THE USE OF THE STUDENT BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

IN DISTINGUISHING BEHAVIORAL PROBLEM STUDENTS FROM

NONBEHAVIORAL PROBLEM STUDENTS

by

Gary Walter Miller

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Educational Administration

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D. J. Parks, Chairman

———————————————   ———————————————
L. G. Leffel   D. E. Hutchins

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T. W. Bonham   P. W. Carlton

Blacksburg, Virginia
December, 1982

This study is dedicated to

the memory of my father

WALTER MILLER, JR.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge and express apprecia-
tion to those individuals whose cooperation, advice and
guidance added greatly to the completion of this study.

Dr. David J. Parks, Associate Professor of Education,
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, my
advisor and chairman of my dissertation committee, for his
guidance, counseling, support, and patience during my period
of graduate study at V.P.I. and S.U.

Dr. Thirwall W. Bonham, Assistant Dean, College of
Business, and Professor of Management, Virginia Polytechnic
Institute and State University for his advice and construc-
tive criticism of my study.

Dr. Patrick Carlton, Associate Professor of Education,
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, for
his advice and support in this investigation.

Dr. Linda G. Leffel, Associate Director for Program
Development, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State
University for her advice and guidance in the preparation
of my study.

Dr. David Hutchins, Associate Professor of Education,
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, for
his advice in the planning of this study.

Dr. James A. DiStefano, Office of Research and Evalu-
ation, Fairfax County Public Schools, for his advice and

guidance in the preparation of the statistical portion of
my study.

The selected intermediate school principals and students
in the Fairfax County Public Schools for their participation
in this study.

To my wife, Laura, and son, Greg, my deepest love and
appreciation for their support and understanding.

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Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM IN PERSPECTIVE

Of major importance to all school systems is the
amount of time that is needed to deal with negative
student behavior. Behavioral problems constitute a
major concern to all educators. In the 1981 Gallup
Poll, lack of discipline again ranked as the number one
problem facing the public schools of the nation. Parents
of children now attending public schools, perhaps the
group best suited to judge the schools, cited discipline
as the number one problem.[1]

Historically, there has always been a discernible
level of violence and vandalism in our public schools.
While no system has ever been totally immune to student
misbehavior, the level of reported incidents was not
considered significant until about seventeen years
ago.[2] Recently, however, the situation has increased
in both intensity and frequency. No longer is student
misbehavior limited to an occasional fistfight or a

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[1]George H. Gallup, "Thirteenth Annual Gallup Poll
of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools,"
Phi Delta Kappan, 63 (September, 1981), 33-47.

[2]U. S. Congress, Senate, Committee on the Judiciary,
Sub-Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, Our Nation's Schools
--A Report Card: "A" In School Violence and Vandalism,
94th Congress, April, 1975 (Washington: Government Print-
ing Office, 1975), p. 3.

general disruption caused by a specific incident. Instead,
schools are experiencing crimes of a serious nature, in-
cluding brutal assaults on teachers and students, rapes,
extortions, burglaries, thefts, and an unprecedented wave
of wanton destruction and vandalism.[3] As stated in a
Senate sub-committee report on juvenile delinquency in
1975,

> Our preliminary study of the situation has
> produced compelling evidence that the level
> of violence and vandalism is reaching crisis
> proportions which seriously threaten the
> ability of our educational system to carry
> out its primary function.[4]

Further evidence is documented by the Sub-committee's
survey of 750 school districts in the three years between
1970 and 1973. During that time,

1. homicides increased by 18.5 percent;

2. rapes and attempted rapes increased by 40.1 per-
   cent;

3. robberies increased by 36.7 percent;

4. assaults on students increased by 85.3
   percent;

5. assaults on teachers increased by 77.4
   percent;

6. burglaries in school buildings increased by
   11.8 percent;

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[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.

7. drug and alcohol offenses on school property

increased by 37.5 percent; and

8. dropouts increased by 11.7 percent.[5]

These figures point out how severe the problem is be-

coming and there does not seem to be any end in sight.

Failure to meet the challenge set by disruptive children

can lead only to a steady sapping of human and institu-

tional resources.[6] The child who cannot or will not

adjust to the socially acceptable norms of behavior dis-

rupts his own academic progress and the learning efforts

of his classmates.[7] Incidents of misbehavior do affect

the quality of education that students are receiving in

their schools. Administrative time, instructional time,

and learning time are sacrificed to deal with these

problems as they occur with increasing regularity.

Wittes' (1970) study of crisis-torn high schools

indicates that students' perceptions of their ability

to influence school policy have important implications

for their desire to achieve academic success. When

students feel they have influence, and when they are in

a peer group that has access to school power, they

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[5]Ibid.

[6]Robert H. Woody, Behavioral Problem Children in the School (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), p. 3.

[7]Ibid., p. 19.

more often believe that they can control their educational fate. Participation in influencing school policy, then, may be meaningful for educational outcomes.[8]

When large numbers of students resent and distrust the control mechanisms employed by educational professionals, the effect is to undermine the collective and legitimate authority of the school. Continued belief by students that those in authority are abusing their prerogatives sooner or later leads to a denial of the legitimacy of that authority. When students no longer believe that school personnel will act on their immediate behalf, or even in their long-run best interest, they are more likely to rely on coercive influence attempts. For students, who have few legitimate channels for the exercise of influence or control over school life, coercion usually means the use of disruptive power. The traditional distrust and powerlessness of students in the educational system thus sets the stage for the unmodulated and disruptive exercise of power.[9]

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[8]S. Wittes, _Power and People: High Schools in Crisis_ (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1970), p. 5.

[9]Mark A. Chesler and John E. Lohman, "Changing Schools Through Student Advocacy," _Organizational Development In Schools_, ed., Richard A. Schmuck and Matthew B. Miles (Palo Alto, California: National Press Books, 1971), p. 181.

Youth is clearly justified in feeling that their power
is a key variable in determining the quality of life in
school. The degree to which influence is shared among the
various parts or levels of institutions affects feelings of
involvement and commitment. When an organizational struc-
ture does not permit student participation in decision mak-
ing, the results may thus be political alienation, rebellion,
and efforts to exert coercive influence or control.[10]

Students of the intermediate school age group, the pop-
ulation of concern in this study, are moving rapidly into
adolescence with its great emphasis on exploring new worlds
of thought, feeling, and social activity. There is a strong
drive to assert themselves, to begin to challenge adult
authority more directly and powerfully, and to shed the
limitations of childhood.

The students in the classroom, insofar as classroom
experiences are constructive, feel secure with themselves
and their teachers as they continue to meet their daily
obligations in a reasonably adequate manner. If they feel
insecure, this is the signal that their activities are not
congruent with the school's goals. When this insecurity
persists, problems occur.[11]

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[10]Ibid., pp. 189-190.

[11]Larkins E. Phillips and Daniel M. Winer, Discipline,
Achievement and Mental Health (Englewood Cliffs, New
Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972), pp. 180-186.

Purpose of the Study

Administrators in school systems throughout the country must spend a large amount of time dealing with discipline problems. Schools deal differently with these problems, both in preventing them and working with them after they occur. A possible solution to minimizing these problems is the identification of potential problem children and the factors having the most influence on behavior that necessitates disciplinary action. If we can identify the problem students and what influences their behavior, possible solutions for their misconduct might be arrived at much more rapidly. A preventive philosophy could be adopted rather than dealing with the problems after they occur.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to assess the effectiveness of Donald Croft's Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) in distinguishing Behavioral Problem Students from Nonbehavioral Problem Students. If the SBDQ is effective in distinguishing the two groups, educators will be one step closer to applying a preventive strategy to student behavior problems.

The Problem

No one reason can explain the discipline problem in our schools today, but negative student behavior and the resultant loss of time used to deal with this behavior, as well as the large amounts of money spent, have been of

major concern to citizens throughout the country. There has been a startling increase in acts of physical violence and vandalism, and, in general, society blames the schools for disciplinary problems.

There can be no denying that schools do have a responsibility to parents and students. Crary stated that:

> Viewing pupil deviance as a consequence or, more accurately, as a facet of adverse pupil-school interaction points us toward rather than away from arrangements and practices of one of the partners in the exchange, the school itself. It defines what is or is not deviant, it sets the conditions under which success is more or less possible for particular types of students, and it contributes to the alleviation--or to the maintenance--of deviance as it responds to the behavior defined as unacceptable.[12]

Some students come to school "damaged" and sometimes the school contributes to this damage. The damaged personality presents a real danger to the school because of four basic misconceptions that such a person brings to the classroom:

1.   a damaged view of human worth and dignity;

2.   an inadequate view of what learning means
     to the particular individual;

3.   a hostile or disparaging view of the school;
     and

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[12]Ryland W. Crary, Humanizing the School (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1969), p. 129.

4) a disregard for and a sense of disaffiliation
from the institutions of society.[13]

The school does have an obligation to help the damaged individual, but it also has an obligation to prevent such students from denying others the right to learn. A stable environment that promotes learning and develops the emotional, physical, and social capacities of each individual is a justifiable goal that all school administrators must support. The examination of student perceptions of school and how these relate to their behavior could help to alleviate or diminish many of the problems we are now encountering in our school systems.

The task of this study was the examination of the relationships between selected environmental constructs measured with the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire and student behavior in school.

The specific relationships listed below were examined.

1) The relationship between Family and Student
   Behavior.

    a) The relationship between Structure
   and Student Behavior.

    b) The relationship between Inclusion
   and Student Behavior.

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[13]James L. Gibson, John M. Ivancevich, and James H. Donnelly, Jr., Organizations: Structure, Process, Behavior (Dallas, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1973), p. 314.

      c) The relationship between <u>Intimacy</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

2) The relationship between <u>Friends</u> and <u>Student</u>
<u>Behavior</u>.

      a) The relationship between <u>Academic</u>
<u>Achievement</u> and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

      b) The relationship between <u>Unacceptance</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

      c) The relationship between <u>Friendship</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

3) The relationship between <u>Teachers</u> and <u>Student</u>
<u>Behavior</u>.

      a) The relationship between <u>Thrust</u> and
<u>Student Behavior</u>.

      b) The relationship between <u>Domination</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

      c) The relationship between <u>Consideration</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

4) The relationship between <u>School</u> and <u>Student Be-</u>
<u>havior</u>.

      a) The relationship between <u>Independence</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

      b) The relationship between <u>Disinterest</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

      c) The relationship between <u>Participation</u>
and <u>Student Behavior</u>.

Definitions

1. Student Behavior - was classified as negative
   or acceptable. Students who exhibit negative
   behavior, or Behavioral Problem Students, were
   students in five suburban intermediate schools
   in Virginia who had been suspended (in-school
   or out-of-school) from regular classes. These
   students had been referred to the assistant
   principal for unacceptable behavior and had
   been placed on suspension. Their names appeared
   on the weekly discipline reports that were sent
   to the area superintendent. Students who ex-
   hibited acceptable behavior, or Nonbehavioral
   Problem Students, are students who had never
   been referred to the assistant principal for
   negative behavior.

2. Family - measures how students describe and feel
   about their families on the following three sub-
   tests of the SBDQ[14] found in Appendix A.

   a. Structure refers to the emphasis parents
      place upon education and their desire for
      the student to achieve in school.

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[14]Donald B. Croft, "The Student Behavior Description
Questionnaire,". Educational Organizational Developmental
Handbook, ed. Eddy J. VanMeter (Manhattan, Kansas: Educa-
tional Administration Development Associates, 1975), p. 16.

b. <u>Inclusion</u> refers to parents participating
   and being included in school related ac-
   tivities.

c. <u>Intimacy</u> refers to the student's enjoyment
   of friendly social relations with parents.

3. <u>Friends</u> - measures how students describe and feel
   about friends on the following three subtests of
   the SBDQ found in Appendix A.

   a. <u>Academic</u> refers to the interest in academic
      achievement of the student's friends and
      their satisfaction in obtaining good grades.

   b. <u>Unacceptance</u> refers to the lack of satisfac-
      tion the student obtains from group identi-
      fication.

   c. <u>Friendship</u> refers to the student's ability
      to enjoy friendly relationships with other
      students.

