MAJOR FACTORS INFLUENCING SCHOOL DISCIPLINE OF BAHRAINI YOUTHS IN SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION

by

Jihan I. Abu Rashed Alumran

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This dissertation, written by

Jihan I. Abu Rashed Alumran

under the direction of her Dissertation Committee, and approved by all its members, has been presented to and accepted by The Graduate School, in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree of

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Barbara Solomon

Dean of Graduate Studies

Date September 9, 1986

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

Chairperson

DEDICATION

To My Family

whose care and support enriched my life

To my husband Dhafer

whose persistence, prudence, and profoundness

fulfilled my life

To my children, Ahmed and Bana

whose mere existence lit up my life

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

Bahraini youths, between the ages 14-25, now constitute over 20 percent of the total population in Bahrain, and youths under 20 years of age constitute over 50 percent of that population, according to the population census of 1981. These youths have to face many challenges as they proceed in the course of their development to achieve their maturation goals, such as autonomy, sex role identity, internalized morality, and career choices, in the hope of becoming responsible adult citizens (Directorate of Statistics, 1983; Havinghurst, 1972).

The economic boom that Bahrain experienced in the 1970s introduced many technological and social changes that Bahraini youths had to encounter. The widened gap between the past and the present has made inevitable the conflict between parents and their children, on the one hand, and between teachers and students, on the other. The influx of foreign manpower, which has enforced new life-styles, has

shaken the existing values, and has created the need to improve oneself technically to cope with new economic demands. Urbanization and increased immigration from villages to cities has threatened the old life-styles and traditional economy which was deeply rooted in Bahrain's history for thousands of years. The explosion of knowledge and the spread of new means of communication and mass media have brought about new socializing mediators of knowledge to youths, which have lessened the influence of parents and teachers. The increased participation of Bahraini women in the development of the country has drawn attention to the importance of women in the labor force and has made women adopt new roles other than the traditional ones. The continuous political wars in the region have caused a nightmare for many youths. Finally, the recent economic recession in Bahrain and the imposed new restrictions on expenditures have made the future unpredictable and unsafe, especially in an era where oil is depleting and natural and human resources are limited (Al Ani & Al Qubaysi, 1985; Al Qaysi, 1986; Alumran, 1986; Directorate of Statistics, 1979, 1983).

Other challenges that Bahraini youths have to face are the developmental changes that are related

to different aspects of youth development: physical, emotional, cognitive and personality, which influence youth behavior and may hinder their development if they are not attended to (Al Ghanem, 1985; Berzonsky, 1981; Elkind, 1967, 1978; Erikson, 1968; Freud, 1958, 1972).

So, at this critical stage of human development, when individual physical, emotional, cognitive, and personality changes are accentuated, the Bahraini youths have the added burden of coping with vast social and technological changes.

It has been speculated that the disciplinary problems that youths exhibit are attributable to these changes, which constitute a major dilemma for parents, teachers, principals, government officials, and society at large that exert every possible effort to discover the needs of these youths and to solve their problems. Importantly, it has been claimed that youths' apparent conflict with others could be, in reality, an attempt to search for self (Al Ghanem, 1985; Al Qaysi, 1986; Ciminillo, 1981; Deering & Kingsburgh, 1981; De Nardo, 1981; Even, 1981; Followup Bureau, 1985; Hatab & Makki, 1980).

The public concern over youths problems could be attributed to the belief that what youths do today

may influence what they will do tomorrow, and that whether or not they are going to be good citizens could be dependent largely on their behavior at the present time (Deering & Kingsburgh, 1981). It is therefore, important to understand these changes which could have important influences on the behavior of Bahraini youths, namely, social change and developmental changes.

Social Change

Social change is the process by which alteration takes place in both structure and function of a social system. There are three types of change: stable equilibrium, disequilibrium, and dynamic equilibrium. A stable equilibrium refers to the state of almost no change in the social system. A disequilibrium refers to the social change which is too rapid for a social system to cope with. A dynamic disequilibrium refers to the rate of social change to which a system can gradually adjust. Therefore, in order to understand whether a social change is good for a social system or not, it is imperative to understand the ability of the social system to adjust to it (Rogers & Burdge, 1972).

Social change seems to increase more rapidly with the passage of time. Human development took

place in four stages: hunting stage, farming stage, industrial stage, and post or super industrial stage. The hunting stage in which man's main concern was survival lasted for millions of years. The farming stage, in which man relied on domesticating animals and harvesting food, lasted for thousands of years. The industrial stage was an era which transformed human life from the country to the city, and it witnessed great breakthroughs in science and technology, which accelerated human change. This era lasted a few hundred years. The post-industrial stage in which mankind has experienced more scientific and technological advances and a greater accumulation of knowledge than in the millions of years that preceded it is measured by decades only (Harris & Moran, 1979; Toffler, 1980).

Despite the acceleration in the rate of change in the last half of this century, the pace of this change varies enormously from one culture to another. Mead (1970) differentiated three types of cultures: post-figurative, co-figurative, and pre-figurative. In the first type of culture there is almost no change; in the second type, there is a moderate change; in the third type, the change is very rapid.

Problem behavior of adolescents occurs in different cultures with varying degrees of variety and diversity depending on how adolescence is perceived. In modern societies, adolescence is recognized as a differentiated stage, and transition from childhood to adulthood is accompanied by difficulty and marked stress. On the other hand, in primitive societies adolescence is not a well-defined stage; transition to adulthood takes place smoothly and is signaled by the onset of puberty (Berzonsky, 1981; Mead, 1970).

