought in pursuit of the truth and for the investment of mental capacity against lack of knowledge, prejudices, and/or narrow or incorrect viewpoints.

Educators devoting time and effort to talking with young EFL learners also could be supporters of the ABA because, despite its authoritarian nature, its more advanced forms include conferring with the undisciplined ones about their misbehavior and its causes (Porter 2006). Discursive procedures can be regarded as falling within the cognitive theory too (Porter 2006) because they emphasize thinking processes, encourage practicing and learning how to think, draw the focus on classroom child–teacher acts, raise awareness of the reasons for these acts and of their repercussions, and develop critical thinking. If the management strategy being

discussed is combined on the one hand with the application of techniques, such as thinking and/or self-regulatory activities, and on the other hand with rewards and punishments, then it falls within cognitive behaviorism. If it, however, comprises part of the means by which democracy is aimed to be established in the EFL classroom, then it also may belong to the Neo-Adlerian management approaches, which are based on the democratic relationships of equality, dignity, and freedom within limits. So, in order to identify the discipline approach to which a teacher's dialogic strategy to indiscipline belongs, it is vital that the whole procedural framework in which discussions are carried out in class be investigated.

In practice, discussions may be of two kinds: on-the-spot and delayed; and they can take place in the classroom or outside the classroom. They can be between the teacher and the undisciplined pupil(s), aiming to raise awareness in them of the misbehavior that occurred, to give them the chance to provide details about the event and/or their reasons for it, to invite them to listen to the teacher's ideas about it, and to encourage them to "take ownership of problems" (Scarpaci 2007, p. 112). Porter (2006) also suggested class meetings and discussions between the teacher, the pupils, and the parents. In class meetings, after young learners provide their own ideas about indiscipline at the class level, they are invited to decide on their preferred solution(s) for the correction of misbehavior such as apologizing or telling a peer to calm down. In discussions with parents, learners can be invited to evaluate the positive and negative aspects of their behavior, and to reflect on their needs and on what is required for the satisfaction of them.

For discussions to be successful as an interaction and as a guidance technique towards child awareness, mental development, and self-regulation, they should be based on solid foundations. Harrison (2004) defined these as the principles of mutual accountability, power balance, collaboration, respect, provision of confidence, and reliance. In light of the conceptualization of dialogic discussions as a process whereby two or more people delve into a matter of mutual concern to investigate it entirely and to ask and answer questions pertaining to it, they should be exploratory, explanatory, and truth-oriented; in addition, interlocutors should be actively involved in them and share concerns and efforts.

Dialogic interactions additionally should reflect the application of the democratic principles of communication so that interlocutors will be able to think freely and without pressure and thus contribute creatively to the process. In this sense, they should be egalitarian and thus embody respect to the principle of equality in the interlocutors' importance as human beings and in their rights and opportunities in classroom life and in life in general. Last, but not least, it is advisable that discussions occur in an organized way, and preferably not instinctively, even though unpredictable classroom events often require that EFL teachers follow their instincts in how to consult with children.

During the application of this behavior management strategy in the English classroom of young learners, the following discursive framework has emerged as effective. EFL teachers should first draw the pupils' attention to the actual act(s) they consider indiscipline and ask the class whether they too think of it as negative and why. Teachers may find out that at this stage it is essential for them to lead the class in noticing the negative aspect(s) of what they recognized as indiscipline; however, this should be done without imposing their own perceptions so that social principles and values and expected behavior patterns are brought to the children's attention. Before proceeding to the next stages, it also is important that the agreement of the class with regard to the specific behavior as indiscipline be safeguarded.

Then, teachers can invite class members to recall and describe details of the event as each has experienced it. This usually results in enormous child contributions and, therefore, in an unpredictably rich and deep representation of the event and the specification of useful details that may have escaped the teachers' notice but determined the indiscipline to be grave. At the next stage, teachers should elicit the sequence of events from the learners so that the class can see with precision how events evolved. A couple of individual students can be asked to narrate the event again on their own so that the class can consolidate the parametric aspects of the indiscipline (e.g., what the undisciplined children were doing exactly, who they were with, what they said, in what tone of voice, and what their faces looked like). In the end, teachers should be sure that the class agrees on the main facts of the specific narration. The use of a board as a point of reference for the presentation of the details will be of great help for the

children and the teacher to map the event and grasp the significance of both the whole picture and its parts.

Following the preceding, the question should be posed to the children about what it was that made the individual child behave negatively. Here children are likely to provide a sufficient number of different views that, however, can set the causal determinants of indiscipline in an adequate manner (e.g., EFL activity type, peer relationships, personal feelings of apprehensiveness, family events, and influential antecedent events). This brainstorming stage is central in raising awareness in children of the possible behavioral influences in class and can become the starting point for them to observe themselves and the situations in which they find themselves—for example, what kind of activity they were doing or text they were reading, whether they liked it or found it too easy or too difficult, who they were working with, whether something that was said upset either of the collaborators, how they were feeling, and how they or others reacted.

Next, the teacher poses the question about the alternative way(s) the undisciplined children may have behaved. Again, child brainstorming will be rich in its results; if, however, this is not the case, English teachers will have to elicit replies in light of their own observations about the particular event, of their teaching experiences and knowledge, and especially of the target behavior(s) they wish to encourage in the children.

Throughout the process, it is vital that the undisciplined children do not feel threatened by becoming the center of the discussion, as this may well result in defiance, aggressiveness, or withdrawal, and consequently in the elimination of the possibilities for them to accept their responsibility and agree to adopt a positive alternative behavior. This protective role falls significantly on the teachers' backs as the most mature individuals in class and the ones liable for educating young EFL learners in disciplined, respectful behaviors.

Research on the operation of dialogic discussions with young EFL learners is nonexistent. The only traceable one (Kuloheri 2010) suggested the conclusion that discussions are one of the indiscipline management practices that an important number of Greek teachers of English (three out of four) engaged in with their young learners. Bearing in mind the communicative features that characterized the respondents' teaching and

the fact that effective communication was the more general goal of their TEFL approach, this preference for discussions in behavior management may confirm the relationship between one's repertoire of responses to indiscipline and educational goals (Porter 2006). Moreover, it may denote the teacher respondents' wish and effort to turn to a less authoritarian and more democratic indiscipline management approach. Indicatively, one of the English teacher interviewees expressed the belief that discussions were advantageous because they served the primary schooling objective of:

> "*Helping children to::::: learn. how they should behave, in a group, + who they'll respect, + not only the teacher. + but also the class mate above everything else +*", beyond the offer of "*drie:::d knowledge.+*"

Concerning the lesson stages discussions at which they can be employed, the same teacher explained that she resorted to them proactively, mainly before EFL games, to clarify misconceptions in her learners about the purpose of these activities and so restrict their misconduct while playing. The Teacher Portfolio data of another English teacher indicated that they were used as an intervention during arguments in the lesson for the purpose of ending them. Findings further suggested that in the previous contexts, two kinds of discussions were selected, on-the-spot and delayed ones, either outside the classroom between the teacher and the misbehaving pupil or inside the classroom with the whole class.

During group interviewing, child participants were asked to evaluate the worth of discussions as a disciplinary strategy. The young EFL learners were more analytical in their responses, to the extent that a threefold belief scheme emerged. In specific, they claimed that discussions had the persuasive potential for forwarding behavior improvement, for preventing the worsening of bad peer relations, and for helping learners avoid their referral to the head's office. As they said, through discussions they were able to understand what they did wrong and to calm down, to consider alternative approved behaviors they could adopt, to take time to think about their mistakes before going to the head's office, and to put an end to conflicts with peers. Within the wider context of the educational literature, Greek EFL teachers of young learners were found to share the liking for reason or discussion as a main management strategy

with Australian primary school teachers in Adelaide (Johnson et al. 1993) and in Victoria (Lewis 2001). The pupils also were found to favor more liberal, interactive management approaches like Australian students did (Lovegrove et al. 1985).

EFL teachers and pupils who showed a liking for conferencing attribute this to the power of dialogic interactions for behavior transformation. The school education Greeks receive through the subjects of history, citizenship education, and religion (and later in high school, ancient Greek literature) may have contributed significantly to this appreciation of conferencing through the acquisition of solid background knowledge about democracy and of democratic social skills. Of course, family issues and/or political influences may play a crucial role in this choice too. It is also to be borne in mind that in the multi-case study the English educators who favored discussions would apply CLT in their classes, so there may be a relationship between the children's preference for conferencing and their EFL learning experiences with communicative procedures.

Teacher and child research participants also were asked to evaluate the results of the application of discussions in the management of EFL classroom indiscipline. Although both sides expressed recognition of the worth of the strategy as such, the judgments they made about its outcomes were not unanimously positive. The young EFL learners of the first case study, for instance, assessed them negatively because, despite some learners' responsiveness to their English teacher's consultation, still others were not persuaded to stop behaving badly and constantly disregarded teacher advice. They added that the discussions resulted in child shouting inside the classroom, in many unnecessary lesson interruptions, and in the loss of valuable lesson time.

Concerning teacher views, perceptions were split. Two of them formed the opinion that discussions in class were better than authoritative, suppressive measures against bad behavior because they can *"see:::: them* (the children) *shine+++"*, and the learners get motivated to speak about the problem when they are asked their opinions. A third one had observed that in the short run discussions contributed to the children regaining their composure and to the continuation of the lesson. However, she thought they did not help in the long run, the pace of the lesson got slower and consequently this gave rise to learner complaints. These unfavorable outcomes

may be put down, as observed, to the delayed employment of discussions or to the understanding that they were too repetitive. As a result of the latter, discussions must have been boring and demotivating. Alternatively, they could have been void of useful content or inappropriately structured.

Being certain about the advantageous role discussions can play in the discipline process in EFL classes of children, the researcher posed interview questions about the procedure followed in class. According to the data, the application of the strategy was found to be partial, teacher-centered, and understandably ineffective. For instance, one teacher tried to listen to the children's explanations for the indiscipline event but explained to them herself the reasons why their behavior was wrong, and advised them personally about how they should behave. The second teacher interviewee stated that she would initiate discussions to advise pupils about their negative behaviors, especially when these involved disrespect of classroom rules, such as breaking in on the lesson, and when they disturbed her or/and upset their peers.

The third English teacher held discussions with a considerable delay, as the researcher's observation showed—namely, only after the teacher's repeated unsuccessful efforts to discipline pupils by calling their attention to the lesson. Evidently, these steps comprised an incomplete application of the process required because they did not constitute explaining to the children the consequences of their negative behavior and involving them actively in issues such as reports of the events and negotiation of solutions.

Children do need explanations about the impact of their behaviors because of their still limited social experience and subsequent point of view. Reasoning can persuade them about the appropriate ways of acting in class and gradually broaden their egocentric attitude towards life. So, they can develop values and knowledge about themselves and others and about what they need do to become self-disciplined (Porter 2006). Moreover, they can reach a point at which they develop committed compliance and consequently self-regulation, which is the goal of every discipline encounter (Bergin and Bergin 1990). Negotiation, on the other hand, supports the mental processing of the indiscipline context, forwards different aspects of it, clarifies what the teacher and peers have in mind, examines behavior options, attracts a variety of opinions, and enhances

the adoption of effective solutions. So, discipline is not mandated by the teacher, and children are motivated to take an active part in shaping behavior by using their acquired understandings of the world, by expanding learning, and by exploring behavior choices (Porter 2006). In light of the preceding, negative student reactions to discussions like the reported ones are likely to be alleviated.

Multi-case study data also indicated that discussions were too short, and that they were problematic in that some pupils could not control their negative feelings or take turns. These negative evaluations can signify underdeveloped interaction skills and affective strategies in children (specifically, not waiting for their turn, shouting and not controlling negative emotions) not only as a direct determinant of child indiscipline in Greek state school EFL classes but also as a direct cause of the ineffective application of a dialogic indiscipline management approach.

Child data that disconfirmed the application of discussions in one of the cases may denote that discussions were quite uncommon there. This probably may be because of the restricted time available to the EFL teacher to serve both curricula and child developmental goals. Or, it could be the particular teacher's reported low self-concept in discipline management that hindered her from exploiting discussions to the necessary extent. Alternatively, in case an English teacher does assert that s/he employs discussions, but child reports disprove it, there may be a distance between what humans think they do and what they actually do. Whatever the situation is, self-observation and self-reflection are advantageous for approximating the truth.

5.3.4 Seeking Help from External Sources

Educators often find themselves in the unpleasant situation of feeling distressed at, ineffective in, and sometimes even incapable of controlling indiscipline in their classes, especially in the case of insistent misconduct of the whole class or of individual learners. In this case, they may turn for help to three basic peripheral sources—namely, those of the principals of the educational institute, another teacher of the same institution (e.g.,

the main/L1 teacher of the class), and/or parents. More rarely, teachers who are daring, progressive, and not afraid of facing their own faults also may resort to specialists such as their School Advisors, psychologists, and social workers.

Regarding EFL teachers, they have been documented to need particular help with the management of child indiscipline too (Kuloheri 2010). The school head appears to be the primary source they usually call on in Greek schools, while second comes help from colleagues. Although parents also may be approached, they comprise a supportive source that is either less frequently contacted or more often difficult to access.

5.3.4.1   Administration

Starting with the head of the institution, the data confirmed Porter's position about the role administrators can play in school discipline (2006). The English educators interviewed perceived them in an authoritarian sense—namely, as those individuals who, when required, are expected to be able to function as the bogeyman or whipping woman, in front of whom children will nearly tremble and/or hesitate to approach, and cautiously report what they have done in class only to be scolded or even threatened. School heads also are believed to be the strict persons who intend to not accept any indiscipline and to contact the child's parents should the same misbehavior reoccur. Nevertheless, English teachers confessed that they felt weak and lacked self-confidence when they resorted to head teachers.