4. <u>Teachers</u> - measures how students describe and feel
   about teachers on the following three subtests of
   the SBDQ found in Appendix A.

   a. <u>Thrust</u> refers to the behavior of teachers
      to motivate, instruct, and involve students
      in academic activities.

   b. <u>Domination</u> refers to teacher behavior that
      is critical and impersonal.

    c. <u>Consideration</u> refers to behavior by teachers which is characterized as friendly and courteous to students.

5. <u>School</u> - measures how students describe and feel about school on the following three subtests of the SBDQ found in Appendix A.

    a. <u>Independence</u> refers to the student making his or her own decisions.

    b. <u>Disinterest</u> refers to the student's interest in continuing school.

    c. <u>Participation</u> refers to the student's participation in school extra-curricular activities.

The Conceptual Framework for the Study

This study is based on the work of Kurt Lewin who linked human behavior with the environment. According to Lewin,

> To characterize properly the psychological field, one has to take into account such specific items as particular goals, stimuli, needs, social relations as well as more general characteristics of the field as the atmosphere (for instance, the friendly, tense or hostile atmosphere) or the amount of freedom. Psychological atmospheres are empirical realities and are scientifically describable facts.[15]

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[15] Kurt Lewin, <u>Field Theory in Social Science</u> (New York: Harper and Row, 1951), p. 241.

Lewin (1951) developed the idea of field theory, which holds that group behavior is an intricate set of interactions and forces which affect both the group structure and individual behavior. He developed a model which describes the relationship between an individual and his environment. It is:

$$B = f (P \times E).^{16}$$

Lewin's model, in the school setting, proposes that a student's behavior (B) is a function of or is influenced significantly by the personality or personal characteristics (P) of the student as well as the school's environment (E).

In developing the conceptual framework for this study, constructs developed by Croft (1975) were identified as potential influences on student behavior. There are four main environmental constructs and three subtests for each construct. The constructs and subtests appear in Figure 1. Each is defined in the "Definitions" section of this chapter. The theoretical relationships between student behavior and each of the constructs and subtests are examined in the following section.

The Family and Student Behavior

The Family construct includes three basic area. The first pertains to having a friendly social relationship

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[16]Ibid., p. 239.

Environmental Constructs

Family

     A)   Structure

     B)   Inclusion

     C)   Intimacy

Friends

     A)   Academic

     B)   Unacceptance   ⟶   Student Behavior

     C)   Friendship

Teachers

     A)   Thrust

     B)   Domination

     C)   Consideration

School

     A)   Independence

     B)   Disinterest

     C)   Participation

Figure 1

Environmental Constructs Related to Student Behavior

with parents. The second refers to the parents partici-
pating and being included in school activities by the stu-
dent. The third area concerns the emphasis parents place
on the student's education and achievement in school.[17]

The family provides children with their earliest con-
tacts with the society of which they are a part. It is
from the family that the child gains knowledge of the goals,
values, techniques, and ways of behaving that are acceptable
to society. From the way in which students are treated by
their parents and early guardians, they develop expectancies
and concepts of appropriate behavior.[18]

The influence the family has on student behavior is
of great importance. The behavior pattern, however is not
created overnight. This is a process that evolves from in-
fancy to adulthood. In the ideal control situation, parents
are the center of a communication network that is staffed by
authorities, relatives, neighbors, other children, and the
child himself. With all these people communicating to the
parents, the most important still is the child himself. If
parents do not communicate with their children, then they,
the children, do not have to concern themselves with the
imagined reactions to their behavior. This, in turn, frees

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[17]Croft, op. cit., p. 15.

[18]Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Be-
havior (New York: Harper and Row, 1959), p. 140.

the children from an important source of potential control.[19]

Of importance is the parents' overall predispositions along the dimensions of authority and control versus freedom and autonomy. The parent who encourages increasing autonomy as the child grows older, but who still retains an interest in and some responsibility for the adolescent's decisions, is likely to encourage both responsibility and independence.[20] Autocratic or authoritarian parents, on the other hand, will tend to stifle the orderly acquisition of independent responses; while indifferent or completely permissive parents may fail to encourage the development of responsibility.[21] Studies of the backgrounds of persons regarded as over-agressive, antisocial individuals have quite consistently disclosed an early environment characterized by parental rejection, family discord, and lack of parental supervision.[22]

[19]Travis Hirschi, Causes of Delinquency (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1969), p. 108.

[20]G. H. Elder, "Parental Power Legitimation and Its Effect on the Adolescent," Sociometry, 15 (October, 1963), 50-51.

[21]Paul Mussen, Henry Conger, John Janeway, and Jerome Kagan, Child Development and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), p. 627.

[22]P. R. Abramson, "Familial Variables Related to the Expression of Violent Aggression in Preschool Age Children," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 122 (1973), 364.

Further investigation of the parent-child relationship
indicates that the warmth of the relationship between parent
and child is the most significant home factor affecting the
child.[23] Parental acceptance of the child usually shows the
child being good-natured, considerate, cheerful, cooperative,
and emotionally stable.[24]

In a study of the home backgrounds and family influ-
ence on delinquents and nondelinquents, Glueck and Glueck
reported that the nondelinquents were better handled by
their parents than the delinquents. The delinquents'
parents were less affectionate, more indifferent and hostile
toward them, and showed less warmth, sympathy, and affection.
In brief, the delinquent boys, far more than the nondelin-
quents, grew up in a family atmosphere not conducive to the
development of emotionally well-integrated, happy young-
sters, conditioned to obedience to legitimate authority.[25]

Parents are often indirectly blamed for the major
problems facing public schools (i.e., lack of discipline

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[23]J. C. Avery, "The Battered Child: A Shocking Prob-
lem," Mental Hygiene, 57 (1973), pp. 40-41; see also W.
McCord and A. Howard, "Familial Correlates of Agression in
Non-Delinquent Male Children," Journal of Abnormal and
Social Psychology, 62 (1961), 80.

[24]R. R. Sears, E. E. McCoby, and H. Levin, Patterns of
Child Rearing (Evanston, Illinois: Row and Peterson, 1957),
p. 29.

[25]Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile
Delinquency (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1950), p. 125.

and the use of drugs. George Gallup recently commented
that:

> A careful examination of survey findings for
> the past 10-year period leads to these con-
> clusions: Many of the problems of the schools
> can be solved only if parents become more
> involved than they presently are in the edu-
> cational process. Parents must, in fact, be
> regarded as part of the teaching team. A
> joint effort by parents and teachers is essen-
> tial to deal more successfully with problems
> of discipline, motivation, and the development
> of good work habits at home and in school.[26]

Problems occur, however, when parents are told, and

some educators believe, that once children are in school

their education is best left to teachers and that citizens

who demand a voice in educational policy-making create

needless conflict that disrupts the learning environment.[27]

Parent involvement can mean many different things. It

may be attending PTA meetings, open houses and other school

related activities. It may refer also, however, to parti-

cipating in the governance of schools on advisory and policy-

making committees. While many parents feel uncomfortable

when they come to school, growing numbers of parents are

concerned about schools and want to help.[28]

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[26]Gallup, pp. 34-47.

[27]Ann Henderson, "Parent Participation-Student Achieve-
ment: The Evidence Grows." Occasional Paper (Columbia,
Maryland: National Committee for Citizens in Education,
1981), p. 1.

[28]Ibid.

There appears to be a positive relationship between parental involvement and the child's educational aspirations and attainments.[29] For example, adolescents' educational goals are more highly related to their parents' educational goals for them than with peers' expectations of their educational futures.[30] Furthermore, parental educational interest and encouragement has a significant effect on the offsprings' educational attainment.[31] In some families it may be communicated through educational expectations to their neighbors, relatives, and friends. For other families, financial decisions may be the focal point of parents' educational encouragement.[32] However this interest and encouragement are transmitted, there appears to be a positive association between parental assumption of continuing education and the offsprings'

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[29]Mary E. Conklin and Ann Ricks Dailey, "Does Consistency of Parental Educational Encouragement Matter for Secondary School Students?" Sociology of Education, 54 (1981), 254.

[30]Denise B. Kandel and Gerald S. Lesser, "Parental and Peer Influences on Educational Plans of Adolescents," American Sociological Review, 34 (1969), 215.

[31]Karl L. Alexander, Bruce C. Eckland, and Larry J. Griffin, "The Wisconsin Model of Socioeconomic Achievement: A Replication," American Journal of Scoiology, 81 (1975), 238.

[32]Conklin and Dailey, op. cit., p. 254.

actual continuation of educational activities.[33]

Friends and Student Behavior

The second construct, Friends deals with the student's ability to enjoy friendly relationships with other students and obtain satisfaction from group membership. In addition, this variable considers the importance of the academic achievement of the student's friends.[34]

It is normal for youngsters to have friends who, in turn, influence their behavior. This occurs, many times, over the objections of parents and school personnel. This is a part of growing up and a step toward the inevitable break of family ties and more independent actions.[35]

As the process of breaking (or restructuring) the intermediate school child's ties to the family develops, the child desperately needs the support, approval and security, as well as the norms, of a peer group. This child is discovering and trying to interpret and control a changing body with its new and frightening impulses, and thus requires the example of peers. As this identity crystallizes, the child needs others of the same generation

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[33]Ibid., p. 261.

[34]Croft, loc. cit.

[35]Howard James, Children in Trouble: A National Scandal (New York: David McKay Company, Inc. 1964), p. 215.

to act as models, mirrors, helpers, testers, and foils.[36]

The influence of students' friends on their behavior can readily be seen in our public schools. There is a very strong tendency for students to have friends whose activities are congruent with their own attitudes.[37] Indeed, a significant number of delinquent acts are committed with companions[38] and most delinquents have delinquent friends.[39]

Research into the problem of delinquency has given rise to many theories and explanations for why children act in an unacceptable manner. However, one of the most significant relationships supported is that, in looking at the relationships of delinquent individuals, there is a high incidence of these delinquents having companions who are involved in delinquent acts. This companionship is unquestionably the most telling force in delinquency and crime.[40]

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[36]R. Flack, "The Liberated Generation: An Exploration of the Roots of Student Protest," Journal of Social Issues, 22 (1967), 53.

[37]Walter G. Reckless, The Crime Problem (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967), p. 77.

[38]Ibid., p. 403.

[39]Glueck and Glueck, loc. cit.

[40]Reckless, loc. cit.

Adolescents use various means to maintain their sub-
culture and to exclude adults from it. Thus, when adoles-
cents succeed in confusing adults, they are likely to feel
that they have actually succeeded in developing a world of
their own.[41] This world can be seen to follow established
principles of social groups. These principles[42] give a
partial explanation for the reasons students band together
and, in turn, have such influence over each other. First,
individuals tend to seek adequacy through identification
with people seeking need satisfaction in ways similar to
their own. Students are drawn together at school who have
the same interests and, in most cases, the same behavior
pattern. They gain not only approval from the other group
members but moral support as well, even when going against
established school discipline regulations. This creates
problems in school when the child's behavior is acceptable
to the group but not to school officials. Second, persons
banding together find the group's purposes most effectively
advanced by the development of a group organization. This
allows for a "pecking order" to develop and leaders to

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[41]Karl G. Garrison and Robert A. Magoon, Educational
Psychology: An Integration of Psychology and Educational
Practices (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1972),
p. 467.

[42]Combs and Snygg, loc. cit.

evolve in the group who might go unnoticed except for this relationship in the group. Third, people tend to withdraw from groups whose approval they are unable to win or which no longer satisfy individual needs. The fourth and final principle deals with the individual being identified as a member of the group and then adopting and defending the standards and behavior of that group. Criticism of the group or member of the group by any outsider can bring about hostile reactions. An example of this type of behavior would be a school administrator trying to discipline a student and running into problems with members of that student's peer group even though they are not directly involved.

The influence of the peer group on student achievement and educational and occupational aspirations has interested educators, social psychologists, and sociologists for many years. Early studies were primarily concerned with the identification of the peer group as a powerful factor in the child's development.[43]

Following World War II, however, there was a shift in the direction in peer group studies. The interest was in the peer group as a socializing agent as well as its effect on achievement and aspirations. For example, it was

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[43]Judith K. Ide, "Peer Group Influence on Educational Outcomes: A Quantitative Synthesis," Journal of Educational Psychology, 73 (1981), 472.

concluded that peers tend to replace parents as interpreters

and enforcers of a moral code.[44] Later studies acknow-

ledged the importance of the influence of the peer group

in determining levels of achievement, showing that the peer

group was indeed a primary factor in influencing school

achievement. Picou and Carter (1976) in a national samp-

ling of high school seniors, showed that students' educa-

tional aspirations were closely related to those of their

friends.[45] Also, Cohen (1976), taking data from a white

working class suburban school of 1,040 students, found

that peers positively influence each other's college plans.[46]

Teachers and Student Behavior

The third construct, Teachers, deals with the stu-

dent's attitude toward teachers and includes three areas.