The transition problems of adolescents in modern societies are associated with the fact that the adolescents are not prepared for the rapid social change in their society. Different childrearing practices play a major role, therefore, in providing the child with the necessary skills and values accepted in his/her own culture. Benedict (1938) differentiated between two types of childrearing practice: continuous and discontinuous. Continuous rearing practices are used in primitive cultures, and gradually prepare the child for adulthood. Therefore, transition in these cultures takes place smoothly, because adolescents have already acquired the necessary skills, attitudes, and values in the

same context with that of their own culture. On the other hand, discontinuous childrearing practices are used in advanced societies, where they occur out of context because things are explained to children rather than being taught to them by actual practice. This makes transition to adulthood in these cultures extremely stressful because adolescents do not know what to expect in a frequently changing world of values, skills, and attitudes; therefore they find it difficult to cope with their changing world.

Consistent with this view, Mead (1970) maintained that parents use continuous methods of childrearing in stable postfigurative cultures where the values and traditions of the older generation are to be maintained. On the other hand, discontinuous childrearing methods are used in a co-figurative society where the change is moderate, and in a pre-figurative society where change is rapid. In the latter two types of culture, parents and teachers cannot predict the new demands of a continuously changing society, hence the values and skills of the older generations become inadequate for a new life-style of their youths.

Rapid social change appears to influence adolescents in the same culture differently depending

on the cohort they belong to. The term "cohort" is used to refer to the individuals of the same generation who are exposed to the same social or cultural influences at a certain period of time (Ryder, 1965). Adolescents in the 1980s, or in the 1990s, according to this conception, should differ from adolescents in the 1970s or in the 1960s, because they are influenced by different social conditions that are unique to the cohort to which they belong.

Bahraini Youths and Change

Bahrain, in its evolution from a traditional to a modern society, has encountered drastic changes in its economic and social structure which have influenced many aspects of the lives of Bahraini youths. The economic boom that occurred in Bahrain in 1974, following the quadrupling of oil prices in 1973, introduced new changes in Bahrain in addition to other, previous changes that had occurred since the discovery of oil in the 1930s. Among these economic changes were the establishment of heavy industries such as oil refining, aluminum smelting, and ship repairing. Another economic development was the diversification of the economy and the move toward service activities which included air transport,

offshore banking, communications, retailing, and construction (Directorate of Statistics, 1979).

These innovative advancements in Bahrain have provided youths with varied options for future career choices in comparison to the limited options of the traditional industries that were offered prior to the 1930s, i.e., pearling, fishing, commerce, and agriculture (Al Rumaihi, 1975). Before the 1930s; Bahraini youths had no problem in choosing a job for the simple reason that they knew they would join their fathers in pearling, fishing, farming, or small handicrafts. Today, these former pursuits are now inadequate to a modern life-style.

Another change that has influenced Bahraini youths is the immigration of foreign manpower. Since the Bahraini labor force is unskilled and too small to cope with the new development, the country has turned to foreign help to meet new economic demands. The non-Bahraini labor force has risen from 37 percent in 1971 to 56 percent of the total labor force in 1981. Immigrants from foreign countries have brought with them their own life-styles and social habits which have attracted youths, and these aliens are functioning as fresh models for Bahraini

youths to emulate (Directorate of Statistics, 1979, 1983).

Recent demographic changes have also brought change to Bahrain to the point where it is becoming the country with the highest population densities among its neighbors in the Arabian Gulf. There were 517 persons per square kilometer in 1981, compared to 318 persons per square kilometer in 1971. This tremendous population growth took place in Bahrain between 1971 and 1981 and is the highest in the country's history. The growth in population increased from 216,076 in 1971 to 350,798 in 1981, which a 62.3 percent increase, of which Bahraini increase was 33.8 percent whereas the foreigner increase was 196.6 percent. Also, it was reported that more than one-half of Bahrain's quickened population increase can be accounted for by the influx of foreigners who comprise around one third of the total population, according to the 1981 census (Directorate of Statistics, 1981).

Such intense population growth has exerted pressure on the existing system of housing. To meet the problem, low-cost housing has been constructed in the suburbs. Thus, the structures for some Bahraini families have been transformed from extended large

families where children lived with their parents, grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins, to a small nuclear family where children reside only with their immediate family (Directorate of Statistics, 1983).

Extensive economic developments in Bahrain have also brought change to education with improvement in its quantity and quality. The younger generations are now seeking higher levels of education and training in the hope of eventually replacing the foreign labor force that are dominating the country. Young people are also forced to delay marriage now in order to attain the higher and broader levels of education they desire to aid in making them fit the image of modern citizens in a civilized society. Statistics show that the proportion of single people over 15 years of age has increased for both sexes. For males, the proportion of singles increased from 38.4 to 44.4 percent, and for females it increased from 20.4 to 31.5 percent (Directorate of Statistics 1983).

The media, especially television and more recently the video, could play an important role in shaping the behavior of Bahrain adolescents and in providing new models with which they may identify. In a recent national survey whose purpose was to

identify the needs of Bahraini youth, it was reported that television was the prime source of information in Bahrain for the new generation (High Council of Youth and Sports & UNESSIF, 1979).