While presenting the assertive approach to discipline, which as mentioned earlier comprises an evolution of the authoritarian approach, Porter (2006) focused on **s**even major issues about administrative support. One of them is the necessity for educators to first try to settle continuing misbehaviors alone and, in case these fail, then to contact the head. This perspective is in agreement with the view expressed in Kuloheri's research by one of the four head participants, who preferred to mediate only if (English) teachers exceeded their limits and felt unable to do something effective on their own; however, this could result in

the educator losing credibility. Overall, the data documented the heads' viewpoint that administration does understand the leading role it can perform in undisciplined classroom behavior.

The second issue highlighted by Porter is the heads' eagerness to contribute to disciplining students, an undoubted prerequisite for their effective intervention. Following this comes the levels at which school heads can get involved. First, they had better approve formally of any discipline plan announced by the educator and offer advice to learners and their parents about behavior matters. Then, they can enact school suspensions and call parents to inform them about how their children behaved in class. What is, though, of utmost importance as an innovative head's intervention, was the Canter and Canter (1976) suggestion for rewarding positive learner behavior.

Although it is common knowledge that good behavior is to be reinforced, this practice becomes innovative within the context of behavior management by the administration because school heads normally do not follow it. They may acknowledge disciplined behavior in passing in different periods during the day, but they seem not to devote time and effort to planning systematic reward of such behaviors across classes, especially with those undisciplined pupils who are seen to be changing their acts to the better. As a result, they have been identified mainly with strict authoritative corrective action. Indeed, if principals join in the application of reinforcers, this can decrease the frequency of the appearance of undisciplined classroom behavior and will transform the principals' status to a determining positive disciplining power.

5.3.4.2   Colleagues

According to the multi-case study data, school EFL teachers are likely to ask the main class teachers—those who teach L1 and the rest of the primary school subjects—to provide their support when pupils misbehave in English. Requesting help from the main educator of the class is an indiscipline management strategy generally practiced in Greek primary schools, whereby the so-called "specialist teachers"—those who hold specific teaching qualifications such as in music, art-and-crafts, and

drama—are expected to tell the main teachers about the indiscipline they experience during their lessons and ask them to instruct or even threaten the pupils accordingly.

More specifically, the findings indicated four practical areas of EFL teacher–L1 teacher cooperation—that is, making pairing arrangements in the EFL classroom, involving a colleague in time-out during English (e.g., she would take away undisciplined children), issuing instructions about proper English lesson behavior, and delivering punishments during Greek lessons for having misbehaved during English.

For instance, in one of Kuloheri's case studies, the English teacher explained that the L1 teacher's support, first, could play a preventive role by guiding her in class organization; as she said:

> She and the Greek teacher "***agree::d*** , + *and the kids know it <u>too</u> , + that in the English classroom, ... they will sit, ... in the same group that their teacher has put them. +*"

This would be because she believed that the L1 teacher's increased contact time with the certain class enabled her to specify power relations among the learners better (e.g., who could function well with whom), how a naughty child could be isolated, and how good and weak learners could be paired up. The child-reported data suggested that the L1 teacher would help in more ways. She, for instance, would be called by the English teacher to take the undisciplined child away, would enter the English classroom unexpectedly to check children's behavior and guide them, and would issue punishments during her own lessons for indiscipline during the EFL period.

The above areas raise a concern about the extent to which another teacher should interfere in matters of EFL classroom indiscipline within a wider educational setting like that of the school or a private language institute. This issue emerges as important because of the finding that the English teacher's status in educational contexts, such as Greek primary schools, is perceived as inferior to those of the main classroom teacher and the EFL tutor in the private institute. For this collegial intervention to not influence the English teacher's prominence in the EFL class, the teachers' collaboration should entail power sharing (Porter 2006).

This probably did not occur between them, however, because the English teacher was not reported, for instance, to also intervene in indiscipline during Greek lessons. On the contrary, the children believed that their L1 teacher was effective in handling their bad behavior during both English and Greek lessons, unlike their English instructor. Consequently, the main teacher's support may degrade the English teacher's position in class more, and intensify a negative learner attitude to the EFL teacher as a determinant of indiscipline. This may be one of the reasons why the English teacher could not deal successfully on her own with indiscipline.

Another important matter is related to the areas of collegial intervention and refers to the main teacher's decision making about pairing arrangements during English. The different teaching approaches in the English and the Greek subjects and the probable varied child performance in learning the English language and the mother-tongue may render the main teacher's opinion about pairs unreliable to a certain extent. Specifically, within a more traditional language learning approach, children cooperate less than they do in a communicative framework. Also, performance in L2 may be better or worse than performance in L1. As a result, the main teacher can by no means know with certainty what is beneficial for the English lesson, and his or her advice may not correspond to EFL classroom reality and/or to the respective learning requirements. The preceding may explain why the young learners expressed disagreements about pairing arrangements during English.

Practically, the involvement of other school educators in the misbehavior matters of the EFL classroom is not likely to lead to positive results for the specialist teacher. By embracing this strategy, English teachers recognize their colleagues added authority, deprive themselves of the equal respect young learners should give, and reduce their importance as school educators in the face of children and parents. Children also are sent the message that English teachers are weak and thus not capable of handling their own classes, so indirectly one of the causes of indiscipline is reinforced rather than eliminated, and more misconduct is encouraged. It would be more appropriate if decision making about practical pedagogical matters were left to each educator, if cases of undisciplined children were discussed at staff meetings, and if a common as well as an EFL class-specific management policy for indiscipline were applied.

Contacts with a large number of English teachers during training sessions fortunately showed that the indiscipline management strategy of seeking a colleague's help was not adopted by all, and that, if it is, learners are not given the right to know this, and these colleagues are selected who are believed to have a keen and mature eye concerning misbehavior matters. EFL teachers who are especial**y** qualified, skillful, and self-confident tend to exhibit the strength to stand on their own feet, to deal with indiscipline satisfactorily, and to not be afraid of trial and error in classroom management.

5.3.4.3 Parents

EFL teacher interviewees referred to teacher–parent contacts as "meetings" targeted at the support of the child's development. This word choice denotes the actual (planned or unplanned) coming together of the two sides for the purpose of discussing something without, however, signifying the attitude each one would have to adopt during this meeting for the child's sake. Within a humanistic approach to discipline, Porter (2006) characterizes these sessions as "partnerships" (p. 134), thus attaching to them a cooperative dimension, where both sides have to respect each other's opinions, experiences, and suggestions. It is this broadminded aspect by Porter that is embraced here too.

Concerning teacher–parent contacts (i.e., contact with any adult legally responsible for a young EFL learner), the documented fact that only two of the four English teachers sometimes tried them may suggest that in certain EFL learning contexts these contacts are not sought consistently. Obviously by avoiding them, English teachers deprive themselves of a powerful tool for collecting details about their learners' personal background, for throwing light on misbehaviors, for gaining allies in their efforts to address classroom indiscipline and improve child acts, and for indirectly raising the quality of their teaching to obtain impressive results.

The goal reported by English instructors to restore parents' negative attitude towards the subject and, indirectly, to alter pupils' attitude to it can support the claim that teacher–parent contacts may be approached as a discipline strategy that addresses, in particular, the misbehavior cause of

the negative parent–pupil opinion about the subject. Unfortunately, this type of contact was not employed to make learner indiscipline known at a parental level (children seriously would take this into consideration), to discuss possible aspects of the indiscipline, to ask for their views and assistance, and thus to try to plan a more useful management process and speed up improvement.

Teachers should be very careful with the content of this kind of meeting, as it should by all means match the aim(s) set. In the study, what the teachers and parents talked about did not correspond to the original teacher goals, so the English teacher exhibited relative confusion in terms of discussion target and practice. In particular, although she was displeased with the learner's behavior and wanted to inform parents, during the meeting she stated the child's potential in EFL learning and her or his limited investment in it, and invited parents to support their child's classroom efforts. So, as is evident, indiscipline was not focused on as a distinct, urgent issue affecting the child's EFL learning, as the teacher originally intended. Not surprisingly, such contacts brought about almost no result either in the short or in the long run. This may confirm the tendency experienced by EFL teachers to cooperate with parents on nondisciplinary matters. It also signals the mismatch between aim and content of parent–teacher sessions as a possible cause of the ineffectiveness of such contacts as a discipline management strategy.

The data also revealed that in certain EFL learning contexts where these meetings were realized the children were unaware of them. This means that the individuals (i.e., the young EFL learners) who could gain directly from these appointments were not involved in any way. Yet, the children did approve of this communication as a constructive discipline strategy that provided parents with information about their children's bad behavior, allowed the exchange of views between parents and teachers about the roots of the problems (probably external to the EFL classroom), and reinforced behavior improvement with the help of external advisors contacted by the parents if the EFL teacher's management was insufficient.

EFL teaching practice further suggests that when a discipline or learning problem makes it imperative that parents visit their children's school, many of them feel vulnerable or are defensive at the prospect of being

given unpleasant information about their young ones. If one of the two interlocutors who is believed to be stronger in the given situation (i.e., the teacher) does nothing to address this, then the other interlocutor (i.e., the parent) will probably remain "locked," and thus the information delivered will go unnoticed or will not be mentally processed to the required extent. So, the way for an effective exchange of observations, experiences, views, and suggestions will not be paved, and the young learner's interests will not be safeguarded and served.

Parents need be addressed in a human manner that sends a clear message of at least respect, equality, empathy, and true interest. They surely have developed certain principles, abilities, and knowledge throughout their lives, in particular, with respect to their children, and each will have specific ambitions for their child's future. So, children's advantages should be not just acknowledged but also made good use of, and the parents' values and dreams should be taken into consideration. The environment should be conducive to a mutual close involvement in the effort to analyze the young EFL learner's indiscipline, to negotiate achievable interventions, and to support parents in strengthening or developing the required skills to help the child.

Long experience with working with young EFL learners' parents has led to the adoption of a certain procedural approach of these meetings. Having first paved the way, as mentioned before, parents should be reminded that the reason for the meeting is the young English learner's behavior, not his development in learning the language, although it may be necessary that reference be made to learning parameters. Parents should be informed about the necessity for the child's presence during a second stage of the discussion, after the teacher and parent have talked about the problem privately. The learner also should be informed about the need to be present at some point and should consent to this presence and collaboration. Dividing the meeting into these two sections can give adults the opportunity to discuss things more openly, in light of the fact that the child may not need to know every single aspect of this collaboration between adults.

When referring to the behavior problem, this should be documented with details, and its influence on the learner and on peers should be explained. During the child's presence, indiscipline documentation is equally

important; the child should be asked about the reasons for the misbehavior and consulted about any possible negative influences observed on his/her EFL learning. During the teacher–parent discussion, parents should be given time to introduce English teachers to aspects of the child's life the school may be unaware of, whereas teachers should be clear and firm about those behavior aspects that unquestionably should be dealt with and improved. In the presence of both the parent and the child, solutions should be explored, and an agreement should be drawn with the child about the steps to be taken and the expectations all will have. The next meeting also should be arranged, at which the teacher will be committed to informing parent and child about improved behavior areas.

5.4   Summary

In terms of the management of classroom misbehavior, the issues teachers of YEFLLs are called on to face and, subsequently, the decisions they are obligated to make constitute the goals of their indiscipline management, the possible range of management approaches, strategies and techniques they can choose from, and the selection criteria they could apply.

Regarding goal-setting, first comes the aim of developing in EFL teachers and retaining in young EFL learners the sense of problem ownership for class indiscipline. Second, children should develop independence in approving and adopting social values and accepted behaviors. A strategy towards this direction is that of persistent persuasion, involving teacher–child negotiations with decreased teacher coercion and increased child self-guided decision making and compliance, and repeated considerations of the indiscipline event. An autonomy-centered discipline curriculum will make a difference, alongside the EFL learning one, for the combined promotion of autonomy, discipline, and successful language acquisition. In light of the relationship of autonomy, social values and discipline with democracy, education in democracy is proposed as a supplement to education in autonomy; this should be through the cultivation of democratic values and the promotion of child rights and responsibilities within a context of tolerance and restricted sternness.

Fourth, it is recommended that there be consistency among goals in education in democracy, education in autonomy, education in discipline, and education in EFL learning. For this purpose, emphasis can be placed particularly on human language communication and on the connection of the teaching of the FL (and the use of L1) with the undisciplined and the proper way children may communicate with others in class (e.g., adults and/or peers). Moving to the fifth objective, young EFL learners must become familiar with task and activity types in terms of aims, procedures, and team processes, and the TEFL methodology should be steadily applied, evaluated, and modified.

Sixth comes the objectives of forwarding the construction of positive self-concept in children and of teaching the language in ways that can ensure successful EFL learning and achievement. Facing these two misbehavior attributions includes a very demanding management sphere, where EFL educators should function as educated adults with a solid background knowledge in TEFL, as reflective practitioners evaluating their teaching experiences and informing their teaching practice accordingly, as good practical researchers studying classroom contexts closely, drawing informed conclusions, and adapting their judgments and teaching modes as necessary, as effective managers of individuals and situations, and as life-long learners.

Next is the development of indirect metacognitive, affective, and social learning strategies in the young learners. The last research-proven objective of handling indiscipline is the increase of the learners' motivation for learning English and for controlling behavior in class. On the basis of research findings and of the educational TEFL literature, particular specifications and/or ideas are provided in this chapter for the enhancement and achievement of all the preceding goals.

After defining objectives in management planning, English teachers will need to select the most suitable approaches and strategies for the indiscipline events and for themselves as educators. The primary selection criterion for this purpose is claimed to be teacher attributions of the misbehavior observed. Following this, it is the way they understand negative child behavior, children, and child development, their views about education and discipline in general, their personal and professional opinions

about behavior, and their knowledge about and experiences with the particular contexts in which the indiscipline occurred.

With respect to management strategies, English teachers can choose from a wide variety of universal ones, as well as tailor-made strategies designed or selected to address the specific contextual parameters of the misconduct. Additional types of strategies are the proaction and interventive ones, both of which need to form parts of an English teacher's indiscipline management plan. For this purpose, Porter's three-layer program and Kuloheri's cycle of discipline action are proposed as effective.

In terms of management approach, the multi-case study data attracted attention to the authoritarian assertive one for those EFL teachers of children who want to control their learners and safeguard their compliance. The employment of rules; of positive and negative consequences; of the escalated stages of shouts, reprimands, and threats; and of the identification of the cause of indiscipline are stated to be the main features of the application of this approach in young EFL learner classes.