The first area concerns the student's perceptions of how

considerate the teacher is of each student's feelings while

trying to get along with each student in a pleasant and

cheerful manner. The second area refers to the teacher

being able to motivate, instruct, and obtain student par-

ticipation in academic activity. The final area refers to

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[44]D. P. Ausubel, Theory and Problems of Child Development (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1958), p. 393.

[45]J. S. Picou and M. T. Carter, "Significant-Other Influence and Aspiration," Sociology of Education, 49 (1976), 22.

[46]J. Cohen, "The Impact of the Leading Crowd on High School Change: A Reassessment," Adolescence, 11 (1976), 381.

how authoritarian and impersonally the teacher behaves in

discussing class material.[47]

Because of the nature of schooling, the teacher is

cast as the leader of the group. This leadership can take

different forms. The teacher-learner relationship is the

important variable in any learning situation.[48] Flanders

stated that in dealing with delinquent children "...teacher

behavior is a dominant factor in determining the attitudes

of these students."[49] In addition, the results of a study

in Brooklyn, New York, showed that a child's achievement

depended largely upon the teacher's personality and the

interaction of that personality with the personality of

the child being taught.[50] In working with students in the

school as a social system, Getzels and Thelan identified

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[47]Croft, loc. cit.

[48]Garrison and Magoon, op. cit., p. 460.

[49]Ned A. Flanders, Helping Teachers Change Their Be-
havior, Terminal Report, National Defense Act, Title VII
Project, 1963; p. 5; see also, Ned A. Flanders, Teacher
Influence: Pupil Attitudes and Achievement, U. S. Office
of Education, Cooperative Research Monograph No. 12, 1965.

[50]Louis M. Heilm, Marion Powell, and Irwin Ferfer,
Characteristics of Teacher Behavior and Competency Related
to Achievement of Different Kinds of Children in Several
Elementary Grades, Cooperative Research Project, U. S. De-
partment of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Edu-
cation, 1960, pp. 447-448.

three teaching styles that may affect student behavior.[51]

1. The _nomothetic_ style. This approach stresses the requirements of the situation, the role and the expectations rather than the requirements of the individual, the personality and the need-dispositions. Teachers with this style are perceived by students as authoritarian and impersonal. These teachers are task oriented and demonstrate little personal warmth. Student control is based on institutional rules which have a predetermined set of consequences for violations. These teachers are perceived as strict disciplinarians who appear to care little for the personal lives of their students.

2. The _idiographic_ style. This style emphasizes the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need-dispositions. These teachers are perceived as considerate of students' feelings and try to get along with each student in a pleasant and cheerful manner. This type of teacher is usually popular among students. They are perceived as caring about the individual students in their classes, sometimes to the exclusion of the expected academic requirements. Rules are more informal and the classroom

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[51]J. W. Getzels and H. A. Thelan, "The Classroom as a Unique Social System," The Dynamics of Instructional Groups, Fifty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1960, p. 67.

climate is more relaxed. Students feel more comfortable

talking to the teacher about personal problems.

3. The transactional style. This orientation is in-

termediate and aims to achieve both individual integration

and institutional adjustment. These teachers use a variety

of styles in order to motivate and obtain student partici-

pation in school work. They can be strict disciplinarians

if the situation calls for it, or they can be kindhearted

and warm. These teachers are flexible in using teaching

strategies and dealing with various student behaviors.

The processes in the school that show this adjustment be-

tween roles and personalities are seen as dynamic trans-

actions of a continuing nature.[52]

The teacher's personal qualities and attitudes toward

pupils, mastery of the subject matter, and management of

classroom routines set the pace for class progress. Re-

search continues to show the high causal relationship

between teacher behavior, teacher expectations, and student

achievement.[53] Examples of teacher directed instructional

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[52]Brother Gordon R. Bellow, "The Relationship of
Organizational Climate to Student Social Behavior"
(unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Catholic Univer-
sity of America, 1971), pp. 21-22.

[53]Rhona Strasberg Weinstein and Susan E. Middlestradt,
"Student Perceptions of Teacher Interactions with Male High
and Low Achievers," The Journal of Educational Research,
74 (August, 1981), 421.

behaviors being responsible for maximizing student task involvement have been periodically noted.   These behaviors would include structuring teaching activities, maintaining a controlled classroom environment, and following responses to questions with immediate corrective feedback.[54]

Adolescents often behave without being aware of the forces prompting their behavior. Teacher behavior reinforced over countless class periods may influence much of this inner conflict which is attributable to the development of these unconscious attitudes. A child's attitude may be a manifestation of the presence of unfavorable personality difficulties or situational conditions.[55] These personality difficulties or situational conditions, in some cases, are caused by the relationship the teacher has, as the child perceives it, in dealing with the child.

The basic causes of the arousal and, perhaps, habituation of socially unacceptable attitudes, emotional tensions, and non-conforming behavior usually are associated with physiological, personal, or social status, or with elements

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[54]Janet Rose and Frederic J. Medway, "Teacher Locus of Control, Teacher Behavior, and Student Behavior as Determinants of Student Achievement," Journal of Educational Psychology, 71 (August 1979), 376.

[55]Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow, Human Development and Learning (New York: American Book Company, 1965), p. 183.

of the situation in which the behavior difficulties are
evidenced. The physical state of the children, how they
get along with each other, and their perceptions of them-
selves, in that particular class, at that particular time
all influence how they will accept the teacher. These
factors, coupled with all the perceptions the students
have of the teacher's attitudes and behavior, can rein-
force negative attitudes and behavior.

School and Student Behavior

The fourth and final construct, School, consists of
the student's perceptions of participation in school ac-
tivities, continuing to get an education, and learning to
make independent educational decisions. Also included is
the student's interest in furthering his career through
vocational activities.[56]

Students have problems in school. Due to the large
amount of each day being spent in school, the school has
become a focal point for the expression of their discon-
tent. These school-related concerns of adolescents sug-
gest a relationship between these problems and the lack
of success in scholastic achievement, failure to partici-
pate in school activities, and lack of opportunities for
independent decision making.[57]

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[56]Croft, loc. cit.

[57]Jane H. Applegate, "Perceived Problems of Secondary
School Students," The Journal of Educational Research, 75
(October, 1981), 49.

These perceptions suggest that students view their school life as restrictive. Inferred is that students have a lack of free time and that the structure of school life also appears confining. Students feel that if they had more freedom of choice, more opportunities to make decisions and explore interests of their own, like career opportunities, then school would seem less restrictive and less problematic.[58]

The school is the major public socializing institution for youth, but evidence indicates that the incongruence between the individuals and the institution shows a failure to adequately socialize many youngsters. This failure, in many cases, is due in part to the inadequate curriculum, insufficient extracurricular activities, or inappropriate school environment.[59] When problems get to be too much at school and when the students' needs are not met, some drop out while others resort to vagrancy, vandalism, or stealing. The history of delinquency points to an association between the lack of school success and antisocial behavior.[60]

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[58]Ibid., p. 54

[59]Roger Woodbury and Charles M. Achilles, "Schools and Delinquency: Where Are We Going Now?" NASSP Bulletin, 30 (January, 1975), 31.

[60]Ibid.

Parsons' theory of social action emphasized the usefulness of seeing human behavior in terms of the need-dispositions of the individual:

> Need-dispositions...are tendencies to orient
> and act with respect to objects in certain
> manners and to expect certain consequences
> from these actions. The cojointed word need-
> disposition itself has a double connotation;
> on the one hand it refers to a tendency to
> fulfill some requirement of the organism, a
> tendency to accomplish some end state; on the
> other hand, it refers to a disposition to do
> something with an object designed to accom-
> plish this end state.[61]

The need-dispositions, as Parson has named them, are expectations that develop through the sociological relationship among the school, family, and community. In this context, the school as an environment cannot be considered separate from the forces that impinge upon it, namely, the home and community environment.[62]

As the relationships between the school and home are examined, we see that behavior is learned as the individual tends to be socialized to respond to the dominant group norms and behavior patterns. Hence, we see that while the school has a certain set of values and expectations, these

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[61]Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, "Personality As a System of Action," in Toward a General Theory of Action (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951), pp. 114-115.

[62]Samuel Brodbelt, "Effective Discipline: A Consideration for Improving Inner-City Schools," The Clearing House, September, 1980, p. 5.

might not be the dominant forces in shaping the individual's
behavior. The individual family values may differ signifi-
cantly from school standards. Often in contrast the school
will reflect a fairly universal set of middle-class values
which often conflict with values of the home. Hence, stu-
dents may meet adults in the school environment with a
different set of norms, expectations, and values. The
middle-class academic school environment in many ways con-
flicts with the day to day survival and individual short-
term goals of the students. This leads to inadequacy,
frustration, and hostility. Thus, pupils come to school
unprepared for, if not rejectant of, the academic emphasis
and hard work which the school environment requires them
to learn.[63]

Using the works of early writers, Getzels and his
associates were able to develop a framework for con-
ceiving an organization as a hierarchy of superordinate-
subordinate relationships in a social system.[64] Within
the social system, there are certain institutionalized
functions to be discharged; these functions are the goals
or end toward which behavior within the organization is

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[63]Ibid., p. 6.

[64]J. W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process,"
Administrative Theory in Education, ed. Andrew W. Halpin
(Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of
Chicago, 1958), pp. 150-165.

directed. In the case of the school, its goal is to pro-

duce educated students for the more comprehensive social

system of which it is a part. In studying these objectives

and relationships, it is important to note that the con-

cept of a social system may be applied at any level of

organizational analysis.[65]

Getzels and Guba have stated:

> ...within this framework, for one purpose a
> given community may be considered a social
> system, with the school a particular organi-
> zation within the more general social system;
> for another purpose the school itself, or
> even a single class within the school, may
> be considered a social system in its own
> right. The theoretical model that we are
> proposing is applicable regardless of the
> level or size of the unit under considera-
> tion.[66]

For the purpose of this study, the level of organizational

analysis is the school itself, with student social behavior

the particular focus of the investigation.

Getzel's social system theory was composed of two

primary dimensions: the nomothetic which consists of

institution, role and expectation; and the idiographic

which consists of the individual, their personality and

the need-dispositions.[67] In the school setting, the

school is the institution where there are positions (roles)

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[65]Bellow, loc. cit.

[66]J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and
the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter,
1957), 424.

[67]Getzels and Thelen, op. cit., p. 69.

for the principal, teacher, and pupil. There are, in
addition, role expectations for each person who occupies
a given role. These various roles and their incumbent
expectations constitute the nomothetic dimension of ac-
tivity within the school. The people who fill these
roles have their own distinct personalities and life
styles. The need patterns represented as the idiographic
dimension may not necessarily be associated with the goals
of the school. In summary, the relationships between the
nomothetic and idiographic dimensions are graphically rep-
resented in Figure 2.

The unsuccessful learner, bored by learning activi-
ties, may be driven by the need for activity to do things
that will give immediate satisfaction, even though the
behavior receives teacher or class disapproval. In fact,
it may be more satisfying to earn disapproval than to be
ignored. The tearing up of paper, the throwing of a black-
board eraser against the wall, the carving of initials on
the desk, or any other form of destructive behavior may
earn the attention craved.[68]

The relationship between dislike for school and de-
linquency is not completely known, but, in general, it may
be said that dislike for school is usually seen as a source

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[68]Crow and Crow, op. cit., p. 187.