The changed atmosphere of Bahrain has affected women as well. The Bahraini women's labor force has expanded profoundly in recent years, growing faster than the labor force of any other sex or nationality category in the country with an increase of 559 percent between 1971 and 1981. Bahrain women now constitute 19 percent of the total Bahraini labor force compared to 5 percent in 1971. Additionally, women are moving into a wider variety of occupations with many emerging as policewomen, engineers, physicians, and university professors (Directorate of Statistics, 1981).

Bahrain youths have to cope with the new economic recession in Bahrain due to the decrease of oil prices in the 1980s and the new constraints on expenditure the government has enforced on all sectors of Bahrain's economy. So, Bahraini youths have to adjust to this new change in their lives after a period of affluence which resulted from the economic boom and sudden increase of wealth -- only a few years ago. Also, Bahrain's youths have to cope

with unpredictable future, since oil, the major source of income in Bahrain, is depleting and the natural and human resources of Bahrain are limited (Alumran, 1986).

Importantly, Bahraini adolescents are a part of a world community from which they cannot isolate themselves, particularly since the spread and improvement of communications media. The accelerated pace of technological development, computer literacy, satellite communication, space industry, and similar technological advancements in the world have made this century called the "age of change" that has tremendously influenced people of all ages (Dacey, 1982; Mead, 1970; Toffler, 1970).

Developmental Changes at Adolescence

As they reach adolescence, youths experience some changes related to their physical, emotional, cognitive, and personality development. These changes are seen to influence youths and make them more vulnerable to engage in different kinds of problem behavior.

Physical Development

At the early stage of adolescence, children experience two major physiological changes: the growth spurt, and puberty. Many changes accompany

growth spurt such as changes in body proportions, rapid increase in height and weight, and the development of primary and secondary sex characteristics. These physical changes seem to have a profound impact on the psychological adjustment of adolescents (Ripple, Biehler, & Jaquish, 1982).

There seems to be sex differences in reaching puberty. Females mature faster than males with an average of two years difference. Also, the rate of maturation varies from one culture to another, and from one generation to another in the same culture. There is also a difference in the rate of maturation among adolescents within the same sex in one culture (Berzonsky, 1981).

There is evidence in the literature that deviation in physical maturation from age norms lead to some adjustment problems at adolescence. Late maturing boys and early maturing girls seem to suffer most in terms of this deviation. Reviewing the research on early and late maturing, it was reported that early maturing boys were rated high on attractiveness and maturity by adults and peers. On the other hand, late maturing boys were seen to be less confident and less attractive. Also, they were

more introspective and withdrawn than the early maturing boys.

For girls, a different message was conveyed. The late maturers were seen by peers to be more popular, and they enjoyed social relationships more. The early maturers, on the other hand tended to be more rebellious and withdrawn. The disadvantages of early maturing girls and late maturing boys were seen to be the result of not fitting the social expectation within one culture (Kagan, 1964; Livson & Perkin, 1980; Peterson & Taylor, 1980).

Emotional Development: The stage of adolescence has been known as the period of stress and turmoil by the classical view as represented by Hall and Freud. Hall (1904) viewed adolescence as a period of recapitulation or re-experiencing the stresses that human species encountered when they first became civilized during the process of evolution. Also, Freud (1958) viewed adolescence as the revival of oedipal wishes, hence associated with rebelliousness and marked stress.

More recently, an empirical view has emerged opposing the classical view, claiming that adolescence is a joyful period and is not necessarily stressful (Bandura, 1964; Offer, 1969).

Other investigators have maintained that the critical factors in experiencing stress at adolescence are the issue at hand and the age of an adolescent. This view is supported by a cross sectional study on 11, 13, 15, and 17-year-old boys and girls. In this study, it was found that anxiety about heterosexual relationships peaked at age 11, stress concerning peer acceptance peaked at age 15, and insecurities about parental acceptance peaked at age seventeen (Coleman, 1974, 1978). Also, it was found that early adolescents differed from late adolescents on their psychosocial crises. Early adolescents struggle with the crisis of "peer membership versus peer alienation," whereas late adolescents struggle with the crisis of "identity versus alienation" (Erikson, 1968; Newman & Newman, 1976).

Hence, it is more reasonable to look at adolescence as Berzonsky (1981) has advocated in terms of a continuum. At one end of this continuum, adolescents are seen to have great stress and tension, whereas at the other end they are seen to have a smooth sailing to adulthood. The remainder of adolescents are seen to fall somewhere in between.

It is also insightful to investigate the factors that make adolescents differ on the extent they experience stress at this stage of development.

Personality development: In his life-span theory of personality development, Erikson (1968) identified eight sequential stages of development from infancy to old age. Each stage is characterized by a normative crisis which influences the personality development depending on the manner of its resolution.

At the stage of adolescence, children struggle with a crisis identified by Erikson as the "identity achievement versus identity diffusion." Adolescents who are able to resolve this crisis successfully, achieve a sense of identity and can adapt better to stress and change than those who come out with a diffused identity (Berzonsky 1981; Erikson, 1968).

Based on Erikson's work, Marcia (1966) developed identity status measures that include two dimensions: presence or absence of personal crisis, and presence or absence of self-commitment. According to these measures, four identity statuses have been identified: (1) achievers, who are committed and have resolved an identity crisis; (2) foreclosures, who are not committed but have not resolved an identity crisis; (3) moratoriums, who are not committed, but

are involved in a crisis, and (4) diffusions, who are neither committed nor involved in a crisis.