English teachers also can consider the advantages of rule-setting and of consequences—that is, the eight kinds of rules and two broad types of consequences they can choose from. Moreover, educators are presented with the efficient practice of "rules for ethical behavior" and with the practice of warnings. Teacher perspectives have been widened with the report on the research participants' evaluation of and experiences with the related strategies and techniques employed, with additional practices they can have at their disposal, and with the suggestions made by the participants.

In addition to employing authoritarian strategies, EFL teachers were found to consult with their learners, and thus use discussions as a disciplinary strategy. Readers have been presented with the aims, types, and features of the discursive management strategy and have been informed about the lesson stages that can be employed and about young learners' and EFL teachers' evaluations. Last, but not least, teachers often have been shown to need support for disciplining children from, first, the administration, then the colleagues, and finally the learners' parents. School heads are approached as strict authority figures who do not accept misbehavior and may cause fear in children; the heads themselves, however, set conditions for taking on this role. Colleagues teaching the same

class at school are regarded as the standard source of support in four major areas; nevertheless, this has been evaluated negatively in terms of effectiveness.

Finally, research has presented the arrangement of meetings with parents as a way of trying to reconstruct their unfavorable attitude towards EFL teachers as professionals and to their profession, and thus address the indiscipline cause of negative parental and child attitudes to teachers and learners. The strategy, however, has not been evaluated in the same way by teachers and learners, while data revealed serious deficits in its application and therefore its inefficiency.

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6

YEFLL Indiscipline: Research Matters

6.1   Introduction

Educational literature on child indiscipline at schools has revealed serious limitations, despite the existing knowledge base. In particular, it misses important aspects of the issue of pupil disruption, and places emphasis mainly on causes of indiscipline and on discipline management strategies, thus overlooking significantly issues such as categories of misbehavior acts, their perceived frequency and/or importance, and the evaluation of applied teacher practices. Additionally, it basically considers teacher understandings and experiences about the issue and disregards those of learners. Last, but not least, research on learner indiscipline has proved to be incomplete and methodologically problematic in specific ways, as will be shown further in the following sections.

So, it is not surprising that research on pupil misbehavior has been called foundational (Kullina 2007) but not thorough (Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000), whereas the question of indiscipline has been characterized as important (Kullina 2007) but neglected (Clark 1998) or little understood (Kullina 2007). In certain countries like Greece, investigators believe that

research is inadequate in the field of educator understandings (Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000), and that as far as how things are in Greek educational institutes, little is known (Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002). Similarly, on the eve of the twenty-first century, Bibou-Nakou et al. (2000) considered Porpodas's claim (1987) still valid—that is, coverage of the issue has been superficial.

Regarding especially teaching EFL (TEFL), to the best of current knowledge, indiscipline has been referred to but not thoroughly described or systematically researched. Wadden and McGovern (1991) stressed the existing problem and its insufficient coverage by claiming that despite the fact that "negative class participation" normally occurs in the English as a foreign language or English as a second language (EFL/ESL) classroom, the subject matter has been attended to inadequately in teacher-training documents and in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) literature. Regarding the latter, the authors pointed out that even "standard classics" (p. 121) in teacher training were unsuccessful in giving attention to manifestations of improper classroom behavior. Finally, Wadden and McGovern have put forward the urgent need to deal with this complication by purporting that negative class participation cannot disappear by doing nothing, and that an honest discussion did not take place when required.

More particularly, as mentioned in earlier chapters, so far almost no studies have examined indiscipline of young EFL learners' classrooms, with the exception of Kuloheri's (2010) study, based on the most recent information, that provided a multifaceted view into relevant matters. Related is the Carless (2002) research that focused not on indiscipline but on the implementation of the EFL task-based approach. Therefore, it can be concluded that research on indiscipline in EFL classes of young learners is currently hardly in its early stages and, consequently, has not yet reached the dimensions that research into primary school misbehavior in general has. So, it seems of utmost importance that educational researchers, especially those interested in TEFL, turn their attention to this realm, with the hope and purpose that they can contribute to a detailed understanding of the problem during English lessons and to its solution.

6.2   Research Participants and Issues

In addition to establishing the necessity for the exploration of the issue of child indiscipline in EFL courses, a review of the literature on pupil indiscipline in school classrooms may facilitate better judgments about whose perceptions and experiences to investigate, and which issues to research. Regarding the first concern, it can be argued that a study on the misbehavior of young EFL learners (YEFLLs) should involve both the children and their instructors as participants.

Almost all the bibliographic references consulted have placed an obvious weight on teacher perspectives about indiscipline, while the learners' viewpoints notably have been omitted (with the exception of Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000; Guttman 1982; Johnson et al. 1993; Lewis 2001). This emphasis can be explained as a result of the belief that advances in cognitive psychology, the popularity of qualitative research methodology, and the understanding of teaching as a profession for careful consideration have influenced leading educational researchers in investigating specific aspects of teacher cognition and their relationship to effective pedagogical classroom practices (Fang 1996). Furthermore, it can be interpreted in light of the researchers' general belief that teachers' attributions can contribute to the effective understanding of misbehavior and to decision making about whether to support the students in overcoming the problem and about how to provide this help (Kullina 2007; Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002; Poulou and Norwich 2002).

Nevertheless, this emphasis on a single source of participant views, which is characterized as "unprecedented interest" in teacher perceptions (Fang 1996, p. 47), is a shortcoming of the research on indiscipline because it seriously fails to notice the learners' experiential understandings and their background knowledge. A main reason for the essential requirement to involve child participants, too, in an indiscipline study arises from Türnüklü and Galton's claim (2001) that misbehavior happens as a response to classroom activities rather than by chance. If this is so, it seems particularly important and reasonable to ask the individual(s) who may have responded to these activities with indiscipline (i.e., the children) about their response(s). The constructivist approach to human

inquiry, to which this book's author ascribes, supports the investigation of this viewpoint with its concern "for the emic point of view" and "for grasping the actor's definition of a situation" (Schwandt 2002, p. 118). So, for example, the teacher-perceived data from the reviewed studies brings about the logical query about whether learners also considered their behavior undisciplined and/or even whether they could identify more negative behaviors that probably did not reach their teacher's eyes.

Likewise, two theories of discipline that underlie the choice of management strategies for indiscipline—namely, the Neo-Adlerian and Solution-focused ones (Porter 2006)—suggest that children do have the potential to contribute to this kind of research. Specifically, they contend that children are able to attach meanings to events actively, to make choices, and to solve their own problems. This constructivist perception of children may indicate that they can become active participants in the investigation process by providing their own definitions, experiences, and attributions of classroom indiscipline, as well as evaluating their teacher's management strategies and suggesting their own solutions. Humanism (Porter 2006) strengthens this possibility for child involvement in empirical educational research with the belief that children have their own status and value as human beings; therefore, they have their own rights and should be given the chance to discuss issues, support their opinions, and produce their own ideas.

Last, but not least, educational investigators state that knowing the reasons that both pupils and teachers perceive for negative learner behavior in class is critical for the purpose of understanding the difficulty and improving the way to handle it (Guttman 1982; Türnüklü and Galton 2001). This is so especially of Guttman, who considered it "imperative" (p. 15) to get to know the children's causal attributions, and he regarded them as an integral part of the human sources from which knowledge can be derived.

Considering which research issues to investigate, the study of the relevant research literature confirmed the decision to place equal weight on both issues of the causes of pupil indiscipline and of teachers' management strategies by giving them a primary position and making them the main questions of concern. This is because knowledge of causality illuminates the areas that require direct intervention at a comprehensive, deeper

level rather than at the level of sheer observation of indiscipline, as well as points to the way(s) indiscipline can be faced and overcome rather than just the learner acts that must be modified; thus, it facilitates and ensures long-lasting success. Additionally, becoming informed about how educators tackle indiscipline events can help investigators get a hold on the teachers' current action plans, examine whether they are appropriate for each indiscipline, and make suggestions for modification.

Besides this direct significant link between the causation and the handling of indiscipline, and between current management practices and improved ones, a number of other issues can be presented as secondary research questions for the purpose of capturing a more complete picture. First, it is important to investigate which indiscipline types occur in classrooms and to determine a number of parameters of occurrence (e.g., frequency, perceived importance, and degree of disturbance). As precise a description as possible of how the matter was actualized will contribute to a better understanding of its nature and, of course, to more pertinent interventions; at the same time, additional parametric elements can specify which indiscipline varieties should be prioritized to manage in certain contexts.

Following this, researchers can study the participants' definitions of learners' indiscipline as a fundamental criterion that may influence the selection of discipline strategies too (Porter 2006). Manifested as also useful is research to see which factors may have shaped their beliefs about indiscipline, especially in case the management of discipline includes interventions at the level of teacher education and/or training. It is crucial to explore the reasons why teachers utilize particular strategies too (Kullina 2007), and whether their application of them is thought to be successful or not. Lewis (2001) suggested the significance of the latter as a research question by saying that a very limited number of studies have judged the competency of discipline styles in an orderly way.

The Wadden and McGovern (1991) general statement that foreign language (FL) teachers have had to deal with misconduct that may be unique to the specialty of language teaching implies the possibility for the existence of forms of pupil indiscipline peculiar to EFL teaching only, as compared to other school subjects. This topic has not been pursued by these writers or by others. Nevertheless, Kuloheri's multi-case study

confirmed it and established the claim that indiscipline may acquire particular forms and/or be especially intense in EFL classes of young school-age learners, as opposed to other subject lessons. As seen in earlier chapters, this could be, for instance, evidence of the fact that the formal educational system may not adequately motivate children to learn English, their contact with the school subject may be limited, they may be influenced by their parents' negative attitude towards it, and/or attendees of private language institutes may find it useless to participate in the school English lesson. It is also the case that the working conditions of EFL teachers within an educational system (i.e., the school) often significantly restrict their potential for handling disruption effectively. Thus, studying forms of indiscipline, especially whether specific sorts exist during the English lesson, can be an additional research consideration.

In conclusion, the absolutely imperative and urgent study of the indiscipline of young EFL learners should strive to investigate all the preceding relevant issues from the viewpoints of all those who are directly involved in learner misbehavior—namely, the learners as misbehaving actors and/or as recipients of peer indiscipline, as well their teachers as recipients of the actions, including the possibility that they are facilitators of it too. Additionally, a thorough study on indiscipline should bring together in one investigation those topics that have been researched, those that have been insufficiently studied, and those that have not been explored at all, but are vital.

So, to plan for an illuminating piece of research, the questions to include should be divided into two categories: Basic and Backup binding ones. Basic questions can be called those that pose the main aspects of interest in the issue of concern. Backup, binding, questions are perceived to be those supplementary inquiries that aim at the collection of data to support a deeper understanding of the focal themes. The second kind of questions are meant to throw ample light on the findings of the Basic questions and on a variety of other issues, and to bind the investigated context through the setting of its boundaries and through the definition of the depth and breadth of the study, thus determining a reasonable research scope (Baxter and Jack 2008). On the basis of the comprehensive evaluation of educational and research literature about indiscipline

in EFL lessons, a possible working framework for the research questions could be as follows:

Basic research questions

1. Why do young EFL learners become undisciplined?
2. How do EFL teachers manage learner indiscipline?

   Backup, binding research questions
   1.a. What does "discipline"/"indiscipline" mean to EFL teachers and learners?
   1.b. Which factors have contributed to the shaping of these definitions?
   2.a. What are the kinds of misbehavior in which pupils engage?
   2.b. How important are these misbehaviors to learners and English teachers?
   2.c. Which ones are the most disturbing for them?
   2.d. Which kinds of indiscipline occur the most frequently and the most rarely?
   3.a. Why do EFL teachers select the particular management strategies?
   3.b. How do children and EFL teachers evaluate the application of these strategies?

6.3   Research Tradition

Having considered the absolute importance of the investigation, the participants, and the topics, investigators should be brought to the matter of the research approach, tradition, methods, and techniques that could be adopted as ways of inquiry to achieve significant results. In the relevant literature, it is evident that a multitude of research modes have been tried, each one rendering serious and useful outcomes. Thus, there may not be one single study mechanism that could claim infallibility and its right to be laurel-crowned. Nevertheless, certain dominant approaches and/or methods could be critiqued, while successful research frameworks could be described and justified for the sake of collecting numerous trustworthy

data, featuring an insightful analysis of the problem and drawing detailed and valuable conclusions for the advancement of science.

From the two broad research approaches of quantitative and qualitative research, it is suggested here that the latter can best suit the requirements of the study of the educational obstacle of young learner indiscipline in EFL classrooms. This decision making is determined by the issues to be studied, which indicate the requirement for a profound rather than a broad investigation. By collecting a large number of survey responses from an equally large number of classes where misconduct appears (i.e., quantitative research), a picture of the breadth of the matter can be achieved, but not one of its depth. As Silverman (2005) put it, qualitative research can "sacrifice scope for detail" (p. 9), can touch particular facts in the participants' perceptions and intercommunication, and can allow for the employment of a variety of methods in accordance with the matter investigated. Thus, through the research participants' eyes and ears, researchers can become informed about what teachers have not seen or heard. Through the participants' minds, they will get to know what the undisciplined and their peers think about the issue, and through their souls how they feel about them. Clearly, these issues require a multi-sensory approach and cannot all be handled through survey responses that afterwards usually cannot be probed.

In the matter of the research tradition, the case study (i.e., CS) is proposed here as one of the best traditions for focusing on a problem and exploring it meticulously and shrewdly. There are decisive practical reasons for its selection. In light of the research topic of indiscipline in EFL classes of young learners, the CS framework allows for the study of practical, particularly interesting, routine educational matters at learning environments such as educational institutes like schools (Denzin and Lincoln 2005; Hitchcock and Hughes 1995; Kokkinos et al. 2004; Merriam 1988; Sturman 1994), and consequently in other ones similar to these (e.g., foreign language institutes.) The CS also is concerned with describing events using plentiful, clear, and powerful details (Hitchcock and Hughes 1995); thus, it has the potential to support a researcher's wish to draw a thorough description of the problem and to build the whole picture. So, for instance, it can render specific aspects of child misbehavior to elucidate themes, such as patterns of indiscipline types and causes,

and to reinforce comprehensive conclusions and brief generalizations. In specific with regard to the pursuit of causal attributes, on the basis of Hitchcock and Hughes's claims, it can suit the pursuit of causal attributes because it especially has the potential to locate factors influencing an educational problem. This can serve most of the study topics that have attracted scant or zero attention (e.g., young EFL learner misconduct).