Nomothetic Dimension

Institution————▶Role————▶Expectations

Social
System

Social
Behavior

Individual————▶Personality—▶Need-Dispositions

Idiographic Dimension
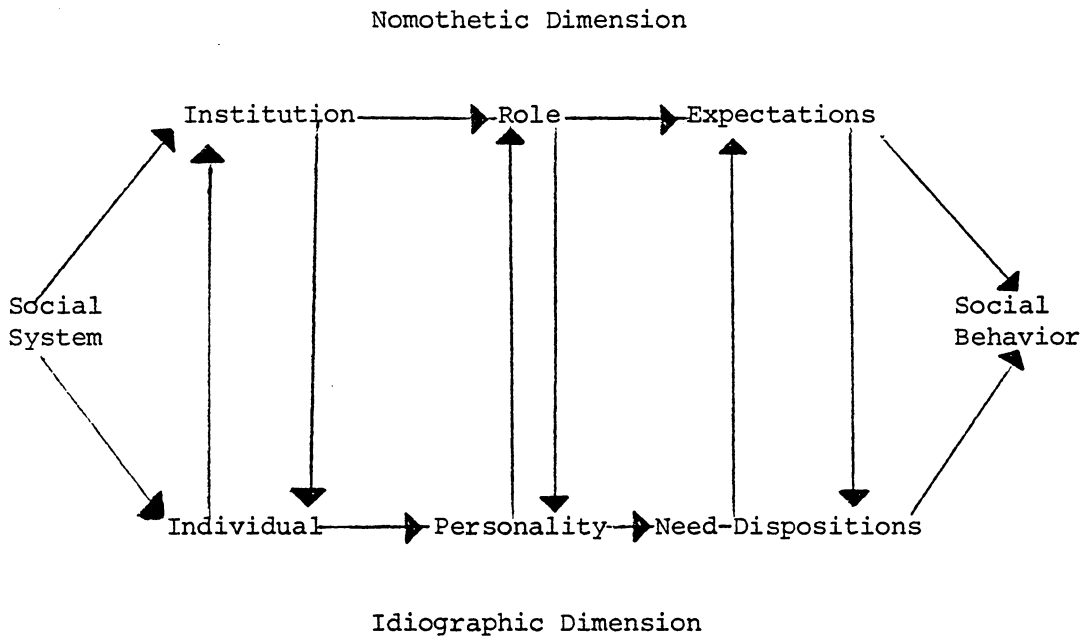
Figure 2. The Two Dimensions
of the Original Getzels-
Guba Social Process Model[69]

[69]Getzels and Thelen, loc. cit.

of motivation to delinquency. Delinquency is a means of relieving frustration generated by unpleasant school experience.[70]

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present pertinent information having a direct bearing on the problem. The problem being investigated concerns the relationship between the environmental constructs (family, friends, teachers, and school) and student behavior in school. Specifically, would students with a record of negative behavior score significantly different on each of the four environmental constructs from students without a record of negative behavior?

The conceptual framework for this study was based on Kurt Lewin's field theory, which holds that group behavior is a set of interactions and forces which affect both group structure and individual behavior.

Four constructs and their subtests were presented with the pertinent research findings relating each construct to student behavior. The literature related to Family and student behavior indicated that the family was of great importance in influencing student behavior. Research showed

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[70]Albert Cohen, Delinquent Boys (New York: The Free Press, 1955), pp. 112-119, cited by Travis Hirschi, Causes of Delinquency (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1969), p. 122.

that children coming from homes with warm parental relation-
ships were more considerate, cooperative, and emotionally
stable, than students from less emotionally supportive
families. In addition, there was a positive relationship
between parental involvement and the child's educational
achievement.

The literature related to the relationship of the
construct Friends and student behavior showed the impor-
tance of the peer group as a primary factor in influencing
school achievement. Also, sampling of students throughout
the country showed that students' educational aspirations
were closely related to their friends, as in the case of
planning to attend college.

The literature related to the construct Teachers
and student behavior indicated there were different teach-
ing styles which, in turn, could affect behavior in the
classroom. Research showed a high causal relationship be-
tween teacher behavior and expectations, and student
achievement.

The relationship between the construct School and
student behavior suggest the presence of perceived con-
flicts between students and the school environment. The
students feel restricted and lacking in freedom to choose
curriculum or explore interests of their own. These per-
ceptions indicate a basic conflict between the school as
an organization responsible for the socialization of

youngsters and the students themselves who perceive their needs as different from those of the institution.

In the remaining three chapters, hypotheses, methodology, analyses, results, discussion and needed research are presented.

Chapter 2

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter contains the hypotheses and descriptions
of the population and sample, the instrument, the data col-
lection procedures, the preparation of data for analysis, and
the analysis of data.

Hypotheses

Since the early identification of individuals who
are likely to show negative behavior is of great importance,
this study is directed toward that end. The twelve hypoth-
eses are stated in the null form and examine the differences
in perception of behavioral problem and nonbehavioral prob-
lem students on the twelve subtests of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_1

There is no significant difference between Be-
havioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem
Students on the subtest Structure of the Student
Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_2

There is no significant difference between Be-
havioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem

<u>Students</u> on the subtest <u>Inclusion</u> of the

Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_3

There is no significant difference between <u>Behavioral</u>

<u>Problem Students</u> and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u>

on the subtest <u>Intimacy</u> of the Student Behavior De-

scription Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_4

There is no significant difference between <u>Behavioral</u>

<u>Problem Students</u> and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u>

on the subtest <u>Academic</u> of the Student Behavior De-

scription Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_5

There is no significant difference between <u>Behavioral</u>

<u>Problem Students</u> and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u>

on the subtest <u>Unacceptance</u> of the Student Behavior

Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_6

There is no significant difference between <u>Behavioral</u>

<u>Problem Students</u> and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u>

on the subtest <u>Friendship</u> of the Student Behavior

Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_7

There is no significant difference between <u>Behavioral</u>

<u>Problem Students</u> and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u>

on the subtest Thrust of the Student Behavior De-

scription Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_8

There is no significant difference between Behavioral

Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students

on the subtest Domination of the Student Behavior De-

scription Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_9

There is no significant difference between Behavioral

Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students

on the subtest Consideration of the Student Behavior

Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_{10}

There is no significant difference between Behavioral

Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students

on the subtest Independence of the Student Behavior

Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_{11}

There is no significant difference between Behavioral

Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students

on the subtest Disinterest of the Student Behavior

Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

H_{12}

There is no significant difference between Behavioral

Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students
on the subtest Participation of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of all seventh
and eighth grade students enrolled in five intermediate
schools (Table 1) in a large suburban school system in
Virginia. The school programs in the five schools were as
close as county policies and regulations could make them in
regard to how the schools are run, courses offered, and
teachers hired. All students in special programs for the
learning disabled, gifted and talented, and academically
unsuccessful were included.

The sample selected from the population consisted of
two groups from each school. The first group was composed
of students who had been referred on the weekly discipline
report to the area superintendent for having demonstrated
negative behavior. The second group was selected from all
other students who had not had discipline problems.

The personnel in each school in charge of distributing
the questionnaire were instructed to use March 31, 1980, as
the deadline for identifying behavioral problem students.
These students (202) were identified as all students having
demonstrated negative behavior on one or more occasions

Table 1

Summary of Population and Sample by School

School	Total Enrollment	Behavioral Problem Students				Nonbehavioral Problem Students			
		Total	Number Sampled	Number Reporting	% Reporting	Total	Number Sampled	Number Reporting	% Reporting
1	1100	50	50	2	4	1050	2	2	100
2	650	40	40	35	88	610	40	35	88
3	577	30	30	12	40	547	12	12	100
4	927	47	47	7	15	880	7	7	100
5	600	35	35	11	31	565	14	11	79
Total	3854	202	202	67	33	3652	75	67	89

since the beginning of the school year. The small number

(67) of behavioral problem students completing the ques-

tionnaire was the result of the failure to receive paren-

tal permission to take part in the study.

An equal number of nonbehavioral problem boys and

girls was selected from a computer printout list of all

students not suspended during the school year in each of

the participating schools. This printout listed all boys

first, followed by all girls.

The selection procedure started with the identifica-

tion of the first name on the list with a corresponding

number that matched the day of the month the sample was

drawn; e.g., April thirteenth would mean starting with the

thirteenth name on the list. Once the first name was chosen,

the population of nonbehavioral problem children was divided

by the number of students needed; e.g., population 200 was

divided by the 50 cases needed equals every fourth name.

This process was used for both the girls and boys. Stu-

dents continued to be selected from each group until there

were the same number of boys and girls in the behavioral

problem and nonbehavioral problem groups. Once these stu-

dents were identified they were called together as a group

and given the questionnaire to complete.

Instrument

The Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ)

(Appendix A) was used for collecting data for this study.

The SBDQ was designed by Donald B. Croft and is used to
record a measure of four sources of student social be-
havior: family, friends, teachers, and attitudes toward
school. The SBDQ was standardized with a sample of 1590
students from low and middle income families. These stu-
dents represented a wide variety of academic, social, and
economic backgrounds.

Reliability

Average reliability coefficients for the SBDQ sub-
tests were computed from six samples of students by Croft
for each of the twelve subtests (Table 2). These samples
included both high school boys and girls from a range of
different academic, social and economic backgrounds. Using
a formula devised by Cronbach,[71] the average reliability
of subtests was .70.

An examination of the reliability coefficients in
Table 2 shows that the majority of the reliabilities were
above .70. The subtests Unacceptance, Structure, and In-
dependence obtained reliability coefficients of .57, .53,
and .58 respectively. While three subtests appear to be
the weakest subtests in the SBDQ, reliability is a rela-
tive thing and there are certain areas and certain techniques
where reliability coefficients fall well below .90, and

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[71]Lee J. Cronbach, "Coefficient Alpha and the Internal
Structure of Tests," Psychometrika, 16 (1951), pp. 297-334.

Table 2

Average Reliability Coefficients for
Each SBDQ Subtest[72]

Subtest	Reliability
Friendship	.80
Unacceptance	.57
Academic	.77
Consideration	.71
Thrust	.73
Domination	.72
Intimacy	.81
Inclusion	.68
Structure	.53
Interest	.69
Participation	.81
Independence	.58

[72]Donald Croft, "Operationally Defined Construsts to Describe Student Social Behavior" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, The University of New Mexico, 1968), p. 76.

the techniques are still used and found to be very useful.[73]

Validity

There is very little evidence in the literature on the construct validity of the SBDQ as conceived by Cronbach; namely, that a measure is valid to the extent that it demonstrates relationships with other measures which can be predicted in accordance with theory.[74]

However, as Kerlinger pointed out, factor analysis is an approach to achieve construct validity; in fact, he considers factor analysis "...the most important of construct validity tools."[75] In operationally defining the constructs of the SBDQ Croft used factor analysis to select subtest items. The criterion was a factor loading of above .40.[76] In addition, he performed a content analysis of the items that attained the criterion to determine if the items appeared to measure the subtests of the constructs of Family, Friends, Teachers, and School. Successive administrations of the SBDQ to seven independent samples of students revealed

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[73]N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 247.

[74]Lee J. Cronbach, Essentials of Psychological Testing (New York: Harper and Row, 1960), p. 121.

[75]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1964), p. 454.

[76]Croft, loc. cit.

that the factor patterns of the inventory were highly stable across the separate samples.

Predictive Validity of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire

In addition to construct validity, the predictive validity of the SBDQ is of importance to this study. Examination of previous studies and correspondence with the author of the SBDQ indicated that the predictive validity of the SBDQ had not been tested prior to this study. The predictive value of the SBDQ was tested as a part of the study and the results are discussed in Chapter 4.

Data Collection Procedures

During the summer of 1979, the principals of five intermediate schools were asked for permission for their students to participate in the survey (See Appendix B). All five principals consented to participate in the project and were sent the information necessary for administering the questionnaire, including the letter to go home to the parents for approval for the students to take part in the survey (See Appendix C).

All students in each school who had been placed on in- or out-of-school suspension were asked to fill out the SBDQ questionnaire. The supervision of insuring that the questionnaires were filled out properly was assumed by the

assistant principal or guidance counselors in the school.
Students' names were collected from the beginning of the
school year until the end of March, at which time the col-
lection procedure was stopped. At the beginning of May
these students were given the SBDQ questionnaire to fill
out.

The second group of students chosen at each school,
those who did not have a record of negative behavior, also
filled out the questionnaire in the beginning of May under
the supervision of the assistant principal or guidance
counselors in the school. Their selection was made ran-
domly from a computer generated list of all the names of
the students that did not have a record of negative be-
havior. All questionnaires were collected from the schools
by the author, checked for completeness, and prepared
for mailing to the Educational Research Center at New Mexico
State University in Las Cruces, New Mexico, for scoring.