The literature has revealed that these identity-status types differ in many dimensions. Identity achievers seem to score high on measures of self-esteem and are capable of establishing deep relationships or intimacy with others. They are also independent and interested in pursuing their own goals. Identity moratoriums suffer identity crisis of various kinds. They score high on anxiety even though they have high self-esteem. Also, they engage in intense but short-lived relationships with others. Identity foreclosures endorse goals and values of their parents. They score low on both anxiety and self-esteem, and they tend to engage in stereotyped relationships. Finally, identity diffusions seem to be the most disadvantaged type among the identity-status types. They score high on anxiety and low on self-esteem and have little self-direction. They avoid getting involved in either school work or intimacy with others. Also, they are more vulnerable to experience adjustment problems of varying degrees of seriousness (Marcia, 1966, 1980).

Cognitive Development

As they approach adolescence at about age 12, adolescents enter a new stage of intellectual development known as the "formal operations" stage according to Inhelder and Piaget (1958). At this period, the adolescent is characterized as thinking about possibilities, thinking about hypotheses, thinking in terms of the future, thinking about thoughts, and thinking beyond limits (Inhelder & Piaget, 1958). Hence, adolescents become capable of thinking about many possible solutions to a problem, can use propositional logic, can think abstractly, and can show flexibility in thinking. These changes in cognitive ability make adolescents more aware of complex social issues and direct their emotions toward abstract ideals.

Elkind (1967, 1978) had developed the notion of egocentrism in early adolescence. Egocentrism has been defined as the belief of the young, around 2 years old, that others are preoccupied with their appearance and behavior "as is." Four mental operations were identified with respect to egocentrism; (1) imaginary audience--refers to the adolescents feeling that they are the center of attraction, (2) personal fable--refers to the belief

that their feelings and needs are unique, (3) pseudostupidity--refers to the adolescents tendency to seek complex interpretations for others' behaviors that are simple or obvious, and (4) hypocrisy--refers to the discrepancy between adolescents' abstract ideals and their actual behavior in real life situations (Elkind, 1967, 1978).

Theoretical Rationale

Within the Bahrain society, as in other similar societies, there are many youths who, despite the maelstrom of change surrounding them, manage to move to adulthood with relative ease and smoothness. At the same time, there are some other youths who are found to exhibit different kinds of transitional problems. It has been speculated that there exist some factors that differentiate these two groups of Bahraini adolescents. These factors could explain the problem behavior that some Bahraini adolescents exhibit in school and could also explain why many other students do not manifest these forms of problem behavior.

Because research on school discipline, which is one form of problem behavior, is nonexistent in Bahrain, a comprehensive approach has been pursued to

explore the general areas which may contribute to the problem of school discipline of some Bahraini adolescents. It is for this reason that the investigator selected the problem behavior theory for use in this study. This theory, which employs broad perspectives in dealing with behavior problems, was developed by Jessor and Jessor in 1977 and approaches adolescents' behavior problems from a psychosocial perspective.

According to the theory, problem behavior occurs as the result of the interaction of three systems: personality system, perceived environment system, and behavior system. Each is considered a system as it includes interrelated variables that result in a dynamic state which leads to a greater or lesser possibility of occurrence of problem behavior. A tendency to engage in problem behavior can be understood within each system and across all of the systems.

The problem behavior theory has been applied to the study of different forms of adolescent problems, such as marijuana use, problem drinking, and deviant behavior. Results have shown that psychosocial and behavior variables account for a significant portion of problem behavior, and these results have been

consistent in terms of different ages, sex, and ethnic groups (Donovan, 1977; Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Jessor & Jessor, 1977).

There is evidence that diverse behavior, such as marijuana use, problem drinking, general deviant behavior, and other forms of problem behavior, are subsumed under the conceptual framework of problem behavior theory. They are seen to be similar in function and hence can be mutually substituted (Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Jessor & Jessor, 1977).

Since problem behavior is not restricted to one specific behavior, concentration on school discipline has been chosen for this study as a new area of investigation for problem behavior theory. School discipline, as employed in this study, has been perceived to reflect problem behavior according to the social and cultural norms of Bahraini adolescents, as detailed later in this study.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to explore the psychosocial correlates of school discipline in some Bahraini adolescents. These psychosocial correlates include some psychological, social, and behavioral

variables. In other words, a broad approach was attempted to explore the relation of demography, personality, perceived environment of parents and peers, the school climate, and academic achievement on school discipline of a randomly selected sample of Bahraini adolescents.

Another aim of the study was to investigate the demographic variables that differentiate between two groups of students: disciplined and non-disciplined in the same sample. Disciplined students are those who are well behaved in school, show respect for teachers, and abide by school rules and regulations. On the other hand, non-disciplined students are those who exhibit different kinds of disciplinary problems in schools, such as absenteeism, tardiness, verbal and physical aggression with peers and adults, and disrespect of school rules and regulations.

Importance of the Study

The contributions of this study to the problem of school discipline are manifold. In terms of the problem behavior theory, it is possible to extend it to a study of school discipline for the first time. Also, the theory has been modified by adding a new system to be known as "the school climate system."