Third, the CS develops around a certain unit or a certain group of units of interest (Richards 2003), called "the case," such as individuals, programs, institutions, or communities (Gillham 2000; Patton 2002; Stake 1995). Therefore, it can serve researchers' interest to investigate the contexts where, to the best of their knowledge, indiscipline is primarily experienced (i.e., single EFL classrooms). Considering child misconduct in English classrooms, as mentioned earlier, causes of EFL learner misbehavior have not occupied educational investigators before, emerged from writers' experience, and do not comprise the result of systematic EFL classroom research. Thus, investigations in actual indiscipline contexts (i.e., EFL classrooms of primary learner ages) in the form of case studies are required to confirm, reject, and/or modify claims.

On top of that, a CS as an ambitious and important plan—called "enterprise" by Richards 2003, p. 9—around a person can place teachers and pupils at its center as what Hitchcock and Hughes called "individual actors" (1995, p. 25). For those investigators who encounter a constructivist commitment to the search for the subjective truth of human beings (Schwandt 2002), the CS also can reveal those meanings that, within the setting in which they find themselves, teachers and learners build about the research problem as conscious, willful human beings and societal actors in the world of the reality experienced in the EFL classroom. The CS is compatible with the use of multiple sources of information (Richards 2003; Yin 2003) too. This allows researchers to address a broader variety of issues, to identify multiple perspectives, to clarify meanings, and to validate findings—that is, to achieve within-case triangulation, according to Hitchcock and Hughes (1995), Merriam (1988), and Stake (2005)—and, through the development of what Yin calls "a converging line of inquiry" (p. 98), to make any finding or conclusion in it more convincing and precise.

Last, but not least, this tradition may suit a restricted research time framework (e.g., imposed by a local Ministry of Education or by the

manager of a FL institute) because it allows for small-scale studies involving a limited number of participants without putting the validity and worth of the research at stake (Richards 2003). Very significantly, it does not exclude an adequately large number of participants. An example can be Kuloheri's CS, in which each unit encompassed one English teacher, one L1 teacher, one school head, one Special Education (SE) teacher, and 15 to 22 young learners, thus making a total of 89 participants.

With regard to the CS type, the investigation of EFL pupil indiscipline will comprise an educational study because it concentrates on topics related to teaching and learning. Provided that it seeks to unfold the causes of the problem, it will be explanatory (Yin 2003), and if it aims to develop conceptual categories that can illustrate it, thus document it and support its interpretation, it will be interpretative (Merriam 1988). Kuloheri's investigation was of these three types. It was instrumental too, seeking to gain an understanding of indiscipline as a broader issue (Stake 1995, 2005), and it had a descriptive component because it pursued the description of indiscipline types and teacher management strategies in the young learners' learning context (Hitchcock and Hughes 1995).

A research project on pupil indiscipline may consist of one case (e.g., one learner, one pair/group of learners, or one EFL classroom), be a collective study (Stake 1995), or a multi-case (Yin 2003) study with more than one units of analysis (the cases). Each case in the multi-case or the collective CS type will contain the focus of an individual investigation and will be researched with the same methodology. To limit each of the cases and so define a sensible project sphere (Baxter and Jack 2008), the study also should be determined in terms of time, place, and definition (Miles and Huberman 1994). Regarding a definition, this is driven by those supplementary research questions that will specify further concerns in which the CS researcher is interested, and that will throw more light onto the basic issue(s) of the study.

The reasons for selecting a multi-case study for Kuloheri's investigation, first, were because the contexts of her units of analysis were different in certain aspects. Such differences, which can attribute specificity and uniqueness to an EFL class, for instance, could be the physical conditions in which learning takes place, the institutional attitudes towards EFL, the TEFL methodology employed, possibly affecting individual motivational

and behavioral pupil aspects in diverse ways, the variety of language levels and abilities, and the teacher's profile (Harmer 1991). The particular investigator's professional research interests also played a significant role in choosing the multi-case study.

In particular, Kuloheri wished not just to contribute to the thorough description of the specific common TEFL challenge, to the understanding of the parameters that determine its nature and to feasible solutions, but also to see the extent to which the findings may suggest common problems across primary school learner ages and to draw useful conclusions for change in the teaching EFL to young learners (TEFLYL) sector. In light of these, this CS type enabled the analysis of findings within each case and across cases and thus the understanding of commonalities and differences (Baxter and Jack 2008).

In the particular CS, each one of the four units was specified as one group of the EFL learners of a Greek state primary school and their English school teacher. The study was fixed in terms of time as school year 2006–2007 and school Grades 4 and 5, and of place as in two large Greek cities (Athens and Volos). The unit selection was planned per locality so that both grades would be investigated in both places. In terms of definition, the investigation was particularized by the supplementary questions called "Backup binding research questions" (see previous section).

6.4   Research Methodology

A close study of the educational and of the research literature on learner indiscipline provided the opportunity to review investigations and give a penetrating and far-reaching critique of the most common research methodology—namely, the survey, the observations, and the interviews. These critical comments can become the fertile ground for making useful suggestions for trustworthy research.

6.4.1   The Survey

The bulk of the research on pupil classroom disruption employed quantitative methodology mainly (e.g., Bibou-Nakou et al. 2000; Gibbs and

Gardiner 2008; Guttman 1982; Johnson et al. 1993; Jones et al. 1995; Kokkinos et al. 2004; Kullina 2007; Lewis 2001; Mavropoulou and Padeliadu 2002). There is, however, evidence showing that this methodology and the use of questionnaires it made have limitations that can reduce the reliability of the findings and the trustworthiness of a study. One such important limitation was the nature of the survey categories employed in the reviewed research.

Specifically, the questionnaires in the studies quoted earlier comprised predetermined categories that had not emerged from the reasoning of the research participants. As a result, they are likely to have provided biased findings. By way of illustration, Bibou-Nakou et al. investigated the beliefs of 200 Greek primary school teachers about the causes of disruptive behavior in class and their preferred management actions. To do so, however, the researchers developed the survey categories of teachers' preferred management practices by themselves, while the selection of the categories of indiscipline types and frequencies was based on evidence provided in prior research by British secondary teachers, South Australian primary teachers, and primary and middle school teachers in the South Atlantic. Besides Bibou-Nakou et al., Gibbs and Gardiner (2008) researched the beliefs of a total of 121 English and Irish primary school teachers about the determinants of classroom misbehavior, with the aim of comparing them with the respective beliefs of secondary teachers; however, their survey categories resulted from the perceptions of secondary school students about indiscipline in primary school classes.

In light of the principle of the divergent nature of human experience and the subjectivity of human perceptions, the questionnaire categories of surveys like in the preceding project reflect the perceptions of other individuals, such as of those who took part in related studies prior to the design of the questionnaire, but not of the participants of the study in focus. They cannot thus reflect the understandings, experiences, and reasoning of the actual respondents, so these remain untapped. The individuals who participated in Bibou-Nakou et al.'s investigation potentially had a divergent cultural background and experiences from those of the participants in the prior research. So, it may be very likely that, as a case in point, the survey respondents did not regard the related behavior

types as indiscipline, attached to each type divergent actual features, and/ or interpreted them in a different way.

For instance, Bibou-Nakou et al. (2000) included the indiscipline types of "talking without permission," "interrupting the teacher," and "talking back to the teacher" under the general behavior type of "disobedience." However, to the best of current knowledge, Greek teachers often also interpret these three as "lack of respect." The fact that no space was provided in the questionnaire lists of the reviewed studies for the respondents to also add their own perceptions can reinforce the understanding that the surveys may be biased in the sense of enforcing certain replies and excluding others, and that the whole study may be unreliable. Gibbs and Gardiner openly accept this limitation: "[W]e cannot claim that this study has elicited teachers' own explanations of the causes of misbehavior" (p. 73). Bibou-Nakou et al. claimed more generally that questionnaire results may not reflect teachers' perceptions accurately.

Guttman (1982) tried to diminish the survey disadvantages discussed so far. He investigated the causal attributions of 220 Israeli elementary school children about the problem of nonacademic behavior. To avoid imposing adult reasoning on child participants, in the questionnaire the researcher included determinants of indiscipline that children in the same grade as the researcher's own participants had provided in a preliminary open-ended questionnaire. After the completion of the survey, the investigator involved children too in the organization of the child-perceived causes into attribution categories—namely, "internal"/"external" and "stable"/"unstable".

Even though Guttman's previous efforts could be said to increase the chances that the categories provided would be close to his participants' experiences, nevertheless, the danger for biased findings was not eliminated as the categories were again created by others (i.e., not the child participants themselves). Furthermore, categorization of the findings by children may not be very reliable, as it is not usually easy, not even for adults, to draw a boundary between, for example, an internal and an external cause. For instance, "inability to learn," which the child "categorizers" put under the internal-stable causes, also may be an "external" cause if it is due to a factor outside the child (e.g., demotivating tasks or classroom noise), and/or easy to change if the teacher is very capable of

making the lesson more interesting to this learner and/or of guiding the child in developing language learning strategies.

Besides the predetermined nature of categories, two other disadvantages in the survey methodology are that questionnaires may provide too general and/or imprecise categories, and that categories may consist of contradictory notions. To give an example, Kullina (2007) studied the perceptions of 103 primary and 92 secondary school PE teachers about the causes of student misbehavior and teachers' strategy use. The first section of her questionnaire asked teachers to indicate their understandings of the likelihood that learner behaviors were related to out-of-school, student, teacher, and school influences. Given that examples were not provided, these four kinds of causes can be considered too general, cannot provide a precise picture of the misbehavior determinants, and consequently cannot contribute to conclusions about possible management practices tailor-made for particular causes of disruption.

The second part of Kullina's survey required that teacher respondents report their strategies of indiscipline management from a list of 27 given practices grouped into 8 strategy types. One of these eight types, which comprised the practices of rewards, bonuses and student contracts, was labeled "behavior modification"; nevertheless, its label can be considered not only too general but also confusing. This is because it could actually embrace all eight strategy types because all of them were supposed to aim at changing student behavior. Also, specific management practices contradicted the strategy type they were included under. Two characteristic examples of this were the practices of direct discussion with the student and of group reward; these appeared, respectively, under the general strategy types of "punishments" and "threats." The contradiction becomes more obvious by explaining that direct discussion reflects the Neo-Adlerian discipline theory, which is based on democratic school relations (Porter 2006), while punishment is a behaviorist intervention that reflects an authoritarian position towards the student.

A third shortcoming of surveys is that they may include a large number of questionnaire items that can influence the findings negatively. A characteristic example is the Lewis (2001) survey. Lewis studied the beliefs of 21 elementary (age 12) and 21 secondary (ages 13, 15, and 17) students from the northeastern region of Victoria about the kinds of dis-

cipline styles that could promote greater student responsibility. Although the survey included only six strategies, these were assessed by a total of 35 questionnaire items, each of which required a response on a six-point scale to mark the frequency with which teachers were understood to adopt each style. Additionally, the learner respondents were provided with 39 responsible classroom behaviors (each one associated with a six-point response format) to specify the extent to which they were characterized by these. In addition, the students were asked to express their beliefs about the influence of the discipline styles on their learning and their influence on their classroom behavior on two different four-point scales. Finally, they had to indicate, from among 15 items on another four-point scale, their feelings about the discipline styles. In light of teaching practice, primary school children may feel particularly distracted by, tired of, and/or bored with what is understood to be, in cases like the preceding, an overwhelmingly large number of survey items and scales. Thus, the sincerity and seriousness of their responses may be affected negatively and the findings may be unreliable.

Last, but not least, Merrett and Wheldall ([1993](#)) posed one more limitation generally applicable to surveys—namely, that "some people" … "do not think carefully about the questions put before them" (p. 101) or that opinions are not always honest. Indeed, this can represent personal experience with the haste in which colleagues responded on questionnaires. In some cases, purposefully false answers were seen, where the intention was to make fun of the research topic, especially when it was a sensitive one.

All the preceding limitations of the survey methodology can illustrate clearly that this instrument cannot be the main research one, as it cannot satisfy an investigator's wish for trustworthy research sufficiently. It, however, may well be seen as a supplementary tool, provided that care is taken for careful design. An example could include Kuloheri's introductory survey ([2010](#)) addressed to EFL teachers. Its employment offered the advantages of informing interviewing, of saving valuable research and particularly interviewing time by gathering general, basic information about the contextual features of each case and of the EFL teaching–learning process, and of giving the teacher participants time to think, prior to

interviewing, about EFL learner indiscipline issues and to recall experiences with particular classes.

The questionnaire objectives in cases like this can be translated into the information fields of which the survey will consist. Kuloheri, for example, wanted to collect information about class specifications such as total number of pupils, number of boys and of girls, number of pupils with special learning needs, kinds of special needs (if applicable), pupils' nationalities, and number of pupils receiving supplementary evening EFL tuition and the form of that instruction. Besides this, she wanted to encourage her teacher participants to consider the problem of indiscipline in relation to their classes and to recognize from an extensive list those behaviors they understood as indiscipline, those they had encountered in the particular unit to be researched, and those they considered important along with their frequency of occurrence. Additional space was provided for them to insert any other behavior observed beyond the ones included in the survey. Subsequently, the questionnaire purposes were translated into two information fields—namely, field "A. About your EFL class" and field "B. About you." These fields sought two types of information, which were, respectively, factual and objective (e.g., number and nationalities of pupils and teacher qualifications) and subjective in the sense of depending on contexts and teacher experiences (e.g., whether there were undisciplined pupils and which misbehavior the teachers considered important).