Scoring the Instrument

The SBDQ was scored at the Computer Center at New
Mexico State University in Las Cruces, New Mexico. A
Fortran IV scoring program, designed by Croft, was used to
score the instrument. The SBDQ scoring program computed
the standardized subtest scores of each student; a score on
Achievement, Affiliation, and Inclusion for each student;

and the school mean for each of the constructs measured by the SBDQ.

Analysis of Data

The data for research hypotheses H_1 - H_{12} were analyzed by means of a t-test for the differences between means and stepwise discriminant analysis. The .05 level of significance was accepted for the testing of the hypotheses. This was because of the relative lack of research with this instrument in the area of identifying significant differences in student perceptions on factors that influence behavior. The BMDP7M stepwise discriminant analysis program was used to determine which of the twelve SBDQ subtests best distinguished behavioral problem students from nonbehavioral problem students. Once the discriminant function was derived, a check of its adequacy in distinguishing the two groups was performed by predicting the classification of each participating student.

Summary

The hypotheses were developed to test for significant differences in student responses on the identified constructs. The population for the study was five intermediate schools in a suburban school system in Virginia. The sample selected consisted of two groups from each school, both behavioral and nonbehavioral problem students. The

behavioral problem students selected were all students (202) who had been referred to the area superintendent on the weekly discipline report. The nonbehavioral problem students were randomly selected from a computer printout list of all students not suspended during the school year in each of the participating schools.

The reliability coefficients for the SBDQ subtests were computed by Croft for each of the twelve subtests. The average reliability of the subtests was .70 with the subtests Unacceptance, Structure, and Independence obtaining the weakest reliability coefficients of .57, .53, and .58 respectively.

The construct validity was tested by Croft by using factor analysis to select subtest items. In addition, content analysis of the items was used to determine if the item appeared to measure the subtests of the constructs. Successive administrations of the SBDQ showed the factor patterns of the questionnaire highly stable across the separate samples.

The collection of data was accomplished with all students who had been placed on in- or out-of-school suspension being asked to fill out the SBDQ questionnaire. Following obtaining parental permission, the students were given the instrument to fill out. The other group of nonbehavioral problem students was randomly selected, and

following obtaining parental permission, was given the questionnaire to complete.

Scoring of the instrument took place at the New Mexico State University and included the standardized sub-test scores for each student and the school mean for each of the constructs measured by the SBDQ.

The analysis of the data was accomplished by means of t-tests for the differences between means and stepwise discriminant analysis. The predictive value of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) was evaluated with the use of stepwise discriminant analysis.

Chapter 3

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS

The findings of the study are reported in this chapter
in two major sections. The first section is a presentation
of the data related to each of the hypotheses. The second
section contains an analysis of the findings and a summary
of the chapter.

Presentation of the Findings

The presentation of findings is divided into two parts.
In the first part, a $\underline{t}$-test of the significance of the dif-
ference between two means was the statistical procedure
used to test hypotheses H_1 - H_{12}. A decision to accept or
to reject the null hypotheses was made at the .05 level of
significance. The tabled $\underline{t}$ for 132 degrees of freedom at
the .05 level of significance was 1.96. The obtained $\underline{t}$
was accepted or rejected at this level. The second part
presents the results of the stepwise discriminant analysis
which tested how well the SBDQ subtests could predict group
membership (Behavioral Problem vs. Nonbehavioral Problem.)

Mean Differences Between Behavioral Problem and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the SBDQ Dimensions

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference
between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem

53

Students on the subtest Structure of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 3 contains the data comparing the means of be-
havioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students
on the subtest Structure. The obtained t was 1.92; con-
sequently, the null hypothesis was not rejected. There was
insufficient evidence to indicate that behavioral problem
students have significantly different scores from nonbehav-
ioral problem students on the subtest Structure.
Null Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference
between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral
Problem Students on the subtest Inclusion of the Student
Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 4 contains the data comparing the means of be-
havioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem stu-
dents on the subtest Inclusion. The obtained t was -.22;
consequently, the null hypothesis was not rejected. There
was insufficient evidence to indicate that behavioral prob-
lem students have significantly different scores from non-
behavioral problem students on the subtest Inclusion.
Null Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference be-
tween Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem
Students on the subtest Intimacy of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 5 contains the data comparing the means of

Table 3

Mean Difference Between <u>Behavioral Problem Students</u>
and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u> on the
<u>Subtest Structure</u>

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	<u>t</u>
Behavioral Problem	67	57.2	2.95		
				3.5	1.92
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	53.7	1.92		

Table 4

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Inclusion

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	54.9	3.42	-.4	-.22
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	55.3	6.23		

Table 5

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Intimacy

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	50.4	6.50	-4.4	-2.68**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	54.8	4.24		

**Significant at the .01 level

behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Intimacy. The obtained t was -2.68. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem students have significantly lower scores than nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Intimacy.

Null Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the subtest Academic of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 6 contains the data comparing the means of behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Academic. The obtained t was -6.18. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem students have significantly lower scores than nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Academic.

Null Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the subtest Unacceptance of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 7 contains the data comparing the means of behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Unacceptance. The obtained t was 2.27. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem students have significantly higher scores than nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Unacceptance.

Table 6

Mean Difference Between <u>Behavioral Problem Students</u>
and <u>Nonbehavioral Problem Students</u> on the
Subtest <u>Academic</u>

Group	N	Mean	Deviation	Difference	<u>t</u>
Behavioral Problem	67	44.6	8.67	-10.5	-6.18**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	55.1	5.31		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 7

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Unacceptance

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	53.1	4.80	3.5	2.27*
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	49.6	2.77		

*Significant at the .05 level

Null Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference be-
tween Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem
Students on the subtest Friendship of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 8 contains the data comparing the means of be-
havioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students
on the construct Friendship. The obtained t was -.30; con-
sequently, the null hypothesis was not rejected. There was
insufficient evidence to indicate that behavioral problem
students have significantly different scores from non-
behavioral problem students on the subtest Friendship.

Null Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference be-
tween Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem
Students on the subtest Thrust of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 9 contains the data comparing the means of be-
havioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students
on the subtest Thrust. The obtained t was -4.01. The evi-
dence indicated that behavioral problem students have sig-
nificantly lower scores than nonbehavioral problem students
on the subtest Thrust.

Null Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference be-
tween Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem
Students on the subtest Domination of the Student Behavior
Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 8

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Friendship

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	53.6	4.62	-.5	-.30
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	54.1	4.20		

Table 9

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Thrust

Group	N	Mean	Deviation	Difference	$\underline{t}$
Behavioral Problem	67	44.5	6.28	-6.6	-4.01**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	51.1	2.59		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 10 contains the data comparing the means of behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Domination. The obtained t was 3.25. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem students have significantly higher scores than nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Domination.

Null Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the subtest Consideration of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 11 contains the data comparing the means of behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Consideration. The obtained t was -6.00. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem students have significantly lower scores than nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Consideration.

Null Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the subtest Independence of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 12 contains the data comparing the means of behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Independence. The obtained t was -.26; consequently, the null hypothesis was not rejected. There was insufficient evidence to indicate that behavioral

Table 10

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Domination

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	55.7	3.7	5.8	3.25**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	49.9	3.89		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 11

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Consideration

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	42.0	6.57	-9.4	-6.00**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	51.4	4.76		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 12

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Independence

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	57.4	7.01	-.4	-.26
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	57.8	3.29		

problem students have significantly different scores from
nonbehavioral problem students on the subtest Independence.
Null Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference
between Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral
Problem Students on the subtest Disinterest of the Student
Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 13 contains the data comparing the means of
behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem
students on the subtest Disinterest. The obtained t was
4.65. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem students
have significantly higher scores than nonbehavioral problem
students on the subtest Disinterest.
Null Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference be-
tween Behavioral Problem Students and Nonbehavioral Problem
Students on the subtest Participation of the Student Be-
havior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

Table 14 contains the data comparing the means of
behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem
students on the subtest Participation. The obtained t was
-3.75. The evidence indicated that behavioral problem
students have significantly lower scores than nonbehavioral
problem students on the subtest Participation.

Table 15 is a summary of the mean differences and t-
tests for the subtests of the four constructs--Family,
Teachers, Friends, and School. On five of the subtests

Table 13

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Disinterest

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	57.4	5.77	9.0	4.65**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	48.4	4.27		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 14

Mean Difference Between Behavioral Problem Students
and Nonbehavioral Problem Students on the
Subtest Participation

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Behavioral Problem	67	46.9	2.30	-6.1	-3.75**
Nonbehavioral Problem	67	53.0	3.77		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 15

Summary of t-test Results by Subtest and Construct

Construct	Subtest	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
Family	1 Structure Behavioral Problem	67	57.2	2.95	3.5	1.92
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	53.7	1.92		
	2 Inclusion Behavioral Problem	67	54.9	3.42	-.4	-.22
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	55.3	6.23		
	3 Intimacy Behavioral Problem	67	50.4	6.50	-4.4	-2.68**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	54.8	4.24		
Friends	1 Academic Behavioral Problem	67	44.6	8.67	-10.5	-6.18**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	55.1	5.31		

*Significant at the .05 level
**Significant at the .01 level

Table 15 (continued)

Construct	Subtest	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
	2 Unacceptance					
	Behavioral Problem	67	53.1	4.80	3.5	2.27*
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	49.6	2.77		
	3 Friendship					
	Behavioral Problem	67	53.6	4.62	- .5	- .30
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	54.1	4.20		
Teachers	**1 Thrust**					
	Behavioral Problem	67	44.5	6.28	-6.6	-4.01**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	51.1	2.59		
	2 Domination					
	Behavioral Problem	67	55.7	3.70	5.8	3.25**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	49.9	3.89		
	3 Consideration					
	Behavioral Problem	67	42.0	6.57	-9.4	-6.00**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	51.4	4.76		

*Significant at the .05 level
**Significant at the .01 level

Table 15 (continued)

Construct	Subtest	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	t
School	1 Independence					
	Behavioral Problem	67	57.4	7.01		
					− .4	− .26
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	57.8	3.29		
	2 Disinterest					
	Behavioral Problem	67	57.4	5.77		
					9.0	4.65**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	48.4	4.27		
	3 Participation					
	Behavioral Problem	67	46.9	2.30		
					−6.1	−3.75**
	Nonbehavioral Problem	67	53.0	3.77		

*Significant at the .05 level
**Significant at the .01 level

behavioral problem students scored significantly lower than nonbehavioral problem students. These were <u>Intimacy</u>, (<u>Family</u>), <u>Thrust</u> and <u>Consideration</u> (<u>Teachers</u>), <u>Academic</u> (<u>Friends</u>), and <u>Participation</u> (<u>School</u>). On three of the subtests, behavioral problem students scored significantly higher than nonbehavioral problem students. These were <u>Domination</u> (<u>Teacher</u>), <u>Unacceptance</u> (<u>Friends</u>), and <u>Disinterest</u> (<u>School</u>).

Prediction of Group Membership from the SBDQ Subtests

The sensitivity of the SBDQ subtests on discriminating between behavioral problem and nonbehavioral problem students was tested using the BMDP7M (revised August 1976) computer program for stepwise discriminant analysis. This procedure performed two operations. The first was the determination of the most powerful discriminators from the set of twelve SBDQ subtests. The second was the classification of the students into the behavioral problem and nonbehavioral problem categories. The result of the first operation was the discriminant function which was then used to classify the students into the two groups.

The selection of variables for inclusion in the discriminant function was based on F-to-enter, (a partial multivariate F-statistic which measures the additional discrimination introduced by the variable being considered after taking into account the discrimination achieved by

the other variables already entered), Wilk's Lambda, (a measure of group discrimination), and an overall F-test for group differences. All three yielded the same results and are reported in Table 16. The five subtests with the greatest discriminability were Academic and Friendship (Friends), Disinterest and Participation (School), and Inclusion (Family) (See Tables 16-17). The canonical correlation coefficient (.595) indicates a moderate relationship between the discriminant function and the groups. Using the square of this coefficient (eta) as a measure, about 35% of the variation in the discriminant function, using the five subtests, can be accounted for by group membership.