Based on regression analysis, the predictive nature of the study makes it possible to predict the onset of problem behavior, such as school discipline, by discovering the youths' general tendency toward such behavior. These tendencies represent a pattern of psychosocial risk that can be specified within each system and across all the systems as employed in the problem behavior theory. The theory indicates that, regardless of the specific behavior under investigation, the pattern of psychosocial risk should be similar. This implies that all kinds of problem behaviors are interrelated; that is, engaging in any problem behavior should be related to other kinds of problem behaviors as well and can be seen as a part of a syndrome of adolescent problem behavior. In addition, a particular problem behavior is seen to be influenced by risk factors specific to the behavior (Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Jessor & Jessor, 1977).

The major contribution of this study is the identification and delineation of the factors that represent general patterns of psychosocial risk in Bahraini adolescents of all kinds of problem behavior on the one hand, and the risk factors that are specific to school discipline on the other.

As a result of having these factors delineated in the study, educators will be able to work in collaboration with others who are concerned about youths, such as parents, teachers, principals, curriculum specialists, and psychologists in the design of programs for the control and prevention of problem behavior in adolescents. These programs could be incorporated into the curriculum of secondary schools in Bahrain.

Hence, Bahrain, by introducing new changes in school curriculum, a pursuit which has already been started, can maintain its leading position in innovative education and enhance its prestigious academic status among its neighbors in the Arabian Gulf. Also, Bahrain can ensure the healthy development of the Bahraini youths by employing preventive strategies and creative endeavors initiated by people who are in charge of the education and development of the Bahraini youths who are the future human resource in Bahrain.

Definition of Terms

In harmony with the purpose of the study, the following terms were defined.

Youth--There is a wide disagreement among different developmental psychologists about defining the concept of "youth" and determining its beginning and its end. Some psychologists use it interchangeably with the term "adolescence," referring to people between the ages of 11 and 21. Two major stages may be distinguished at adolescence: the early stage which begins with the onset of puberty and finishes at graduation from high school, and the later stage which begins with college enrollment around 18 and continues for about four years to the age of 21 (Newman & Newman, 1976). Some other psychologists claim that youth starts with age 14 and ends at age 27 (Abdel Qader, 1975), while others see it to extend over the period from 17 years of age to 27 or later (Turkey, 1974). Furthermore, some other psychologists have maintained that it is from age 15 to age 30 (Najati, 1974). However, the first Conference of Ministers of Arab Youth that was held in Egypt in 1969 recommended that the concept of youth should deal with people between the ages 15 and 25 which was agreed upon internationally (Al Shibani, 1973).

However, there is disagreement among the countries in defining the limits of the stage of

adolescents. While Kuwait and Bahrain consider it as between 15 and 24, the United Arab Emirates found it in the age group of 15 to 44.

For the purpose of this study, youths are defined as those who fall in the range between 10-21 years of age, and who are at the secondary level of school education.

Problem behavior--Problem behavior refers to the behavior that is socially defined as undesirable, depending on the social norms of the conventional society which should be well known to the youths involved. It also depends on the specific age of youths and on historical and cultural changes within their society (Jessor & Jessor, 1977).

School discipline--School discipline refers to the measures to be taken as the result of disruptive behavior or bad conduct exhibited by some students in the classroom, who deviate from school regulations and rules in Bahrain. Two groups of students are distinguished with reference to school discipline: disciplined students and non-disciplined students. The evaluation of each group is derived from the ratings of teachers.

School climate--School climate refers to the total environmental quality within the school organi-

zation. Dimensions of an environment include its physical aspects, milieux, social system, and its culture. In this study, the school climate was comprised of the general satisfaction with school, commitment to work, and reactions to teachers (Epstein & McPartland, 1976; Taguiri, 1968).

Assumptions

The following assumptions were attempted in this study:

1. The translation of the questionnaire from English into Arabic did not change the meaning of the original questionnaire.

2. The data were accurately obtained, recorded, and analyzed.

3. Adolescents from different cultures do share some common transitional problems in spite of the differences in the variety and intensity of those problems.

4. The responses to the questionnaire by the students were honest and reflected how they really thought or felt.

5. The construct of school discipline as employed in this study measured what it intended to measure.

Delimitations

The study was delimited by the following:

1. The students at the secondary level of the General Education in Bahrain were included in the study. Other students at the secondary level of the Industrial, Commercial, Religious, and Health Education were excluded.

2. The selected sample was delimited to 17 classes to represent the total population of classes at the secondary level of general education in Bahrain.

3. The personality system in the problem behavior theory included the variable of self-esteem only, the behavior system included two variables: school discipline and academic achievement, and the perceived environment system only included the distal structure.

Limitations

The study was limited as follows:

1. The literature on school discipline and its psychosocial correlates in Bahrain was almost nonexistent.

2. The questionnaire that was used in the study was self-reporting, hence could have questionable validity and reliability.

3. The formal school setting where the participants responded to the questionnaire could have limited the freedom of students to express themselves, hence bias the results of the study.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I has provided the background to the problem, the theoretical rationale, the statement of the problem, etc. (see Table of Contents). The remainder of the study is organized into four chapters, a bibliography, and appendixes.

Chapter II contains a review of literature dealing with the psychosocial correlates of school discipline: personality, perceived environment, school climate, and school performance.

Chapter III deals with the methodology. It includes descriptions of the sample, procedure of data collection, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Chapter IV reports the findings of the study which are based on data that were obtained in the study.