To collect the required information, Cohen et al.'s advice (2007) was followed. So a semistructured questionnaire was designed—that is, one with an obvious structure but an open-ended format, giving respondents the opportunity to reply as they wished. The tool was composed of closed statements and open word- and/or number-based statements. The former consisted of multiple-choice statements of a single-answer style and of a multi-answer mode, and of dichotomous "Yes"/"No" statements. Open statements were kept to a minimum possible number to reduce the time demands that such questions place on respondents. The questionnaire also contained a contingency statement, branching out of the previous, open-ended statement about the same item.

Questionnaire items were sequenced according to how easy they were to respond to, with objective information about the children prioritized

to motivate participants to read on. Personal details were required last to decrease the degree of discomfort or threat that the respondents might feel, while subjective information about exceptional and undisciplined pupils was placed in the middle as this was more difficult to respond to. Although the statements on learners with special needs were demanding, they were included at the beginning as motivating because of their "high interest value" (Cohen et al. 2007, p. 337) to the Greek community of primary state school teachers and, subsequently, the research participants as members of it. Finally, at the end was the item on the teaching objectives so as to be a link with the teacher's portfolio and the intended observation of an English lesson.

To limit biases and increase the reliability of the tool, leading statements were avoided, and the "Other" and the "Please specify" categories in half of the statements enabled respondents to add information that the researcher could not predict. Additionally, the indiscipline types included were presented as "possible," and the respondents were asked to provide their opinion and teaching experience.

6.4.2 Observation and Interviewing

Besides the survey, observation and interviewing have been adopted in the research literature on young learners in a complementary way; this, however, has been done to a very restricted extent. Characteristic examples may include Carless's case study (2002) on the implementation of EFL task-based learning by three teachers in different primary school EFL contexts in Hong Kong (that study also focused on teacher perceptions about noise and indiscipline at the analysis stage), and the Türnüklü and Galton (2001) investigation with 20 primary teachers in English and Turkish schools on types and causes of student misbehavior.

Türnüklü and Galton utilized systematic/structured closed observation. This can contribute powerfully to the development of understanding by permitting the researchers to focus on areas they want to know more about (Richards 2003). Nevertheless, it can "narrow the focus" (p. 145) of the observer significantly, compared with open observation. Consequently, these two researchers may not have prepared a comprehensive

observation checklist and may have missed interesting data (McDonough and McDonough 1997). Also, the labeled categories of their observation system were preselected, so again they may have the limitations identified in the predetermined survey items. Concerning pupil indiscipline, predetermined labeling may not succeed in seizing the plethora of unpredictable teacher and student reactions in class either. As regards one's interest to investigate human perceptions, observation alone cannot access what occurs in one's mind. Thus, class observations cannot consider "relevant but unobserved shared knowledge among the participants" (p. 107).

On the other hand, interviewing can provide the space for the expression of perceptions about the research issue in the form of meanings actively created in one's mind through experience (Warren 2002). Türnüklü and Galton (2001) and Carless (2002, 2003) employed semistructured interviews. These can provide for more flexibility than the structured ones, as in the order questions will be asked (McDonough and McDonough 1997), and allow for asking participants the same questions and for making valid comparisons within the data (Johnson and Weller 2002). Türnüklü and Galton's interview data manifested that interviewing can render authentic, person-centered teacher definitions of indiscipline; nevertheless, in the semistructured interview type, the direction of the interview is controlled by the interviewer, not by the interviewees' responses, so the researchers may not have managed to access the teachers' classroom reality to the extent they could have done with unstructured deep interviewing.

Carless, and Türnüklü and Galton seem to have appreciated the advantages of both observation and interviewing by employing them in their studies; the former author used observation as the main method and interviewing as a supplementary one, while the latter seem to have placed equal weight on both. The findings of research literature like the preceding confirm the constructivist need to view behavior through more than one lens, with each offering "a different base of information and a different perspective on the child" (Weisz et al. 1995, p. 414). Such an approach facilitates the study of the actual and the perceived behavior components, which "precisely … form the essence of 'child problem' in the first place." Nevertheless, two threats to this may constitute research inconsistency and brevity.

Türnüklü and Galton did not observe and interview all the participating teachers consistently (e.g., from the 12 teachers of the Turkish sample, 4 were both observed and interviewed, and the remaining 8 only interviewed). So in relation to behavior management, it is not possible to know whether the teachers who were merely interviewed really did in class what they reported they did. In addition, observations were too few (i.e., two hours a day over a period of three days), compared with Carless's observations of a total of 51 English lessons over one academic year. Moreover, by noting the occurrence of the number of incidents per indiscipline type during the unit of analysis, Türnüklü and Galton discarded what had happened outside this time (McDonough and McDonough 1997). Thus, the reliability of the conclusions was jeopardized.

By adopting the CS tradition, one can be led to the design of a "multilens" approach as this uses a variety of main and/or supplementary instruments for the purpose of increasing the trustworthiness of a study (Eder and Fingerson 2002). If a researcher's intention to investigate both teacher and child views and experiences in EFL learner classroom indiscipline is taken for granted, then interviewing can be selected as the main research method because beliefs take place inside one's minds and are unobservable (Warren 2002). Ideally, observation should be a main method as well because observation and interviewing are interwoven techniques (Merriam 1988) that permit the investigation of what is believed to be the truth without thinking about it (Wragg 1999). Thus, observations can, for example, help an investigator see whether teachers really do in class what they say they do during interviews. Nevertheless, observations rely on an "increased time commitment," according to Robson's pertinent expression (2002, p. 131) if one does not wish to draw hasty conclusions; so, adequate research time has to be available for this purpose.

Consequently, if investigators only have a short time at their disposal, then they may decide to employ interviewing as a main investigation method and observation as a supplementary one, while also making an effort to alleviate the research problems highlighted. The key to achieving this may be very careful and meticulous research design and method application. It is from this perspective that interviewing and observing are considered separately in the following subsections and are suggested as effective research methods in connection with the CS framework.

6.4.2.1   Interviewing

Taking Kuloheri's research as a sample, CS interviewing oriented towards educational reform can be conducted (Tierney and Dilley 2002) to find out teachers' and learners' perceptions about the research issues (Baker 2004). This decision is justified in terms of the goals, respectively, to investigate indiscipline in the classrooms of particular cases and to inform EFL teachers' discipline approaches.

In light of the multidimensional nature of interviewing, the interview may be perceived as a methodological tool and data-gathering process, where the former enables the actualization of the latter as a procedure of unique, complex, and social character (Jones 1985). It also may be employed as professional conversation with a structure and a purpose (Kvale 1996). In the case of group interviewing, it can be "an inter-view" (p. 14) between some of the child participants when they engage in "an inter-change of views" during their conversations about an issue with which they are all concerned. Kuloheri approached interviewing as a set of strategies and techniques too, the successful application of which could contribute to the establishment of a relationship with the informants and to their encouragement to share the broadest and most complete accounts possible of their perceptions about the world of their EFL school classrooms (Richards 2003).

Last, but not least, it can be approached in the sense of accounts of information (i.e., according to Baker (2004), descriptions of events and/or experiences, perspectives, beliefs, and the sort). In terms of interview type, informal, unstructured, open, or deep interviewing (Burgess 1984; Jones 1985; Richards 2003; Silverman 1993), or the Kvale (1996) semi-structured one is advisable; this is in the sense of guiding verbal interaction towards general questions meant to enable interviewees to make known aspects of their experience and understandings (Richards 2003).

A choice like the preceding may well be because of the researcher's subscription to the paradigmatic principles underlying the use of this kind of interviewing—namely, the interactionist and the constructivist views. The interactionist's view of interviewees is that the experiencing individuals actively construct their social worlds (Silverman 1993); the constructivist view is that interviewees make unique, subjective, and thus

unpredictable sense of their experiences by inventing concepts, models, and schemes and testing and modifying these in light of new experiences (Schwandt 2002). Thus, to understand the reasons for children's actions, it is necessary to employ a process such as in-depth interaction-based interviewing, which allows asking interviewees questions in an unbiased way that encourages their perspectives about their world and their own personal mode of expression, and in a depth that can reveal the rich context of their meanings (Jones 1985).

In light of the above, and in case the study is conducted within an educational establishment like a primary school, researchers should by all means regard their ethical responsibility to avoid harming the school processes and respect the priorities of others. So, the "where" and "when" of the interviews should be left mainly to the adult interviewees. In respect to the global timing, it may be productive to place it after the first term of the school year because, according to teaching experience, any time during this term will be too early for research respondents to have acquired adequate "lived" classroom experience (Schwandt 2002, p. 118) with issues like indiscipline. The local times can be spread out during the school program. Care should be taken that the interviewing places promote a sense of privacy and comfort, and that they ensure confidentiality. As an example, for this reason, the majority of Kuloheri's interviews occurred on the interviewees' own school premises—that is, school heads were interviewed in their offices, and teachers and learners in their classes. Where this was not feasible, a quiet place was sought.

Given official time restrictions that may apply, interviewers also should consider the duration of interviewing to avoid unpleasant effects on processes and findings. For instance, in Kuloheri's CS, the duration of each interview was a maximum of two teaching periods per English teacher and per group of children; nevertheless, in the first case an additional 47-minute interview was offered by the teacher for the exploration of an emerging topic. Adult interviewing was divided into two sections, each one lasting from 45 to 55 minutes, unless otherwise required by the interviewees. This was aimed at reducing the risk of the researcher's and the interviewees' tiredness and of a possible subsequent negative development on interviewing (Richards 2003).

Concerning the interviewees, the key informants of indiscipline research should be the EFL teachers and the EFL learners of the selected

classes (cases). If a central issue is to be studied within a school, then the main teacher's and the school head's viewpoints, as well as the viewpoints of other key educators of particular classes, can be sought to reach the most detailed presentation of the matter. For instance, the main class/L1 teachers can be approached as those educationalists who are expected to have developed a precise picture of the child informants' classroom behavior because of prolonged contact with them during the daily school program. It will be particularly valuable to compare their experiences with those of the English teachers and to determine whether there is specific EFL-classroom indiscipline in each case. Heads are believed to be able to offer additional perspectives about the indiscipline of the cases and, generally, school indiscipline because of their extended presence in the specific school contexts and their supportive role in discipline matters. Both, L1 teachers and school heads additionally can provide researchers with a picture of their discipline strategies, so they can understand what the child participants are accustomed to and possibly strengthen analysis and interpretations.

In Kuloheri's study, in two of the four cases the SE teachers also were interviewed to pursue emerging issues because EFL teacher data suggested a possible relationship of the misbehavior of certain pupils with learning difficulties they seemed to have in English. Because those pupils had learning problems in L1 too and were supported by the SE teachers during supplementary tuition hours, the researcher thought that an interview with them could help her understand the profile of those children and explore the effect learning difficulties may have on a learner's EFL classroom behavior.

The next step to take for interviewing purposes should be to prepare interview guides for each of the interviewee categories, as a "directory" of basic themes and subthemes in note form. These guides aim to let the interviewees' perspectives inform the construction of questions (criterion for effective interviewing; Richards 2003) that would prompt, according to Richards, further revelation of aspects of their experience and understanding and, according to Burgess (1984), the expansion of their replies. They are, in addition, intended to give the researcher the freedom to respond openly to changes of dimension and of question sequencing (Burgess 1984; Jones 1985). They are a source of ideas, too, for the researcher-interviewer to resort to when the interviewees have nothing

else to say, and when no point from their utterances can be explored further. The contents of the guides for the secondary school respondents (e.g., L1/SE teachers and heads) are likely to differ to a certain extent from those of the main interviewees because of the diverse knowledge and experiences each one of them can offer and their indirect relationship to English school lessons.

Researchers also should prepare themselves well in their role as interviewers in terms of type and sequence of questions, because questioning can contribute significantly to the construction of the interview and, as a result, to the quality and amount of the data collected. Initially, opening questions (Richards 2003) should invite respondents to talk about a general issue related in a way with the research problem (e.g., a typical lesson of theirs). In case they refer to something that, in light of the researcher's TEFL experience, may be related to pupil disruption (e.g., pupil dislike for certain types of EFL material), the interviewer can invite participants to express more details about the particular point they raised and/or expand on it, respectively, through probing and follow-up questions.

The interviewer can employ the circling-back strategy to reintroduce an issue raised earlier that the informant seemed not yet ready to explore (Schwalbe and Wolkomir 2002) and can present a new discussion topic using structuring questions (Richards 2003). Last, but not least, question types (e.g., check/reflect) used to confirm, reject, or modify understandings of the interviewees' responses (Richards 2003), as well as follow-up and probe ones, should arise from a continuous examination of questions and responses during the actual interviewing process; thus, pre-analysis will be facilitated (Richards 2003).

Questioning can be open-ended too because of the potential of this type to capture specificities (Richards 2003) while tapping into the respondents' own reality (Eder and Fingerson 2002). With regard to their informational aspect, questions can focus on perceptions, events, emotions, and/or attitudes (Tammivaara and Enright 1986). In view of the four dimensions of questions found in ethnographic interviewing to elicit rich and more easily analyzable accounts from respondents (Lortie 1975), questioning also should be concrete and the use of personal questions generally should be avoided. Cathected questions about the informants' emotions (Tammivaara and Enright 1986) had better be

limited and used scarcely mainly to the EFL teachers, especially when they show approachability, satisfaction with the prospect of sharing their professional problems with an investigator, and eagerness to disclose their emotions.

It is advisable for questioning also to be oblique (Richards 2003) or indirect (Lortie 1975). With adults, this can be done by "casting the interviewees in the role of an expert consultant" (Lerner 1957, p. 27, cited in Richards 2003, p. 74); for instance, if an EFL teacher says that parents should help English teachers in discipline matters, asking "If you were a parent, how would you support this effort of the English teacher?" would comprise an indirect mode of questioning.

In the case of the school heads and L1/SE teachers, questioning may have to remain mostly general and focus more on their own practices. This is because they may lack direct experience with the research problem within the case. Additionally, researchers may wish to consider seriously not encouraging the singling out of English teachers, or not to invite the interviewees' critical comments on and/or evaluations of the teachers' practices, as later on this could create tension between them.