Once the discriminant function was determined, the "acid test" of the effectiveness of the five SBDQ subtests as predictors of whether the student would be a behavioral problem was conducted. This test used Mahalanobis' D-squared (the squared distance of a case from the center of a particular group) and posterior probability (the probability of membership in a particular group) to determine whether each student would be, according to the discriminant function, a behavioral problem or nonbehavioral problem student. This predicted classification was then compared to the student's actual classification. The degree of congruence between the predicted classification and actual classification was considered to be the ultimate

Table 16

Summary of Stepwise Discriminant Analysis for SBDQ
Predictors of Group Membership

Step	Subtest	Construct	F to Enter or Remove	df	Wilks' Lambda	F for Group Differences	df
1	Academic	Friends	32.834**	1/132	.801	32.834**	1/132
2	Disinterest	School	11.509**	1/131	.736	23.478**	2/131
3	Friendship	Friends	6.882**	1/130	.699	18.649**	3/130
4	Participation	School	6.385*	1/129	.666	16.162**	4/129
5	Inclusion	Family	4.076*	1/128	.646	14.053**	5/128

*Significant at .05 level
**Significant at .01 level

measure of the practical ability of the discriminant

function in predicting student behavior. A complete table

of results appears in Appendix D. Table 17 is a summary

of the results.

The two measures used to assess the degree of con-

gruence between predicted and actual classification of

students were (1) the precentage of correct classifications

(Table 18) and (2) <u>tau</u>,[77] a measure of the reduction of

error in group classification resulting from knowledge of

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[77]This formula was taken from William R. Klecka,
<u>Discriminant Analysis</u>, Quantitative Applications in the
Social Sciences, A Sage University Paper Series, 19
(Beverly Hills: Sage Publication, 1980), 51.

The calculation of <u>tau</u> was as follows:

$$tau = \frac{n_c - \sum_{i=1}^{g} p_i n_i}{n. - \sum_{i=1}^{g} p_i n_i}$$

where n_c = number of cases correctly classified

p_i = prior probability of group membership

$n.$ = total number of cases

n_i = number of cases in group i

$$tau = \frac{102 - 67}{134 - 67} = \frac{35}{67} = .52$$

Table 17

Data for Assessing the Discriminant Ability of the Five
SBDQ Predictors of Group Membership

Number of groups	2
Number of subjects	134
Number of discriminant functions	1
Eigenvalue for the discriminant function	.549
Canonical correlation between groups and SBDQ variables in the analysis	.595
Variance in SBDQ variables accounted for by groups	35%

Discriminant function using unstandardized coefficients:

D = -.080 (Academic) + .044 (Disinterest) + .045 (Friendship) -.046 (Participation) + .034 (Inclusion) -.334[a]

[a]constant

Table 18

Summary of Results of Classification of Students Using Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

Actual Student Classification	Number of Cases Classified Into Group		Total Cases	Percent Correctly Classified
	Behavioral	Nonbehavioral		
Behavioral Problem	50	17	67	74.6
Nonbehavioral Problem	15	52	67	77.6
Total Cases	65	69	134	76.1

Note: tau = .52

a set of independent variables. In this study, the discriminant function correctly classified 76.1% of the students and use of the discriminant function in predicting whether a student would be a behavioral problem or not would reduce the number of errors in correct classification by 52%.

Summary

This chapter contains the findings of the study. Eight of the twelve subtests of the SBDQ were found to have significantly different means for behavioral problem and nonbehavioral problem students. These eight subtests were: Intimacy (-2.68), Thrust (4.01), Domination (3.25), Consideration (6.00), Academic (-6.18), Unacceptance (2.27), Disinterest (4.65), and Participation (3.75). Of these eight subtests, all but Unacceptance (2.27) showed significant differences at the .01 level. All four constructs had at least one subtest indicating a significant difference between groups, and the construct Teachers had all three subtests showing a significant difference between groups. The SBDQ, through the use of discriminant analysis, was found to predict group membership in 76.1% of the cases tested. In addition, the calculation of tau indicated that there were 52% fewer errors over chance on distinguishing behavioral problem from nonbehavioral problem students in the study by using the SBDQ variables as discriminators.

Chapter 4

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter contains a summary of the research report, including a statement of the problem investigated, the nature of the research design, and the major findings of the study. The conclusions drawn from the investigation are reported and discussed in relation to the literature reviewed earlier. Some directions for future research are presented.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the value of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) in identifying potential behavioral problem students. Differences were expected on the SBDQ constructs between those students who had behavioral problems in school and those students who had not had such problems.

The research project involved a survey of the literature on variables related to student behavior. Family relationships, peer relationships, teacher relationships, and perceptions of school all have been found to be associated with student behavior in school. Further, there is evidence that there is potential for conflicts between school requirements and student expectations. Students sometimes feel

restricted, unable to make choices. This incongruence between the school and the student is a basis for behavioral problems.

The theoretical framework for the study was Lewin's "field theory". Lewin was one of the early theorists who linked human behavior and the environment. In this study, a student's behavior was considered to be a function of the personality or personal characteristics of the student as well as the perceived environment of the school.

Five intermediate schools (seventh and eighth grades) in a suburban northern Virginia school system were used for the study. Croft's Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) was the measure of students' perceptions of constructs believed to influence student behavior.

Administrators in the five schools distributed parental permission slips to complete the questionnaire to 202 identified behavioral problem students. Of the 202, 67 parents gave permission for their child to fill out the questionnaire. After the 67 completed the questionnaire, 67 students who had never been in trouble were randomly selected from the five schools, parental permission was requested, and of the 67 families notified there were no refusals to participate. Upon receiving approval, the students filled out the questionnaire.

The statistical procedures used were both stepwise discriminant analysis and independent t-tests for differ-

ences between means. The discriminant analysis served two purposes. The first was the determination of the most powerful discriminators from the set of twelve SBDQ subtests. The second was the classification of the students into the behavioral problem and nonbehavioral problem categories. The result of the first analysis was the discriminant function. The five subtests with the greatest discriminability were Academic and Friendship (Friends), Disinterest and Participation (School), and Inclusion (Family). Using these five subtests in the discriminant function, the canonical correlation coefficient (.595) indicated a moderate relationship between the discriminant function and the groups.

The second part of the analysis used the derived discriminant function to test the effectiveness of prediction by comparing actual and predicted classifications. The discriminant function correctly classified 76.1% of the cases and reduced the number of errors in correct classification by 52%.

Of the twelve hypotheses tested with the t-test, eight showed significant differences between behavioral and nonbehavioral problem students (Table 19). Of those eight subtests, behavioral problem students scored significantly lower on the subtests Intimacy, Academic, Thrust, Consideration, and Participation than nonbehavioral problem

Table 19

Summary of Results by Hypothesis

Hypothesis	Subtest	t
H_1	Structure	1.92
H_2	Inclusion	- .22
H_3	Intimacy	-2.68^{**}
H_4	Thrust	-4.01^{**}
H_5	Domination	3.25^{**}
H_6	Consideration	-6.00^{**}
H_7	Academic	-6.18^{**}
H_8	Unacceptance	2.27^{*}
H_9	Friendship	- .30
H_{10}	Independence	- .26
H_{11}	Disinterest	4.65^{**}
H_{12}	Participation	-3.75^{**}

*Significant at the .05 level
**Significant at the .01 level

students. On the other three subtests--<u>Unacceptance</u>, <u>Domin-ation</u>, <u>Disinterest</u>--behavioral problem students scored sig-nificantly higher than nonbehavioral problem students.

Conclusions and Discussion

Results of testing hypotheses H_1 - H_{12} with the use of the univariate t-tests differed from the results of the multivariate discriminant analysis. These discrepancies are due to the fact that the discriminant analysis considers the shared (overlapping) variance in the independent SBDQ variables while the t-test treats each SBDQ variable sepa-rately. Thus, variables which are significant by the uni-variate standard (t-test) were not significant in the multi-variate analysis because their variance was accounted for by other SBDQ variables. Although results of both analyses were reported in Chapter 3, the following conclusions are based on the results of the discriminant analysis. This treatment of the findings provides a more parsimonious view of the meaning of the data. Univariate t-test findings are reported where they contribute to understanding the relationships under review.

The conclusions and discussion of the data have been organized around the four constructs and related subtests of the SBDQ: <u>Family</u> (<u>Intimacy</u>, <u>Inclusion</u>, and <u>Structure</u>); <u>Friends</u> (<u>Friendship</u>, <u>Unacceptance</u> and <u>Academic</u>); <u>Teachers</u>

(Consideration, Thrust, and Domination); and School (Dis-
interest, Participation, and Independence).

Family (Structure, Inclusion, and Intimacy)

The multivariate discriminant analysis showed that one
subtest, Inclusion was a significant subtest in measuring
differences between behavioral problem and nonbehavioral
problem students. Behavioral problem students indicated
that their parents participated less in their education
and were included less in school related activities than
the parents of nonbehavioral problem students. The per-
ception of relative disinterest by the parents of behavioral
problem students in a very important part of the student's
life may result in the feeling that the important adult
figures in their lives do not show as much concern about
them as they would like.

The family provides children with their earliest
contacts with society, and the way children are treated by
their parents develops the expectancies and concepts for
appropriate behavior.[78] Therefore, lack of interest on
the parents' part in the child's education demonstrates
that education and related activities are of minor impor-
tance. The behavior of the student reflects this lowered
value attached to education and the school.

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[78]Combs and Snygg, loc. cit.

Glueck and Glueck's study of home backgrounds and family influence on delinquents and nondelinquents showed the delinquent's parents were less affectionate, more indifferent and hostile, toward their children.[79] Findings in this study likewise showed that behavioral problem students have parents who are perceived as being relatively indifferent to the formal education the child is experiencing. Inferred is the idea that behavioral problem children probably have grown up in a family atmosphere not conducive to seeing school as an important part of their adolescent lives. This leads to the questioning of the value of school and of obedience to the legitimate authority the school represents.[80] It is only a short stop, then, to problems resulting in suspension from school.

Friends (Friendship, Unacceptance, and Academic)

The subtests Academic and Friendship were both significant in measuring the difference between behavioral problem and nonbehavioral problem students. Academic achievement and the satisfaction obtained from this achievement were more important to nonbehavioral problem students than behavioral problem students. Also behavioral problem students perceived their friends as being less interested in

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[79]Glueck and Glueck, loc. cit.

[80]Ibid.

and showing less ability to obtain good grades than non-
behavioral problem students. This major facet of school
--academics--appears to be less important to behavioral
problem students. This undervaluing of academics is incon-
gruent with the expectations of the school and apparently
leads to behavior problems. The school requires that all
students strive to do their best in academics. This is the
major goal of education, and failure to recognize this by
behavioral problem students through their lack of interest
and effort intensifies the conflict between the school
and the student.

The significant differences between behavioral problem
and nonbehavioral problem students in Friendship would
indicate that nonbehavioral problem students had less
trouble enjoying friendly relationships with other students
and obtained more social satisfaction from those relation-
ships than behavioral problem students. It appears that
many behavioral problem students are having not only adjust-
ment problems to the academic requirements of the school
but are also finding problems in adjusting to social relation-
ships with other students.

Teachers (Thrust, Domination, and Consideration)

The use of discriminant analysis showed no significant
Teacher subtests in measuring differences between behavioral
problem students and nonbehavioral problem students.

Interestingly, teachers, their teaching styles, and their relationships with students were not factors that could be used to identify differences between behavioral groups.

These results suggest that the variables that influence student behavior are those in the home, peer group, and school in general. Teachers do not appear to be as important as the variables measured by the other constructs and related subtests.

School, (Disinterest, Participation, and Independence)

Croft has indicated that the three School subtests are a measure of a student's "interest" in school.[81] For this study, the behavioral problem students scored significantly higher than nonbehavioral problem students on Disinterest and significantly lower on Participation. There was no difference on Independence.

On the basis of Croft's definitions, one would infer that students who had behavioral problems in school did not participate in planning school activities, join service clubs, or become members of school committees to as great a degree as students who had no behavioral problems. They were less interested in continuing school and found classes less worthwhile. They would reather pursue a job to a greater degree than would the nonbehavioral problem students. Both groups saw themselves as equally independent and being able to obtain what they want from life.

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[81]Croft, loc. cit.

Student perceptions of <u>School</u> greatly paralleled Argyris' thinking. Argyris felt that a basic incongruence existed between individuals and formal organizations. He believed that in order for organizational goals to be achieved, effective leadership must simultaneously obtain optimum self actualization for both the organization and the individual.[82]

Likewise, Getzels developed his social system theory using two dimensions: the nomothetic dimension, which consisted of the institution, roles, and expectations; and the idiographic dimension which consisted of the individual, his personality, and his need dispositions.[83] How these two levels interacted with each other determined the effectiveness of the organization and the satisfaction of the individual.