Chapter V includes a summary, conclusion, and recommendations that are based upon the findings.

Finally, bibliography and appendixes concluded this dissertation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter the related literature has been reviewed and analyzed. As this study was conducted within the theoretical rationale of problem behavior theory, a brief description of the theory has been included. Then, the literature research covers the major areas in the study, with respect to the four systems that comprise the problem behavior theory as was modified in the study. The literature review then discusses discipline in relation to Bahraini youth. Finally, the literature on demography in relation to youth problems is presented.

Problem Behavior Theory

The literature on adolescents' problem behavior has dealt with the problem from different perspectives: emotional, cognitive, or social.

The psychoanalytic theory describes adolescence as a period during which there is awakening of drives that were dormant during latency period, arising from the bodily changes of puberty. During adolescence, unresolved earlier problems are reworked by the

adolescent by recapitulation of early life experiences up to that point, and traumatic experience during the early years of life are seen as the cause of many kinds of maladaptive behavior (Freud, 1958, 1972).

From a cognitive perspective, Piaget saw adolescence as the period when the adolescent enters a new state of formal operational thinking. At this time, the adolescent can employ deductive thinking and abstract reasoning. The major concern of adolescents is thinking about moral ideas to maintain a state of equilibrium of the new values that have been acquired. Based on Piaget's conceptual framework, Elkind (1967, 1978) maintained that people tend to attribute many troubling behaviors of young adolescents to bad motives, while the real reason lies in the intellectual processes that are deficient at early adolescence. He attributes some kind of problematic behavior to their egocentrism, which refers to the belief of the adolescent that others are as preoccupied with their appearance and behavior as they are, as indicated earlier in the previous chapter.

Social learning theorists have criticized the stage theories of behavior for not specifying how the

behavior comes about in each stage and for assuming that the maturational level of behavior is universal. Social learning theory deals with problem behavior, such as aggression, as resulting from learning through imitation of certain models in the environment (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963; Bandura & Walters, 1959).

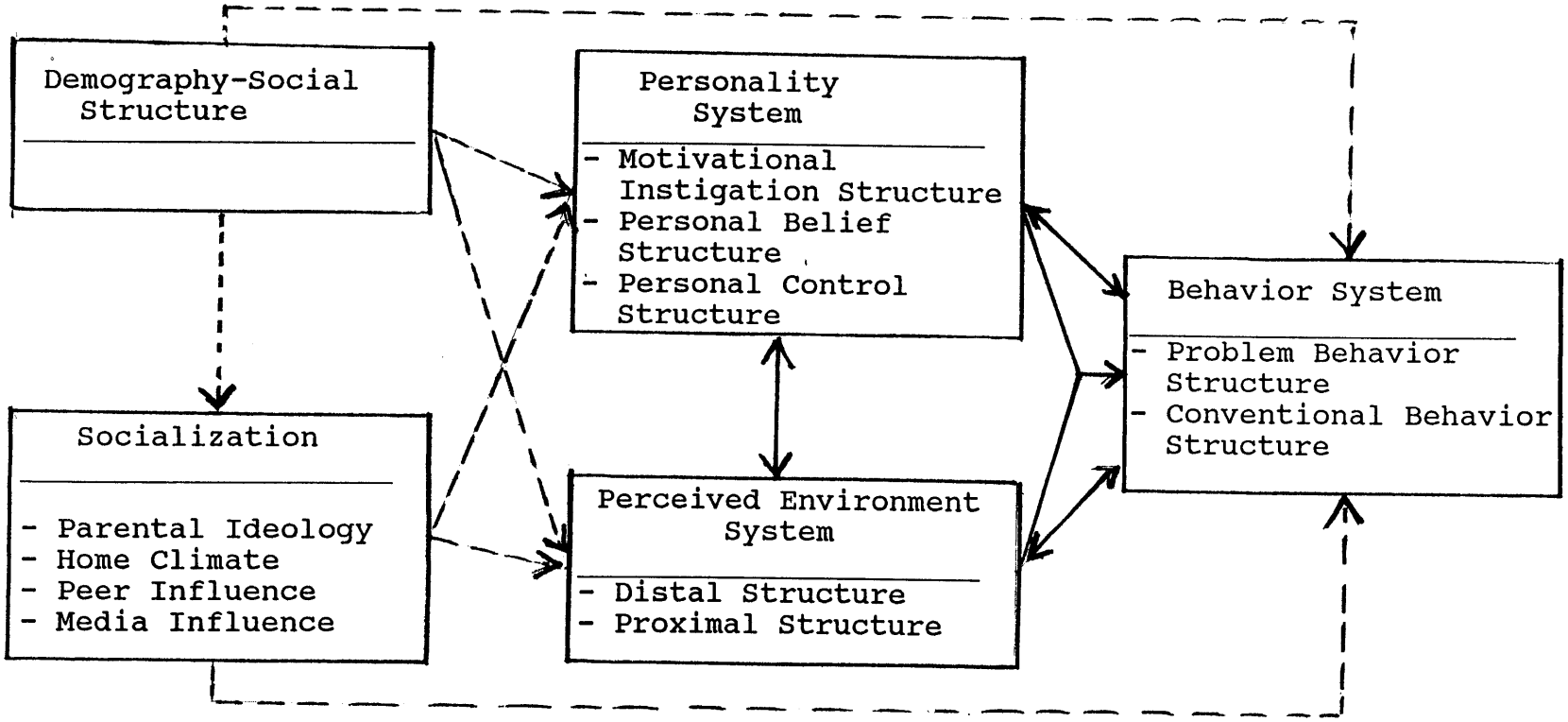
The perception of problem behavior from a multidimensional perspective has been attempted by Jessor and Jessor (1977). Problem behavior according to Jessor and Jessor occurs by interaction of three systems: personality system, perceived environment system, and behavior system. Each is considered a system since it includes interrelated variables that indicate varied possibilities of occurrence of problem behavior (Figure 1).