As to interview language, it is preferable to conduct interviews in the interviewees' mother tongue. Especially with non-native English speaking teachers, the use of English could make them feel insecure, and less vocabulary could be at their disposal to express details of experiences and deeper thoughts and emotions. On top of that, questions should be constructed carefully (e.g., by not imposing the researchers' own assumptions to the interviewees) so as to restrict researcher's biases. Interviewee anonymity and data confidentiality are to be ensured (Kvale 1996) by preventing access to the recorded material with the use of a personal password.

The adoption of certain tactics during interviewing should help with the establishment and maintenance of a relation of trust between the researcher-interviewer and the adult and child interviewees. For example, during the briefing stage, the investigator can provide the opportunity for respondents to reconsider their informed consent and withdraw (Lewis 2002; Warren 2002), can show interest in how they are feeling, and can guarantee protection of the recorded material, saying that nobody can access it. In the case of the adults, it is necessary to safeguard their posi-

tion from later effects from their participation in the interview (ethical principle of beneficence; Kvale 1996). With adult interviewees, it should be agreed that they can go through the interview transcripts and look at them for accuracy, and that the researcher will consider their views, however without giving them the right of veto the contents.

During the interview, researchers should attend to the formation of questions so that interviewees will not be offended or hurt, should listen to responses attentively and respectfully and provide feedback (Richards 2003), show understanding, avoid sounding judgmental, be careful of the respondents' feelings by inviting them to talk about whatever turns out to be problematic for them, and restrict interruptions. During the debriefing stage, they need to express their appreciation and gratitude to participants, to sum up the points covered in order to provide time for additional contributions, comments, and questions and reinforce the creation of a basis for claims, and to ask them to evaluate the interview and suggest improvements as a sign of trust in their abilities to do so. Finally, at the end, they need to thank them again as a sign of gratitude.

Group Interviewing

Interviewing children should give prominence to their own voices about matters that concern them (Eder and Fingerson 2002). Within the framework of CS interviewing, group interviewing can be employed in the sense of what Lewis (1992) called "a group conversational encounter with a research purpose" (p. 413). Besides its potential to set the conditions for the constructivist process of meaning creation, research experience suggests that group interviewing can contribute to the construction of the interview (and consequently, to data collection) by offering understandings and experiences that inform question formation.

Specifically, responses within a group may prompt the generation of a wider variety of other responses through, for instance, the extension of ideas and the creation of new ones, the recall of more experiences, and the disclosure about events that others have not revealed (Cohen et al. 2007; Lewis 1992). So, a more complete and dependable record of a case

can be reached, as Cohen et al. purported. Thus, group interviewing can simulate the natural interactive conditions in which children can construct concepts and acquire and impart knowledge (Eder and Fingerson 2002), and they can develop their own hierarchy of importance and their frameworks of understanding (Kitzinger 1994).

Group interviewing is also less daunting for children than individual interviewing (Cohen et al. 2007; Eder and Fingerson 2002). As in focus group interviewing, a supportive environment is provided in which children can overcome embarrassment (Kitzinger 1994) and take the risk to voice their ideas and express uncertainty and queries (Lewis 1992). Lewis added to these that thinking time is given to the children while someone else is talking and thus reflective responses can be reinforced. Data-gathering is made quicker too, so less time is required than for individual interviewing (Cohen et al. 2007), which counteracts the possibility that only a short time is available for research.

With children, it is recommended that group interviewing occur in friendship groups formed by the children themselves. Friendship groups are preferred to forced membership because they can facilitate the discussion of sensitive issues, such as bad behavior, and can indirectly empower children (or weak and sensitive adults) by allowing them to determine the conditions under which they will be interviewed (Kitzinger 1994). Taking into account research experience with young learners, it is preferable to have groups of three to six members only so that participation of everyone can be encouraged (Lewis 1992). To particularly stress the issue of confidentiality and so avoid the danger reported by Lewis of order effects caused by reports of earlier interviewees to their classmates about what has been said in the interview, investigators should try the idea of asking them to form a "secret group" and to maintain this idea throughout the study. This idea normally is received in practice with enthusiasm and conspiratorial voices and manners, and it may render unexpectedly rich findings.

In connection with the group interviewing site, the place can be organized to accommodate each group in a semi-circle, facing the interviewer. If pieces of equipment are to be employed (e.g., a computer as in Kuloheri's study), then all group members should be sitting at a convenient distance from them (e.g., close to the screen and the speakers so

as to see and hear well). The semi-circle should not be wide so that distracting behavior by the children on its fringes can be avoided, and the responses of the group members will not be influenced (Lewis 1992). Maintaining the position a teacher normally would have in a semi-circle is important for interviewers so that they can chair the interview more carefully, according to Lewis, by addressing questions to everybody and so avoiding what he calls "low question zones" (p. 418). All the necessary research materials (e.g., a clock, the recorder, a notebook, a pencil or pen, and rough paper) should be placed on a desk in front of and close to the semi-circle.

Regarding questioning with children, the specifications given about doing it with adult participants apply in group child interviewing too. In the matter of oblique questioning, this can occur verbally, for example, with questions addressing the interviewees' probable reaction if they were in someone else's shoes, or through the beginning of a story (e.g., "Once upon a time there were some kids in my classroom who would break in on the lesson, not wait for their turn. I couldn't understand why they were doing this. Can you explain this, with the experience you have from your English school lessons?"). Besides storytelling, the support of visual or audio-visual material, such as photographs and video extracts of the efforts of a teacher to teach an unruly class, has been shown to be very useful.

Visual or audio-visual material can help children "concretize" (Christensen and James 2008, p. 158) the meaning(s) they attach to abstract notions, such as those of good and bad behavior, and so as to think and speak about them. In accordance with Scott's claims (2008), they can encourage "a concentrated focus on the topic" too (p. 160); and, in view of the tendency of children to forget, they reinforce recall of relevant experiences. Extensive EFL teaching practice also suggested that this kind of research material prompts child participation and stimulates interest. So, the use of visual or audio-visual material during educational studies can increase responses, especially with child interviewees who seem shy and/or find it demanding to express themselves (as in the case of limited vocabulary or undeveloped communicative skills). Last, but not least, the data collected from the use of this material can feed interview questioning in the children's groups.

With regard to content, the materials should be relevant to the school grades of the project and to the research questions. For example, in Kuloheri's multi-case study, the first audio-visual (called "video" hereafter) shot was entitled "Classroom swap" and presented two cooperative, attending, quiet classes of primary school pupils, while the second one called "Managing behavior" showed two undisciplined, noisy, disruptive classes of the same age. So, they posed primary school, whole-class good and bad behavior issues such as pupil (in)attendance, distraction, and (non-)compliance to teacher instructions, problematic turn-taking, and teacher discipline techniques. With reference to the actual use of the video, it was planned in the particular CS that each group would be shown at least one shot from each of the two previously mentioned videos. In practice, however, groups who were not as talkative as others were shown more, while two groups in the third case, out of the total of 17 groups, were not shown any at all because of the rich flow of their responses within the given group interviewing time.

As regards the viewing procedure, the video normally started running when the time came for the discussion of the topic it was on, after the discussion of the previous issue was completed, and when it was assured that all group interviewees had visual access to the screen. The viewing procedure may involve the following stages. It should be explained to the children initially that they will watch a short video on parts of lessons in primary schools, and that they should pay particular attention to the children's and the teacher's behavior for discussion purposes. If the material is in English or in another foreign language, they must be reassured that they are not expected to understand what is being said, though the researcher can provide explanations to help them feel more secure and facilitate contextual understanding.

Children should be provided with background information on the video when required, and scenes can be frozen during explanations. While frozen, the group interviewer can, for instance, make back-referencing by stating factual visual information to guide focusing on just one point (e.g., "We saw the kids sitting at their desks and greeting the teacher as she was entering."), check understanding about events and actions through elicitation questions to increase concentration and involvement (e.g., "What did the girl/teacher do?"), initiate a discussion by pointing

to a visual element (e.g., a teacher's discipline technique and inattentive children), and/or ask general or specific questions (e.g., "Have you seen your English teacher acting like that?" or "Do you think this is good behavior?" or "Why do you think she did it?").

To facilitate orderly and respectful contributions to the interviews and to make good use of the interviewing time during group interviewing, behavior rules should be reinforced. Kuloheri employed what she named "Rules for democratic, ethical behavior" and handed them out to each interviewee. These covered the broad content of what the children could speak about to urge them to focus on what was relevant to the research (e.g., talking about life in the school EFL classroom), the speaking functions they could perform (e.g., telling their opinion, agreeing and disagreeing with their friends), ethical issues (e.g., using their friends' pseudonyms, respecting different views, not laughing at anybody, keeping to themselves what they heard), and practical interviewing matters (e.g., raising a hand before taking the floor, waiting until someone else stops talking).

If turn-taking as a behavior pattern is claimed by the children's teachers to be a problematic area, then researchers should be particularly careful with planning beforehand with the aim of avoiding complications or at least restricting them to a minimum. An effective technique for encouraging child interviewees to speak when their turn comes has been proven to be the turn-taking ball (Kuloheri 2010). Kuloheri's positive experience with it during group work in the EFL classroom implied that it could raise awareness in children of the importance of respecting others during group interviewing too, as well as increase child participation. The latter subsequently may generate a greater range of responses within the time limits.

This ball can be an anti-stress one on purpose so that it helps children release any tension during interviewing. It should be placed on the desk in front of the semi-circle at a point where it can be easily reached by all. As the facilitator of this technique, the researcher should first introduce the rule: "Start speaking after you hold the ball the previous speaker has given you." Then, as soon as the first interview question is asked, the interviewer initiates the process by giving the ball to one of the children who raises a hand. As long as someone is holding the ball, nobody else has the right to speak. The rest of the turns are managed by the children.

Besides the preceding practical issues of group interviewing, the research literature also sensitized the researchers-interviewers to the serious problem of status incongruence among adult researcher and child informants, which group child interviewing alone may be inadequate to address (Tammivaara and Enright 1986). As a result, Tammivaara and Enright advised minimizing this power imbalance by employing a child-centered approach to interviewing; this signifies a one-down position of the researcher as a questioner in relation to the child. In particular, during the introductory session and the briefing interview stage, the children should be alerted to their right to let their voices be heard and contribute to decision making about classroom issues. Interviewers can stress their wish to hear the children's voices first and foremost and directly ask for their help in their understanding of childhood.

The children's behavior should not be overtly controlled (Tammivaara and Enright 1986), and nobody should be forced to answer. Neither should they be discouraged from asking and/or talking about personal concerns (e.g., the interviewing process and the recorder) provided that such questions are kept to a minimum. Occasionally, interviewers can play it dumb by, for example, pretending ignorance and/or by using an incorrect assertion. For instance, in a video shot in which it is obvious that the child was furious because his peer was disturbing him for a while, the interviewer could say "In this video extract, the child is attacking his friend in class because he's jealous, right?"). Responsibilities also may be assigned to child interviewees during interviewing (e.g., forming groups, taking down names of group members, and during the briefing stage taking turns reading the rules for democratic behavior aloud). The impression of a lesson should by all means be avoided by emphasizing that there is no correct answer to interview questions, and that all responses are important, by refraining from an interrogating, exam-like tone of voice and by limiting the researcher's talking time.

6.4.2.2   Observation

Researcher observation can take place during a study at two basic levels—namely, during the whole of the study and during a particular stage

of it. With reference to the former, organized researchers enhance their identity as outsiders at work by observing single details at all distinct phases of the study and by making note of any they consider valuable. To make good use of field notes, observers can use a notepad, a calendar, and/or a researcher's diary. Additionally, they can keep narrative and/or abbreviated jotted notes on copies of completed research instruments (e.g., on teacher portfolios, questionnaires, and observation systems), mainly within the field or immediately after a research stage, to reduce the risk of forgetting. Sometimes, conceptual maps can be formed as part of note-taking during the study of the data to support interviewing with issues derived from the participants' responses to secondary research instruments.

As mentioned before, observational data also can be collected during specific research stages. The investigation of indiscipline in EFL classes suggested that it is useful to conduct a brief observation of a couple of English lessons at the initial research phase as a supplementary, exploratory data-collection procedure (Eder and Fingerson 2002; Robson 2002). The purpose of this is twofold. First, researchers should acquaint themselves with the case(s) by forming general impressions about the children's behavior through some "firsthand experience" (Merriam 1988, p. 87) in the "real life" (Robson 2002, p. 310) of the classrooms. Second, it is very fruitful to gather data about actual behavior and events, and the contexts in which they happen (Maxwell 2005).

These data can definitely inform interviewing and complement effectively evidence obtained through other sources (Robson 2002), help investigators reach a realistic and deeper understanding of the case(s) (Silverman 1993), and provide "a relatively incontestable description" (Stake 1995, p. 62) and explanation of them. Observation can contribute to breaking the ice between the children and the researchers too and so make their contribution less inhibited.

The general observation approach adopted would rather be the nonparticipatory unobtrusive (Robson 2002) detached one (Gillham 2000)—namely, staying outside the situation being investigated and trying to be as unnoticed as possible. Besides the preceding advantages that observations generally offer, this mode also has the potential to foster

in researchers an outsider's perspective of the world they are interested in, admittedly restricted within short official research times, by seeing things from a distance and probably by noticing parameters teachers and children as insiders cannot become aware of because of their involvement in the situation (Wragg 1999). Investigators should additionally strive to seize opportunities to substitute educators of the investigated classes in order to increase the participant(s)-researcher contact time further and so collect more data about how the children behave in their classrooms.

Observation System

The design of a structured, but flexible (not too tight), descriptive observation system is advisable to foster the purposefulness of observation by providing researcher-observers with a mental organizational framework to attend to areas and characteristics they are interested in without narrowing their focus (Richards 2003). It further allows for the observation of the unpredictable (Silverman 1993; Whyte and Whyte 1984) and restricts the influence of biases (Richards 2003).