The behavioral problem students in this study showed a marked difference between what the school felt was important (classes and extra-curricular activities) and what the students felt was important. Classes were not seen as important by behavioral problem students as they were by nonbehavioral problem students. Also, behavioral problem students did not participate in extra-curricular activities

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[82]Chris Argyris, <u>Personality and Organization</u>. (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), p. 211.

[83]Getzels and Guba, loc. cit.

such as service clubs and school committees or enjoy student-group activities to as great a degree as nonbehavioral problem students. Clearly, the school objectives of academic achievement and participation in extra-curricular activities were not seen as important by behavioral problem students as they were by nonbehavioral problem students in the school.

In summary, behavioral problem students are clearly distinguishable from nonbehavioral problem students by their perceptions of family, friends, and school. When compared to students without behavior problems, behavioral problem students perceive (1) their parents as participating less in school activities, (2) their friends as having less interest in achieving good grades, (3) their friends as obtaining less social satisfaction with friendly relationships, (4) school as being less interesting and classes less worthwhile, and (5) the pursuit of jobs as more important than continuing school.

On the basis of the evidence presented in the findings, the SBDQ is an effective instrument for distinguishing behavioral problem students from nonbehavioral problem students. Only the Academic, Disinterest, Friendship, Participation, and Inclusion subtests need to be given to students for this purpose.

Changes In Schools to Accommodate
Behavioral Problem Students

To help students who have behavior problems in school
gain acceptance and experience a measure of success, edu-
cators must develop strategies and activities in the areas
(family, friends, and school) that will help influence
these students behavior in a positive manner. In the area
of family, the school must involve the parent to a greater
degree than in the past. The developing of channels of
communications with the parents of behavioral problem stu-
dents will take a great deal of special effort because
these are generally the parents who have demonstrated little
interest in school.

Greater visibility of parents in the schools talking
with teachers, counselors, and administrators sends
signals to students that their parents are concerned and
are receiving immediate feedback on behavior and academic
progress. Opportunities for parents to become involved in
school-sponsored classes that stress parent training can
be effective.

The school must actively go into the community and
seek parents. One way to get parents involved is the
formation of a parent advisory group composed of parents
of students with behavioral problems. This group could
meet with school administrators, teachers, and counselors
on a regular basis to develop programs, open lines of

communication with parents, and work in an advisory capacity in dealing with behavior-related problems the administration wishes to bring before the group. However school officials try to get parents involved, the most important point to be remembered must be the difficulty that the school will encounter in acquiring parents' cooperation and participation. This effort, however, must be made.

On the construct Friends, the subtests Academic and Friendship both showed significant differences between behavioral problem and nonbehavioral problem students. Academic achievement was more important to nonbehavioral problem students than behavioral problem students and nonbehavioral problem students gained more satisfaction from such achievement than behavioral problem students. Also, behavioral problem students perceived their friends as being less interested in and showing less ability to obtain good grades than nonbehavioral problem students. This relative absence of interest in school and good grades conflicts with the expectations of the school. To resolve this conflict, either the school, the student, or both must change. Since the nature of the program offered is under the control of the school, and the student's behavior can be affected by manipulating environmental conditions, several options are available to the school administration.

One of the options is to segregate the students who have low academic averages into classes that are carefully planned for their relevancy, content, and ability to keep the students interested in the material presented. In this area, recognizing that students of intermediate school age have interest levels that tend to be intensive, wide-ranging, and of rather short duration, exploratory mini-courses might keep the students involved. One such approach could be a large variety of mini-courses that meet for no more than three to six weeks and are free of the pressures of grades and homework. As their interest waned, students would be free to move on to other "courses" that interest them. Exploratory programs would not only expose students to new experiences and knowledge but provide further opportunity for adults and students in the school to build rapport.

Specially trained counselors with a small number of students per counselor are necessary to help supervise and work out problems that occur. These counselors will have to be very interested in working with this type of child and not discouraged with their lack of enthusiasm for school or, in many cases, anti-social behavior. They are necessary for not only developing the academic skills of these students but also in helping develop positive social relationships which these students have trouble developing.

It is extremely important that the school itself examine the total school program as it relates to the behavioral problem student. Factors that should be considered include: (1) smaller student-teacher ratios to increase interaction and interest in classes; (2) scheduling of students into "special interest" classes (classes developed especially for this type of child); and (3) a program of school-wide supervision of these students throughout the day. This program would utilize counselors, instructional aides, teachers, and administrators to keep continual contact with these students as they go through the school day. Contact of this type could range from saying hello, to scheduled conferences, to visual supervision of their activities. All these steps could help the students feel more worthwhile, interested, and willing to participate in school programs.

Activities that are designed to assist these children through the educational process, however, cannot be successful if early detection of potential problems cannot be accomplished. To this end, five subtests of the SBDQ--Acadmic, Disinterest, Friendship, Participation, and Inclusion--can be used as a means of identifying children who potentially will have problems dealing with the expectations of the school system. The cost to a school district is very minimal in relation to the potential gains derived.

Scoring, with some modifications, could be done at the local school, and interpretation of the results does not require a great deal of technical knowledge or assistance. The SBDQ is quickly administered to large groups and the results could readily be used to determine the areas in which the child will need assistance to gain a degree of success in school. The questionnaire cannot do the job by itself, but it is a tool for assisting in gathering this important information.

Considerations for Future Research

Information on behavioral problem students occupies a great deal of the educational literature today. Examining the reasons for this behavior and then attempting to find solutions for alleviating or minimizing these reasons would benefit schools throughout the country.

One area that needs to be examined is the manipulation of environmental contingencies that effect behavior change. Environmental factors such as the relationships and influence of friends and family on behavior and its modification need to be inspected for possible use in the public school setting. Variables that might provide leverage in effecting changes in the behavior of behavioral problem students would include: socio-economic status of family; number of parents living at home; child-rearing

philosophy of parents (restrictive vs. permissive), types
of activities in which the peer group show interest, peer
group relationships including how the informal organiza-
tion of the peer group works, and an examination of how
strong the influence of the peer group is on individuals.
The relationships between these variables and the student
need to be researched to gain further knowledge of their
impact on behavior.

In addition, controls that the institution have over
individuals such as physical environment, schedule of time
for task, and interaction between people in authority and
participants need to be examined. These areas of influ-
ence need to be studied in the public school setting to
evaluate their effects on behavioral problem students and
the modification of their behavior.

The school variable in the study raises questions
concerning the organizational climate (strict vs. open)
as it relates to behavior. In addition, what impact does
the principal, through philosophy and policies, have on
student behavior? If the principal supports a very struc-
tured school, are there more discipline problems or are
there fewer because the limits of unacceptable behavior
are known?

Continued field testing of the SBDQ as a predictor
of patterns of behavior would be useful. If experience
with this instrument continues to support its usefulness

as a tool for early identification of problem students, schools could take measures in those areas previously discussed to have a dramatic and effective impact on dealing with these children who may have behavioral problems in school.

All children need guidance and help in growing into responsible adults. Continued efforts to understand and work with problem behavior will assist administrators, teachers, parents, and, most importantly, the child in making the child's school years productive.

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APPENDIX A

STUDENT BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

(Junior High School Form)

The questions contained in this inventory describe a wide variety of situations that occur in school and at home. The purpose of the questionnaire is to secure a description of things that happen to students, and how they feel about their friends, teachers, school work and home life.

Please read each question carefully, then indicate how it applies to you by circling the appropriate number just to the right of the question.

Please answer all items truthfully so we can obtain an accurate description of things influencing a student's attitude toward school. To set your mind at ease, your teachers will not see your response to the questionnaire. The results, of course, will be held in the strictest confidence.

The following example shows how to mark the questions in this inventory. The scale that is used to rate the items is written on each page.

1. Not very often

2. Sometimes

3. Often

4. Most of the time

1. I do my homework by myself.   1   2   3   4

    In this example, the student circled number 3 to indicate that he "often" did his homework by himself. Of course, any other alternative could have been selected depending upon "how often" the student did what the question described. Please answer every item as carefully as possible. You may, of course, omit answering any item which is objectionable to you.

    The items in this questionnaire have been numbered to facilitate keypunching. Therefore, the items are not numbered in sequence.