Personality System

The personality system involves three component structures: motivational instigation structure, personal belief structure, and personal control structure. There are seven variables in the motivational instigation structure: value on academic achievement, value on independence, value on affection, the independent-achievement value discrepancy, expecta-

Figure 1

The Conceptural Structure Problem Behavior Theory



Source: Jessor, R., & Jessor, S. (1977). Problem behavior and psychosocial development: A longitudinal study of youth. London: Academic Press.

tion for academic achievement, expectation for independence, and expectation for affection. The likelihood of problem behavior depends on the direction of instigation in each of these variables. Hence, for any form of problem behavior, the pattern of variables that represent a maximal personal instigation would be low value on academic achievement, high value on independence, higher value on independence than on academic achievement, low value on academic expectations, and so on.

The personal belief structure is composed of general beliefs that are relatively remote conceptually from problem behavior; however, they may influence adolescents susceptibility to engage in problem behavior. This structure includes variables that function as cognitive constraints against instigation to engage in problem behavior. Some of these variables are alienation, self-esteem, and locus of control. Hence, adolescents who are prone to engage in problem behaviors are those who are alienated, have low self-esteem, and have external locus of control.

The personal control structure, in contrast to the personal belief structure, is directly related to problem behavior. It includes variables such as at-

titudinal tolerance of deviance, and the discrepancy between positive and negative functions of problem behavior under investigation. These variables instigate adolescents against engagement in problem behavior. So, personal control against involvement in problem behavior is maximal when adolescents are intolerant of such behavior, perceive more positive functions than negative ones in problem behavior.

Within the personality system, higher levels of involvement in problem behavior are assumed to result from greater instigations toward such behavior and lower personal control against it. The contribution of the personality system, then, is determined by the interaction of these structures.

Perceived Environmental System

The perceived environment system is comprised of two structures, the distal structure and the proximal structure. The distal structure encompasses variables that are not directly linked to problem behavior. It includes variables that measure parents' support and control, peers' support and control, perceived compatibility between parents and friends, and perceived influenced of parents versus friends. When adolescents are peer-oriented rather

than parent-oriented, there is a greater proneness to problem behavior. The proximal structure, on the other hand, is comprised of variables that are directly linked to involvement in problem behavior. These variables include parents' approval-disapproval for problem behavior, friends' approval-disapproval of problem behavior, and availability of friends' models for problem behavior. Hence, the approval of parents and friends for problem behavior and availability of friends' models for such behavior would make the adolescent prone to engage in problem behavior.

The interaction between the perception of social controls against problem behavior and the perception of social support for it and availability of models would determine the contribution of the perceived environment system to the likelihood of occurrence of problem behavior.

Behavior System

The behavior system includes two structures: the behavior structure and the conventional structure. The behavior structure is composed of variables that represent undesirable social behavior by the conventional society, such as problem drinking

and deviant behavior. The conventional behavior structure, on the other hand, includes variables that are socially desirable with respect to that society, such as school performance or academic achievement.

The Jessor and Jessor (1977) model of problem behavior includes two structures which have been documented to be of little importance to the theory. These structures are demographic social structure and socialization.

As has been mentioned earlier, there has been good empirical support for the problem behavior theory with regard to both cross-sectional and longitudinal data, for both males and females, in both high school and college, for multiethnic groups, and for both problem and conventional behavior. The combined contributions of personality, perceived environment, and behavior systems accounted for over more than 50 percent different kinds of problem behaviors such as problem drinking and marijuana use. In addition to that, some kinds of problem behavior have been seen to be correlated. This suggests that each could be considered as a syndrome of problem behavior, and that these kinds of behavior involve the same psychosocial proneness toward problem behavior

(Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Rachel, Williams, & Brehm, 1975).

Problem behavior theory has dealt with problem behavior from a multi-dimensional perspective--psychological, social, and behavioral--whereas previous studies dealt with it from one dimension only. According to Jessor and Jessor (1977) problem behavior theory consists of three systems: the personality system, perceived environmental system, and behavior system. The personality system includes three structures: motivation instigation structure, perceived control structure, and personal control structure. Personal values on achievement and independence and expectations for academic achievement are variables representing the personality system. The perceived environmental system includes two structures: distal and proximal. Some of the variables representing the perceived environment system are related to the influence of parents and peers. Finally, the behavior system includes two structures: the problem behavior structure and the conventional behavior structure. This structure includes variables such as deviant behavior and school performance.

There is empirical evidence that these psychosocial variables explain a significant portion of different kinds of problem behavior for adolescents of different sex, age, and ethnic groups.

Behavior System

In this study, the behavior system includes two variables that represent the problem behavior structure and the conventional behavior structures. These variables are school discipline and school performance.

School Discipline

The literature on school discipline covered three sections: varying concepts of school discipline, current views of child-discipline, and problem of research on school discipline.