Its design can be based on research questions and the suggested key features for observation of Richards (2003) and Merriam (1988). Two parts may comprise it: an Introductory page and a Table. As to the former, this is intended to gather general information, such as day and time of observation, teacher pseudonym, class number, EFL level, number of pupils present, number and roles of adults present, and class setting in terms of the general classroom environment, the furniture, the board, and the seating arrangement.

Concerning the Table, this should seek two types of information that is developed in eight columns; in particular, "Type A," which refers to the implemented structure of the lesson observed as a mutually determined process by the teacher and the children, and "Type B," which relates to issues of classroom disruption such as actions and events that may disrupt the way(s) teachers and/or pupils are supposed to be, respectively, teaching and learning in light of a lesson plan. This information is stated with categories because they permit observers to record details of the behaviors. Descriptive category labels should be employed because they

allow for the development of an overall picture of behavior in terms of occurring events (Richards 2003). For Type-A information, the use of six low-inference categories, which by definition do not require a particular judgment on the researchers' part, is proposed. For Type-B information, three high-inference person-centered categories are set forth, including those that direct the observers' attention towards behavioral aspects that require their interpretations (Nunan 1992).

The Type-A information categories can be "Step" (lesson stage), "Time and work mode" (when a new task starts and whether the children are working individually or in pairs/groups), "Materials" (books and equipment used), "Teacher activity and pupil activity" (respectively, what the teacher is doing and what the children are instructed to do), and "Pupil responses to task" (what the pupils actually do in response to what the teacher asked them to do, not necessarily complying with task instructions). The Type-B categories can be "Observed disruptions" (e.g., kinds of actions and activities perceived as upsetting the usual teaching process; Wolcott 1994, cited in Richards 2003), "Teacher/Pupil reactions to disruptions" (e.g., feelings, actions, and language used), and "Relationships and interactions" (e.g., pupil groups, member relations, striking pupil–teacher interactions, as interactive ways in which individuals and/or groups demonstrate, establish, and/or develop relationships in the English classroom; Richards 2003).

In practice, the completion of the suggested Table during observation has shown that the category system is effective in terms of the clarity of category labels and of their relationship to observable behavior. The number of categories has been proven to be just right because they cover the most essential elements to consider during a study. Furthermore, they have been confirmed to be in total as many as required so as to attract the researchers' attention to the coordinated transition from observing to recording and vice versa, instead of what has been experienced to be the case in other observation systems that direct attention to the mental processing of what each column heading refers to and of where each observation fits.

Observer's Paradox

The consideration of the observer's paradox or effect (Merriam 1988; Richards 2003; Robson 2002; Wragg 1999) is particularly important in a project on child indiscipline, especially when the child participants do not have any past experience with visitors in their classrooms. So, it seems likely that in the presence of an adult who is normally absent from their English lessons they may attempt, consciously or unconsciously, to change their normal classroom behavior to project the behavior they believe would suit what, in their view, the visitor wishes to see. So, the picture captured could be unrepresentative of reality and endanger the trustworthiness of the analysis and interpretation.

To reduce this effect, observers should try to eliminate any possible observer influence on the impression or the stereotype that an actor forms of observers through their dress and positioning, through opportunities for interaction with them, and through his or her apprehensiveness about being judged and/or assessed (Richards 2003; Wragg 1999). Specifically, observers can try to reinforce the impression that they are unrelated to the learners' lesson environment by wearing casual outdoor clothes, which are said in particular to symbolize a status of temporary occupancy of a realm, of being; as Ford and Harding put it, as "always on the verge of leaving" (2004, p. 821). To distance themselves from the children physically as much as classroom size may allow, a seat can be selected as distant from the children as possible.

The strategy of "minimal interaction" (Robson 2002, p. 328) during the observation should be employed by avoiding eye contact and limiting the observer's response to the actors' efforts to communicate. To minimize a possible sense of threat from the observation and from the observer's note-taking, observers should remind the children of the purpose of the observation and ask for their continued approval (Wragg 1999), should not make attempts to disguise the observation system, and should try to dissuade possible impressions that they are persistently looking at the children and taking notes when something critical happens (Richards 2003). Nevertheless, despite all these measures, one should acknowledge the possible limitations of the observer's paradox.

6.4.3 Supplementary Research Methods

6.4.3.1   EFL Teacher's Portfolio

An EFL teacher's portfolio (or Teacher diary) is meant to be a participant's personal account on the research issues on the basis of his or her relevant lived experiences (i.e., English lessons). Teacher diaries can approximate the observation method (McDonough and McDonough 1997). Nevertheless, the difference is that in the particular instrument the data represent the teacher's internal perspectives and not the researcher-observant's external ones. The diary-portfolio can be employed to prepare teacher informants for interviewing by enhancing their observations and reflections about classroom indiscipline within specific realistic lesson contexts. It is meant to bring about the collection of more data on the research questions, and thus support data triangulation and complement a deeper indiscipline picture of each case. It can supplement researchers' initial observation-based picture of the case(s) with the EFL teacher's observations from more lessons.

As McDonough and McDonough described it, the portfolio can have the form of a "pre-coded diary" (p. 122) of a total number of lessons suggested by the investigator and agreed on by the teacher. Consequently, a negotiation may be necessary so that the amount of work to be done by the teachers will by no means become a burden; this would threaten not only the adult participants' efficiency but also would cause serious damage to the reliability of the actual research (e.g., tired individuals will surely avoid details and do their best to close the processes hastily). Research experience has shown, according to McDonough and McDonough, that portfolios cannot be kept for long when researchers are not interested in behavioral change over time, and when time restrictions are imposed on research schedules.

Research participants asked to keep a portfolio (called "diarists" hereafter) need a kind of guidance in the areas they will be asked to observe during the lessons because observing the whole of the lesson and noting down anything striking is likely to render rich information on a variety of lesson issues, but not necessarily on the central one (i.e., indiscipline).

For this purpose, it is valuable to provide diarists with the issues they are expected to observe. In the case of investigating indiscipline of young EFL learners, the diary may contain categories created in light of the research questions. It should be confidential and anonymous too. Note-taking can be in the language the researcher and the teacher share (e.g., English or L1), but the final choice should be left to the respondents so that they can express themselves with confidence and precision.

Valuable diary information can be provided if diarists are clear about what they are expected to do and why. Thus, prior to completion, the task purpose should be explained, and informants should be taken through the instrument to confirm their understanding of it and to pose questions. They can be asked not to stage any perfect lesson and to be as detailed as possible. So, researchers should ensure that case specificities will arise and a better basis for interviewing will be created (Bell 2005). It is of utmost importance to draw the respondents' attention to the fact that the portfolio encompasses no evaluation of their teaching skills so that the purpose of its completion will not be misunderstood, and any probable feelings of threat and insecurity will not lead to biased data.

6.4.3.2   Child Drawings

Drawings may be used, according to Punch (2002), as a supplementary participant-produced data source, with the aim of providing insight into the participants' experiences. Such experiences will be related to a given point in time and can help researchers explore how the participants perceive the context of the research interest. Wales (1990) helped researchers understand the major potential of child drawings to reach for deeper truths that may not be able to be uttered by claiming that children draw "what they know, not what they see" with precision (p. 144).

Drawings are meant to be a focus for child concentration on the topic (Christensen and James 2008). They are to function as what Punch calls a "warm- up" research task too (p. 331), prior to group interviewing in the sense of encouraging children to recall experiences, feelings, emotions, and opinions related to the focal issue, and of providing them with more

time to familiarize themselves with the researcher and with the idea of participating in a process different from their daily routine. So it has been forecast that children will not be forced into the exploration of their inner world (Kearney and Hyle 2004) and will be more likely to demonstrate increased response rates. Additionally, Kearney and Hyle claimed that drawings are expected to reveal key features or perceptions of experiences and feelings, and lead them towards the sharing of personal data beyond what they normally would describe during interviewing.

In light of research experience with the use of this method with children, when the drawing activity is planned to follow an introductory session to the research and/or an initial researcher observation, then, according to Kearney and Hyle, factors crucial for positive participant response to drawing can be ensured, such as the clarification of goals and the provision of chances for development of a certain degree of trust between the child and the investigator. The preceding, in particular, can provide children with a reason for participating and reduce inhibitions about sharing their personal worlds.

The place of the activity preferably should be the context relevant to the subject matter of the research. For instance, in the case of studying child indiscipline during EFL lessons, it can be the learners' English classroom because it has been found that one's presence in the actual environment of interest can facilitate recall of more experiences and thus contribute to a fuller depiction of a context. If an issue is studied at a wider educational context (e.g., a school), an art lesson may be requested to enhance coherence between the particular research stage and the children's school life.

Children should be given a topic for the drawing activity. In light of the research experiences of Kearney and Hyle, this should be expressed in such a way that it introduces the issue of concern, bounds imagination and the selection of classroom experiences, and consequently reduces the chances that the drawings are far off the target of the study and therefore useless. It should be kept as general as possible to avoid researcher-generated, biased displays and, within the constructivist framework, to reinforce the depiction of each participant's unique experiences. For example, during the investigation of young EFL misbehavior, the topic could be "My English teacher, my classmates and I in my English classroom." Concerning the individuals mentioned in the topic, these are

meant to signal the protagonists of the learning and teaching events and to guide children in constructing a picture of the specific place. This can be managed if children represent their perspectives about the main aspects related to them—namely, relationships, interactions, feelings, classroom behaviors, routines, processes, and events (Richards 2003).

The request to draw should be placed after a short warm-up stage comprised of, in the following order: a group discussion to tune children into the idea of becoming artists and encourage their creativity through the adoption of this role, the presentation of the topic, an activity to facilitate memory recall, and a reminder about the issue of confidentiality to reduce inhibitions about adults seeing their work; these are intended to increase participation and to promote psychological child welfare.

Children's memory recall, concentration, and inner calmness can be facilitated through a kind of "relax and recall" activity, supported by suitable background music. During this, they can be guided by the researcher's soft voice and slow speech, telling them to cross their arms on the desks, to place their foreheads on them, to inhale and exhale slowly, and to try to remember characteristics of their English classroom (e.g., persons, routines, activities, and outstanding events). At the end, they should be asked to start raising their heads slowly to avoid dizziness. Then, the whole group can proceed with the actual drawing task.

For task purposes, each child should be given a blank piece of paper and asked to make one drawing on it. The time allotted depends on the ages of the participants and on the research time available; however, the time should be announced and written somewhere (e.g., the board) for reference purposes. The researcher should occasionally announce how much time is left until the end of the activity. No child should be forced to draw, and the option should be given to choose whether to color the picture or not. Children can be allowed to talk with their peers, to glimpse at others' work, and to exchange ideas to reinforce self-confidence and a feeling of security. Despite the possibility that they may copy elements from peers' work, Christensen and James (2008) advised that a feeling of similarity is crucial, thus giving them an impression of a membership.

During the drawing activity, researchers may feel the need to move around. This should be done very discreetly and can be combined with praising efforts to prevent frustration and anxiety. When children call

for help because, for example, they do not know what to draw, employing elicitation questions individually may help them identify experiences, feelings, and emotions; also try to give general guidelines to ease their discomfort, without however guiding their creation—for example, "Is there something that you particularly like in the English lesson?" or "Anything that annoys you?" or "Try to remember whether something disappointing happened to you last time." At the end of the activity, each child should be asked to write his or her pseudonym on the drawing and to hand it to the researcher. Subsequent to this, the children must be debriefed through a revision of the activity process and purpose, and be asked to express their opinions, pose questions, and make suggestions for the improvement of the drawing research process. Immediately after this session, researchers should note down their observations and personal reflections, focusing particularly on behavioral matters.

As Kearley and Hyle (2004) pointed out, experiences depicted in participant-produced drawings can only be considered complete and fully understood when the participants interpret them. So, child interpretations of the creations potentially can guide understanding and analysis of drawings and function as an anti-biases technique to restrict researcher subjectivity, especially in the case of pictorial elements that may not indicate clearly what was intended. Consequently, the interpretations reinforce the constructivist perception of children as meaning-makers and researchers' desire and responsibility for the pursuit of the participants' truth.

For interpretation purposes, during a separate session the drawings should be given back to each child so that they can describe what they have drawn and what their drawings mean to them. Alternatively, they can be returned right before the start of the group interviewing process so that they can be used as a reference point during interviewing. It is noteworthy that child participants normally feel more confident and eager to share their drawings and their meanings in the environment of their groups. Recording child responses would be preferable. Researchers, however, must be prepared for the fact that not every child may want to speak, and that a certain number of those who do speak may not say a lot. This may be the result of the possibility that the particular child–adult interaction is too early on in the interview for them to open up; although

the additional possibility that they might not have anything to say, or that they may not be aware of what their drawings mean to them, cannot be excluded.

For analysis purposes, a selection of drawings can be made on the basis of the criteria of completeness and relevance; respectively, whether the children handed them in when they believed they did not want to add anything else, and whether the content of each drawing satisfies the theme set by depicting an EFL classroom situation involving at least some of the persons given in the theme. Regarding relevance, decision making can be facilitated by the recordings about the children's stated content of their drawings. The analysis of the drawings then will be based on the transcribed children's reports about what they have drawn and about the particular meaning the drawing has for them.

6.5   Research Preliminaries

Before entering a case for investigation purposes, a number of preliminary actions should take place. A major one is, of course, case selection. This may not require any action beforehand, in which case investigators are free to choose their unit of interest without being answerable to anybody. In certain countries and/or educational contexts, however, investigators should first obtain an official research permission (e.g., from the local Ministry of Education, or the owner/manager of the language institute), which will allow them to cooperate with research participants during a period of time officially recorded in a written permission document.

Some investigators see unit selection as easy as taking candy from a baby, in which case they find any English teacher or any EFL class, and there they go! What, however, seems fine at first glance may present them with difficulties that could have been anticipated, or even if this teacher or class may seem right for investigation purposes, there may be better ones around. So, for the sake of meticulousness, the procedure of case selection had better occur at four sequential levels. Level One encompasses the identification of the right individual to gain access to potential participants. Level Two comprises the identification of potential EFL

teacher participants from which to choose. Level Three includes the identification of appropriate EFL teacher(s), and Level Four is the identification of appropriate EFL classes.