Don B. Croft and E. J. Van Meter

Educational Research Services

2010 Corley Dr.

Las Cruces, New Mexico   88001

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

C4-6   School _____

10.   Sex (Circle the appropriate number)

    1. Boy

    2. Girl

                           1. Not very often

                           2. Sometimes

                           3. Often

                           4. Most of the time

16. I invite school friends to my house. 1 2 3 4

17. Other boys and girls at school bother me. 1 2 3 4

18. My friends want to go on for more education after high school. 1 2 3 4

19. There is a lot of laughter when our class is together. 1 2 3 4

20. Other boys and girls make fun of me. 1 2 3 4

21. My friends say they want to go to college. 1 2 3 4

22. Other boys and girls invite me to visit them at their houses. 1 2 3 4

23. The way other boys and girls act bothers me. 1 2 3 4

24. My friends study a lot. 1 2 3 4

25. Other boys and girls get to know my mother, father, sisters, and brothers. 1 2 3 4

26. Most of my friends get good grades.   1   2   3   4

27. I like being a part of my group of friends.   1   2   3   4

28. My friends don't like the teachers at this school. 1   2   3   4

29. Most of my friends take part in school things.   1   2   3   4

30. I laugh a lot when I'm with my school friends.   1   2   3   4

31. My friends do their homework every day.   1   2   3   4

32. I have fun playing and working with other boys and girls at this school. 1   2   3   4

33. Boys and girls at this school are "stuck-up".   1   2   3   4

34. My school friends show that they like their school. 1   2   3   4

35. I talk over my problems with my friends.   1   2   3   4

36. I eat lunch by myself.   1   2   3   4

37. It is easy to make friends at this school.   1   2   3   4

38. Most of my friends like their friends.   1   2   3   4

39. My parents want me to get a good education.   1   2   3   4

40. My parents make sure that I study hard.   1   2   3   4

41. My parents make me obey.   1   2   3   4

42. My parents tell me what is good for me.   1   2   3   4

43. My parents want me to have
    many fun things to do.   1   2   3   4

44. My parents do a lot for me.   1   2   3   4

45. I enjoy eating with my family. 1   2   3   4

46. My parents want me to stay
    home more often.   1   2   3   4

47. My parents want me to get
    more schooling.   1   2   3   4

48. My parents see that I do
    my homework.   1   2   3   4

49. My parents do all they can
    to help me.   1   2   3   4

50. My parents help me with my
    homework.   1   2   3   4

51. My parents get mad if I'm
    late for school.   1   2   3   4

52. My parents almost always like
    my friends.   1   2   3   4

53. My parents help pick the
    classes I take.   1   2   3   4

54. My parents make a big thing
    about going to school.   1   2   3   4

55. My parents like going to
    school things with me.   1   2   3   4

56. I get along very well with
    my parents.   1   2   3   4

57. My parents want me to get
    good grades at school.   1   2   3   4

58. My parents are "fair" with
    me.   1   2   3   4

59. My parents like to come to
    school meetings.   1   2   3   4

60. I like talking with my
    teachers.   1   2   3   4

61. Teachers make fun of what
the boys and girls say.   1   2   3   4

62. Teachers are easy to get
along with.   1   2   3   4

63. Teachers are very good
friends of mine.   1   2   3   4

64. Teachers get mad at boys and
girls.   1   2   3   4

65. Teachers are nice to the boys
and girls.   1   2   3   4

66. Teachers know a lot.   1   2   3   4

67. Teachers are too busy.   1   2   3   4

68. Teachers do special things
for boys and girls.   1   2   3   4

69. Teachers listen carefully to
the kids' questions.   1   2   3   4

70. Teachers make fun of the
boys and girls when they
make mistakes.   1   2   3   4

71. Teachers help the boys
and girls think clearly
about class work.   1   2   3   4

72. Teachers don't let boys and
girls think clearly about
class work.   1   2   3   4

73. Teachers help the boys and
girls with any problems they
may have.   1   2   3   4

74. Teachers know what they are
talking about.   1   2   3   4

75. Teachers care about kids.   1   2   3   4

76. Teachers are kind and
cheerful.   1   2   3   4

77. Teachers try very hard to
teach boys and girls some-
thing.   1   2   3   4

78. Teachers try to tell boys
    and girls what to do.   1   2   3   4

79. Teachers tell boys and girls
    about new things they find.   1   2   3   4

C15-2

16. Teachers speak in a way boys
    and girls can't talk back to
    them.   1   2   3   4

17. Teachers tell funny stories
    to boys and girls in class.   1   2   3   4

18. Teachers tell why they question
    students.   1   2   3   4

19. I would like to quit school.   1   2   3   4

20. I take part in school
    meetings.   1   2   3   4

21. I would rather earn money
    than go to school.   1   2   3   4

22. I help in school meetings.   1   2   3   4

23. I have as much money as I
    need for class.   1   2   3   4

24. I don't like school.   1   2   3   4

25. I help plan school things.   1   2   3   4

26. I am pretty sure of what I
    want to be when I grow up.   1   2   3   4

27. School is a waste of time for
    me.   1   2   3   4

28. I take part in things after
    school.   1   2   3   4

29. I feel I can do things for
    myself.   1   2   3   4

30. I earn money in the summer.   1   2   3   4

31. School rules are too hard to
    follow.   1   2   3   4

32. I have been chosen to be a
    class officer.   1   2   3   4

33. I have enough money for
    school things.   1   2   3   4

34. It's better to have a job
    that pays a lot of money
    than go to school.   1   2   3   4

35. I take part in school plays
    and meetings.   1   2   3   4

36. No one believes that I can
    do something.   1   2   3   4

37. I like to join the school
    clubs.   1   2   3   4

38. I like school very much.   1   2   3   4

39. I do small jobs for the
    teachers.   1   2   3   4

40. I want to go to a school
    that teaches me a job.   1   2   3   4

APPENDIX B

Letter to Principals

Dear

With Mr. King's approval and support, I am writing
this letter to ask for your help. I am currently enrolled
in a doctoral program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute
and need the assistance of the intermediate principals
in Area II in gathering data.

I am interested in seeing how students who demon-
strate negative behavior (behavior that causes the student
to be placed on in-or out-of-school suspension) differ
from "good" students in their perceptions on certain
variables (family, peer group, teachers and school). In
addition, I am interested in finding out if my instrument,
developed by Dr. Don B. Croft at New Mexico State Univer-
sity, has any predictive value in identifying problem
children before they are recognized as such problem
students.

The questionnaire would be given to every child
you or your designee places on suspension during the
school year and then to an equivalent number of randomly
selected "good" kids. If you agree to have your school
participate, you would be given a packet of information
with questionnaires, directions, and letters for the
parents to give their approval for their child to take

the questionnaire. It takes about twenty minutes to complete and requires no scoring to be done at your school. The assistant principal could be placed in charge of supervising the filling-out of these questionnaires or even a counselor for the student could give the form as part of the counseling process. This is entirely up to you. The information on how your students perceive your teachers and the school will be made available to you upon completion of the study if you wish to have it sent to your school.

I realize that what I am asking you to do is beyond the normal line of duty, and believe me, if there was any possible way to collect the data without bothering you, I would not be asking you for your assistance. I am however, in a position with my dissertation committee that I have very little choice in the matter.

I would appreciate your prompt consideration of this matter, and let me know if you are willing to help me. You or the person you place in charge can contact me at 256-6661 during the school day to answer questions you might have about the project. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Sincerely yours,

Gary W. Miller
Assistant Principal

APPENDIX C

Dear Parent(s) or Guardian,

I am currently enrolled in Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (VPI) as a doctoral student. The Department of Planning Services, the area superintendent, and the principal of your child's school have given me permission to have your child fill out a questionnaire for me, if you give your permission.

I am interested in finding out how students in County intermediate schools feel about their teachers, their friends, and school in general. The questionnaire they would fill out would give me such information. No name would be placed on the paper and the questionnaires are taken out of the school upon completion. You can help greatly by signing the sheet below allowing your child to fill out the questionnaire and have him/her bring it back to school.

Please be advised that this project was not initiated by your local school and that the principal is simply cooperating withother Area II intermediate schools.

Sincerely yours,

Gary W. Miller
Assistant Principal

_____ I give permission to have my child fill out the questionnaire.

_____ I do not give permission to have my child fill out the questionnaire.

_____
Parent Signature

APPENDIX D

Table 20

Classification of Behavioral Problem Students
Using Mahalanobis' D^2 and the Posterior
Probability of Group Membership (N=67)

| | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
Student	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
1	1.5	.758	3.8	.242
2	8.7	.542	9.0	.458
3	6.7	.469	6.5	.531[I]
4	3.1	.401	2.3	.599[I]
5	.8	.753	3.0	.247
6	5.8	.221	3.3	.799[I]
7	5.6	.558	6.1	.442
15	5.1	.982	13.1	.018
16	8.6	.191	5.7	.809[I]
17	3.8	.736	5.9	.264
18	7.1	.131	3.4	.869[I]
19	10.0	.978	17.7	.022
20	3.0	.568	3.5	.432
21	3.1	.912	7.7	.088

[I]Incorrect Classification

Table 20 (continued)

| Student | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
22	4.0	.960	10.3	.040
23	9.6	.436	9.1	.564[I]
24	9.2	.538	9.5	.462
25	3.3	.572	3.9	.428
26	5.6	.300	3.9	.700[I]
39	4.8	.915	9.6	.085
40	6.8	.956	13.0	.044
41	2.9	.407	2.2	.593[I]
42	7.0	.167	3.8	.833[I]
43	2.5	.284	.6	.716[I]
44	3.5	.933	8.8	.067
45	1.0	.676	2.5	.324
46	2.4	.931	7.6	.069
47	1.9	.859	5.5	.141
48	6.2	.871	10.0	.129
49	3.9	.912	8.5	.088
62	4.6	.856	8.1	.144
63	5.6	.444	5.1	.556[I]
64	13.2	.254	11.1	.746[I]

[I]Incorrect Classification

Table 20 (continued)

| | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
Student	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
65	2.5	.849	6.0	.151
66	5.5	.606	6.4	.394
67	13.7	.519	13.9	.481
68	9.3	.986	17.9	.014
69	3.3	.275	1.3	.725[I]
70	1.0	.518	1.2	.432
71	14.1	.524	14.3	.476
72	13.2	.988	21.4	.017
73	.9	.772	3.4	.228
74	6.2	.615	7.2	.385
75	3.2	.711	10.6	.229
76	4.7	.721	6.6	.279
77	4.7	.339	3.3	.661[I]
78	4.3	.332	2.9	.668[I]
79	1.0	.724	2.9	.276
80	11.9	.963	18.4	.037
81	2.8	.933	8.0	.067
82	6.6	.761	8.9	.239
83	4.3	.908	8.9	.092

[I]Incorrect Classification

Table 20 (continued)

| | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
Student	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
84	7.7	.988	16.5	.012
85	6.4	.815	9.3	.185
86	1.4	.797	4.1	.203
87	5.0	.850	8.4	.150
88	3.2	.717	5.1	.283
89	4.7	.360	3.6	.640[I]
90	17.2	.400	16.4	.600[I]
91	2.1	.734	4.2	.266
92	15.8	.998	28.0	.002
93	9.9	.672	11.3	.328
94	4.4	.585	5.0	.415
95	2.4	.754	4.7	.246
97	1.4	.889	5.5	.111
131	4.6	.853	8.1	.147
132	3.7	.784	6.2	.216

[I]Incorrect Classification

APPENDIX E

Table 21

Classification of Nonbehavioral Problem
Students Using Mahalanobis' D^2
and the Posterior Probability
of Group Membership (N=67)

	Predicted Classification			
	Behavioral Problem		Nonbehavioral Problem	
Student	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
8	8.3	.216	5.7	.784
9	4.6	.669[I]	6.0	.331
10	7.1	.113	3.0	.887
11	5.6	.334	4.2	.666
12	4.5	.601[I]	7.3	.399
13	11.0	.132	7.3	.868
14	12.9	.108	8.7	.892
27	5.2	.393	4.3	.607
28	2.0	.904[I]	6.5	.096
29	14.2	.132	10.4	.868
30	3.7	.808[I]	6.6	.192
31	7.9	.828[I]	11.1	.172
32	3.4	.302	1.7	.698
33	1.6	.361	.4	.649

[I]Incorrect Classification

Table 21 (continued)

| Student | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
34	.9	.707[I]	2.7	.293
35	5.9	.803[I]	8.8	.192
36	10.0	.190	7.1	.801
37	3.2	.733[I]	5.3	.267
38	6.0	.135	2.3	.865
50	8.2	.121	4.2	.876
51	7.0	.166	3.8	.834
52	7.4	.503[I]	7.5	.497
54	15.9	.086	11.2	.914
55	4.7	.216	2.1	.784
56	4.8	.191	1.9	.809
57	7.3	.177	4.2	.823
58	6.0	.083	1.2	.917
59	4.5	.727[I]	6.4	.273
60	4.5	.150	1.1	.850
61	4.5	.236	2.1	.764
96	1.6	.548[I]	1.9	.452
98	5.0	.177	1.9	.452
99	12.2	.058	6.6	.942

[I]Incorrect Classification

Table 21 (continued)

| Student | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
100	5.7	.138	2.0	.862
101	1.3	.698[I]	3.0	.302
102	3.8	.352	2.5	.648
103	4.0	.553[I]	4.5	.447
104	7.5	.092	2.9	.908
105	10.5	.328	9.1	.672
106	1.6	.668[I]	3.0	.332
108	8.9	.122	5.0	.878
109	8.5	.131	4.7	.869
110	5.7	.139	2.1	.861
111	5.1	.160	1.8	.840
112	7.0	.060	1.5	.940
113	4.9	.164	1.6	.836
114	2.2	.373	1.2	.627
115	4.4	.172	1.3	.828
116	3.8	.234	1.4	.766
117	7.5	.128	3.7	.872
118	7.5	.111	3.3	.889
119	7.8	.141	4.2	.859

[I]Incorrect Classification

Table 21 (continued)

| Student | Predicted Classification | | | |
| | Behavioral Problem | | Nonbehavioral Problem | |
	D^2	Posterior Probability	D^2	Posterior Probability
120	7.3	.449	6.9	.551
121	9.8	.246	7.5	.754
122	4.6	.171	1.5	.829
123	6.6	.077	1.7	.923
124	5.3	.274	3.4	.726
125	6.6	.113	2.4	.887
126	3.9	.615[I]	4.8	.385
127	6.1	.111	2.0	.889
128	14.6	.021	6.9	.979
129	6.1	.195	3.3	.805
130	8.5	.048	2.5	.952
133	5.3	.219	2.8	.781
134	2.7	.426	2.1	.574

[I]Incorrect Classification

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THE USE OF THE STUDENT BEHAVIOR
DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE IN DISTINGUISHING
BEHAVIORAL PROBLEM FROM NONBEHAVIORAL PROBLEM STUDENTS

By

Gary Walter Miller

(Abstract)

The task of this study was to determine whether the twelve subtests of the Student Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) could distinguish behavioral problem from nonbehavioral problem students.

The population consisted of all seventh and eighth grade students enrolled in five intermediate schools in a large suburban school system in Virginia. The sample consisted of two groups from each school. The first group was composed of students who have been referred for demonstrating negative behavior. The second group was selected from all other students who had not had discipline problems.

The sample included 67 behavioral problem and 67 nonbehavioral problem students. Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to determine the value of the SBDQ subtests in distinguishing behavioral problem from nonbehavioral problem students.

Using the discriminant function prediction equation, the SBDQ was able to predict group membership (behavioral problem vs. nonbehavioral problem) with the use of the

five subscales: Academic, Disinterest, Friendship, Partici-
pation, and Inclusion. The two measures used to assess the
degree of congruence between predicted and actual classifi-
cation of students were (1) the precentage of correct classi-
fications and (2) tau, a measure of the reduction of error
in group classification resulting from knowledge of a set
of independent variables. In this study, the discriminant
function correctly classified 76.1% of the students and tau
indicated that use of the discriminant function in pre-
dicting whether a student would be a behavioral problem or
not would reduce the number of errors in correct classifi-
cation by 52%.