This bears the features of the ethnographic process of unit selection in terms of its phasic, sequential nature (Goetz and LeCompte 1984) and the selection strategies employed. Concerning these strategies, first comes the criterion-based one (Levels One, Three, Four)—namely, developing a priori an array of characteristics that you as a researcher want the appropriate intermediaries and participants to possess (Goetz and LeCompte 1984; Patton 2002). Desired features of intermediaries may be prestige of primary schools and EFL teachers, relationship to TEFLYL at schools and/or other relevant FL learning contexts, acquaintance and, if possible, experience with an adequate number of EFL teachers, and approachability. Expected characteristics of appropriate EFL teachers may be, for instance, a minimum of five years of experience in TEFLYL, communicative, cooperative, and self-reflection abilities, some familiarity with research processes and thus an ability to understand at least some of the research requirements so as not provide too many obstacles, and enthusiasm for contributing to educational research. To select appropriate groups of young EFL learners, researchers may wish to include "information-rich" cases, according to Stake's criterion for case selection (1995, p. 4), to maximize the potential to learn about salient issues relevant to misbehavior in EFL classrooms within the imposed time constraints.

Second comes the reputational strategy (Levels Two, Three, Four)—namely, in light of the criteria specified previously, accepting EFL teachers and pupils on the recommendations, respectively, of the intermediaries who have had experience with the teachers' profiles, and of the children's English teachers who know how their pupils behave in class (Goetz and LeCompte 1984; Stake 2005). Besides the previous two strategies, investigators also can apply the opportunistic strategy (Levels One and Two) and decide on the spot to take advantage of the unexpected (Patton 2002; Richards 2003), as well as the convenience strategy, whereby they should consider whether the learning environments (e.g., schools) the selected teachers are working in are accessible in terms of place, and whether they provide good conditions for their research (Stake 1995).

Within the opportunistic strategy, one may recognize the application of what will be called "emerging issues" criterion, in the sense of directing oneself during the research to investigate topics that arise unexpectedly during data collection and of seeking the participation of supplementary individuals who are believed, on the basis of new unpredictable data, to be able to provide further evidence. For example, Kuloheri (2010) pursued the unexpected issue of disciplined learner behavior during L1 classes and its relationship with the traditional teaching methodology and so approached more participants—namely, the cases' SE teachers, Greek teachers, and school heads. The CS tradition does allow for the application of the "emerging-issues criterion" within its multiple-source framework, a fact that is likely to strengthen an investigator's reasons for selecting it. The overall purpose of this criterion is to dig deeper into the cases so as to document them realistically (Adelman et al. 1980) and with adequate details, to strengthen confidence in the analytical and interpretative statements (Bassey 1999), and so to enhance the credibility and dependability of the investigation.

During the selection process, the Richards (2003) chronological stages of making contact, arranging consent, and representing research should be applied to gain access and to build field relationships. While making contacts, the "hierarchy of consent" (Dingwall 1980, cited in Richards 2003, p. 121) should be followed. For instance, if a study is to take place at a school, then it is customary that the English teachers are prioritized to contacting school heads because school administrators usually want to know whether their teachers have already consented to participate in the research. Nevertheless, it should be ensured that both parties are involved in the process of negotiation and consent-giving. Research representation should precede consent-giving so that the participants' consent is informed. Consent can be arranged first orally and then in writing. Researchers should see that all consent documents (e.g., letters to parents and written consent forms to parents and teachers) are compiled along similar lines. (For guidelines about compilation of letters of consent, see Cohen et al. 2007.) Before the participants' responses to each methodological instrument, their consents should be reconfirmed. The children's own informed consent should be ensured too.

To get children's informed consent and so include them in the research purpose as insiders, an introductory session with each class should take

place (Lewis 2002) as a follow-up stage to their parents' informed consent. The child participants can be presented with the information included in the consent letters to their parents; for instance, the research context and the general study aim, the kind of their involvement, the research duration, the benefits they may gain, the importance of their contribution, how the data will be used, their right to withdraw at any point without any personal harm, and the reward they will get in recognition of their participation.

Emphasis should be placed on who the researcher is, especially if this person's profile is believed to contribute to ensuring the child informant's trust. For example, if the researcher is currently an EFL teacher of primary school ages, mention of this can be combined with a special reference to the researcher's awareness of the problems they have been facing as EFL learners, to her or his interest in seriously contributing to their solutions, and to her or his trust in their potential to guide adults in understanding the children's world. By doing this, researchers can invite them to open up and reinforce a friendly presence, a sense of empathy on their part, their willingness to consider child perspectives, and the importance of learner contributions to educational research (Tammivaara and Enright 1986).

It also is advisable for investigators to make efforts right from the start of the project to build and to maintain a good relationship with the participants such as by respecting priorities, ensuring they feel secure, offering help with school/work life, offering rewards at the end, and maintaining contact. This is an important requirement because researchers and respondents participate in a process of interpreting and mutually influencing each other and of intersubjectively building a relationship that can play an important role in the overall success of the research and the increase of the trustworthiness of a qualitative report (Rossman and Rallis 1998).

6.6 Data Transcription

Analyzing interviews with the purpose of collecting data on research issues presupposes transcribing the interview materials according to a selected transcription mode. Within the research scheme of the CS, investigators

are advised to adopt the verbatim transcription mode because it permits an accurate reproduction of the interview's aural record (Poland 1995) and the supplementation of the transcripts with features that can bring out, according to Poland's emphatic claim, the "full flavor of the interview as a lived experience" (p. 292). Besides these, researchers can have at their disposal a representation of the deep reality of the participants' inner worlds and consequently material that can lead them to the much desired insightful truth of the problem.

Transcripts then should take the form of a word-for-word orthographic record in the language the researchers choose. Casual conversation elements that strengthen the impression of the untidiness of interaction and seize the emotional aspects of it (Poland 1995) should be retained—that is, repetitions, incomplete sentences, elisions, contractions, intonation, and laughs. Systematicity and consistency in the transcript code used within and across transcriptions is an additional must during this phase. Concerning stretched sounds and pauses, their inclusion in transcripts is advised because, as thinking, time-saving devices in spoken discourse, they have the potential to reinforce in the data the thinking process that participants may go through to specify and express perceptions. As frequent features of oral child discourse, they reinforce the authenticity of the voices too (Poland 1995) and, consequently, the authenticity of the content to be analyzed.

Systematic attention must be paid to transcription quality by minimizing errors—namely, the differences between the written document and the recording of the research interview on which it is based (Poland 1995). For example, the researcher personally can undertake both roles (i.e., of the transcriber and transcript reviewer), and transcription can occur with frequent intervals to reduce the negative influence of tiredness brought about during the demanding transcription process. To promote the issue of confidentiality in the transcripts (Kvale 1996) and in data presentation, besides silencing names within interview responses, printed transcript materials should be securely stored and the interviewees' identities should be masked with abbreviations (e.g., "ET" for "English teacher" and pseudonyms for child informants).

It would be wise to offer the transcripts to all the adult respondents to check them. In cases in which they agree to do so, advance planning is

necessary for the protection of the participants' well-being. For instance, avoid the repercussions that reading one's verbatim authentic exchange may have—that is, feeling that they are being presented as "incoherent and inarticulate," according to Poland (1995, p. 292); so, arrange for respondents to be informed about the transcription mode selected, the features of transcribed talk in it, and the reasons for its selection.

Examples of transcribed interview exchanges can be found in Sections 3, 4, and 5, while the transcription code employed can be seen in "List of Transcript Conventions" in this book's front pages.

6.7   Data Analysis

Researcher self-reflection shows that during the data-collection process investigators become engaged in analytical acts with the purpose of informing data-gathering and analysis, getting a picture of their projects' progress, and conducting responsible and reliable research. As an example, judgments are made about the design of the research instruments, verbal communication is evaluated, analytical notes are kept while listening to interviews, participant-based evidence from the supplementary data sources is assessed and singled out in light of the research questions, and themes are identified as "analytical insights" (Patton 2002, p. 436). Nevertheless, effort should be made not to allow field analysis to restrict a researcher's open-mindedness so that findings are reliable.

After piling up the data and transcribing interviews, systematic, organized, principled data analysis should follow. This analysis is claimed to consist of three stages running parallel—namely, data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification (Miles and Huberman 1994). According to Miles and Huberman, data reduction is the process in which the data are chosen, centered on, made less complicated, condensed, and transformed. Data display is the organized data presentation (e.g., in extended text) that facilitates the drawing of conclusions and the definition of action. The third, last stage is that at which final judgments are formed about what the data mean and are tested against, for instance, field notes and participant reviews of the conclusions drawn.

Bearing in mind that research projects focusing on misbehavior seek to find the profound truth about the problem as perceived by individuals in context, content analysis (Gillham 2000) is suggested as a way to tap the participants' perceptions of and experiences with indiscipline in the EFL classroom through the content of the oral and written information provided (e.g., respectively, in interview, portfolio, and questionnaire data). So, it is expected that contextualized interpretations will be made of facts produced by communication processes (i.e., interviews) or signification processes (e.g., diaries and drawings as physical artifacts) with the ultimate goal of producing unbiased findings.

As such, the analytic procedure involves the identification of "core consistencies and meanings" (Patton 2002, p. 453) in the material that proves "substantive" (Gillham 2000, p. 59) in light of the research questions. More particularly, first, what Maxwell (2005) named "organisational categories" (p. 97) should be preestablished and a code given to each (e.g., the first basic issue of indiscipline causes can be encoded as "BasI1Cau"). These categories and their codes take the form of Maxwell's "broad issues" (2005, p. 97) and are set as Stake's "template for the analysis" (1995, p. 78). Their formation follows Stake's "conceptual structure" (p. 17) of the CS, as this is determined by the focal analysis points, which have additionally informed the design of the observation instrument, the teacher portfolio, and the interview guides. These points of analysis comprise the issues and subissues posed by the Basic and Backup, binding research questions, and they guide researchers' attention while reading the data for the purpose of identifying and classifying relevant key features.

Regarding what is actually said about these issues during the application of a research method (e.g., interviewing), relevant substantive meanings should be identified in transcript segments and assigned labels that suggest their main idea (called "initial detailed coding", according to Richards 2003, p. 273). Labels can be further reduced to Maxwell's "substantive categories" (2005, p. 97) recognized as patterns, such as "talking out of turn" (pattern analysis, according to Patton 2002). A pattern-indexing system thus can be constructed with the relevant labels and locators indicating the data source(s) in which the respective evidence can be found—for example, the locator "We break in on the lesson to

get a good mark" can be assigned the label "EFL grade" and the pattern "EFL assessment."

Because researchers cannot know beforehand what the participants will say about the research problem, an open approach to categorization should be adopted (Richards 2003) with salient categories emerging from the data (inductive analysis, according to Patton 2002). This can reduce researcher biases as an analyst and reinforce trustworthiness. Moreover, researchers should look closely at whether the patterns emerging from the analysis of each interview within each case are in agreement, and whether patterns coincide across the cases. The purpose of this is to examine whether pattern-matching is operative and thus to strengthen the internal validity of the CS (Yin 2003).

In terms of index language (Levine 1985), to increase the "indexical validity of content" (p. 176), effort should be put on employing descriptive labels (e.g., "praise" or "shouts") derived from the participants' natural interview language and consequently uncontrolled by the researcher. Additionally, post-coordinate categories can be used because these are by definition constructed "at the time of the research" (p. 177) and thus can reduce a researcher's experiential preconceptions and biases about the research issues significantly. For the ultimate purpose of not having an unmanageable number of data categories, however, broad terms related to the labels also may be created. Nevertheless, again for the purpose of attending to the deep representation of the participants' perceptions and of not imposing the researchers' own perceptions and experiences on the findings, labels should be consistently cross-checked with transcript extracts.

Findings that seem important in light of the research questions but cannot be fit into the organizational and/or substantive categories may well be recorded in the indexing system as "Additional data" to be used constructively, if required, for the understanding of each case. To enhance the trustworthiness of the CS and the quality of the project, interview data can be triangulated through the convergence of different perceptions and experiences (Denzin and Lincoln 2005; Stake 2005; Yin 2003) from the main and/or supplementary sources.

6.8   Summary

As a result of the weighty issues posed in the educational literature and research on learner indiscipline, and the current deficiencies in the relevant TEFLYL area, it is imperative for the TEFL research community to embark on systematic investigations about the indiscipline (young) learners of EFL exhibit during lessons. The first vital research component to be addressed is the definition of the main and secondary issues of the educational problem. The basic inquiry topics are stated to be the causes of the problem and the management strategies EFL teachers use. The secondary ones are the indiscipline types, accompanied by a set of determining parameters, and an evaluation of the strategies employed. Concerning study participants, these are purported to be both the EFL teacher and the young EFL learners because they are directly involved in indiscipline events either as actors or as recipients of the acts. Following these, the project should be sufficiently bounded. The qualitative case study is set forth as the most suitable for a small-scale project on routine problems such as child misbehavior in particular EFL classes.

In terms of a methodological tool, deficits in the design of a survey suggest it should be a supplementary one in the study of EFL-classroom misbehavior, provided that it is carefully structured. Deep interviewing is recommended as the main research methodology because of its potential to bring what individuals think and feel to the surface. Researchers should be very careful when preparing for interviews in terms of issues—for example, the selection of interviewees, the nature of questioning, the question types, the interview guides, and the matters of ethical importance. Group interviewing should be given particular prominence in research with children. Practical concerns, such as types of groups, number of group members, and ways to use (audio-)visual materials, should be considered to ensure orderly contributions by children and the safeguarding of status congruence.

Observation is proposed either as a main method to discover the relationship between perceptions and acts or, in the case of restricted research time, as a supplementary one. Readers are advised to conduct nonparticipatory, unobtrusive observations, and are directed to design an efficient

observation system and restrict the dangers of the observer's paradox. Following the basic methodological instruments, two supplementary research tools are recommended. Before analyzing interview data, the use of a suitable transcription code and confirmation of ethical transcription methods are set forth as necessary. A three-phase content analysis is then proposed.

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