Varying Concepts of School Discipline

School discipline appears to have a different meaning to different people. There has been disagreement among professionals and the public over what constitutes school discipline and what behavior problems are the most serious (Duke & Jones, 1984).

In reviewing the literature on school discipline, it was found that this term was also used to

refer to classroom management, students' misbehavior, and students' disruptive behavior (Deering & Kingsburg, 1981; DeEsch, 1980; Glickman & Wolfgang, 1979)

The word "discipline" is derived from the Latin verb signifying "to learn," but its operational definition and use by educators take different forms and different conceptions. One conception refers to the degree of order or control that characterizes a group. Thus, a teacher or an adult is said to have good discipline when students or children are obedient and well behaved. Another concept of discipline relates to the techniques that are employed to bring about order and control. A third concept is to help children grow in self-discipline and self-regulation. A fourth concept equates discipline to punishment and this definition is the most widely used and the most common (Le Francois, 1979; Zenyuh, 1976).

Gordon (1981) made a distinction between the noun "discipline" and the verb "to discipline." The first one implies rules, order, and regulations, whereas the second usually refers to the use of external control or punishment.

Webster (1985) presented the following definitions of discipline: (1) punishment (2) instruction (3) a subject that is taught, (4) training that

corrects or mold mental faculties or moral character (5) control that is achieved by enforcing obedience, orderly conduct, self-control and (6) rule governing conduct.

To synthesize different definitions or concepts of school discipline, Duke (1978b) indicated that self-interest dictates priorities: for administrators, the most serious problem behavior refers to absenteeism; for teachers it refers to disrespect and classroom disruption; and for students it refers to fighting and theft.

Current View of Disciplinary Methods

Current views on the use of disciplinary methods to be employed in public schools fall along a wide continuum. Theories at one extreme embrace the use of harsh disciplinary measures, and theories at the other end support a total absence of disciplinary action.

Physical Punishment.

The use of corporal punishment represents a disciplinary technique that falls at one end of the continuum. Punishment, as advocated by the behaviorists, refers to the application of aversive stimulus to reduce or stop undesired behavior by an organism (Domjan & Burkhard, 1982).

Physical punishment seems to be pervasive and widely used by parents, even for adolescents between 15 and 17 years old. Strans, Gelles, and Steinmetz, (1980) conducted a survey on a large sample of parents, of whom 61 percent reported using physical punishment with their children at least once a week. In the same survey it was reported that 30 percent of children who were physically punished were between 15 and 17 years old. Consistent with this finding, Gordon (1981) has stated that many adults find that rewards do not work well, so they rely heavily on punishment, usually with physical violence. He claimed that nine out of ten parents of children at all ages use severe punishment.

Adhering to the use of punishment as a way to discipline children has been proven to have negative effects on these children, such as withdrawal, aggression, violence, loss of self-responsibility, and loss of self-control (Gordon, 1981; Strauss et al., 1980; Zeil, Stone, & Leher, 1980). Moreover, Bryan and Freed (1982) surveyed 170 college students regarding the intensity and frequency of methods of corporal punishment. The results showed that corporal punishment was normatively used as a way of discipline and that students who had received a great

amount of physical punishment reported lower grades in school and a greater number of problems, such as anxiety, aggression, and delinquency.

It was further reported that schools using more physical punishment had more vandalism than those using less physical punishment (Hyman, McDowell, & Raines, 1975). Also, Dodson (1978) maintained that punishment should be avoided because of the following reasons: (1) It works as a payoff for the child by strengthening undesirable behavior, (2) it tells the child what not to do, rather than what to do, (3) it loses its effect when the child grows older, (4) it temporarily diminishes the outward behavior but does not remove the causes, and (5) it ignores the feelings of the child.

Punishment, then appears to make a child uneducable, and the essence of punishment seems to be in finding other alternatives. So, many educators began to look for alternatives to punishment.

Responsibility Teaching.

One of the alternatives to child discipline is to teach children self-control and self-responsibility. Even (1981) maintained that it is the duty of adults to teach children that for every privilege they enjoy, there is corresponding

responsibility. For example, in return for the privilege of free public education, students have to be responsible in coming to class on time and in participating in classroom activities.

The need for student responsibility has been the focus of Lamb (1981). According to Lamb, responsibility is central to education, and should be considered in learning as the fourth R besides reading, writing, and arithmetic. This author claimed that students today often feel irresponsible, and the blame of their behavior is consistently directed at forces outside themselves. Therefore, administrators, teachers, peers, parents, and others are viewed as the cause of their problems. As a consequence, the solutions to their problems must fall on the shoulders of those significant others.

The introduction of reality therapy that has been developed by Glasser (1965) has been advocated by many educators and psychologists. Within the theory underlying reality therapy, students are taught to assume responsibility for their own behavior. Responsibility for Glasser refers to the fulfillment of one's own needs without depriving others from fulfilling their own needs. To teach students responsibility, then, an adult should do the following: (1)

Be actively involved with children, (2) show them love and care for how they behave, (3) set limits regarding their conduct, (4) explain rules for them, (5) accept no excuses for irresponsible behavior, and 6) teach students or children to be committed.

Glasser (1975) further added that within reality therapy excuses for the evasion of responsible behavior is not tolerated. When confronted with the reality that the student has not completed the homework, the teacher may also behave in an irresponsible manner by accepting this behavior, and the student tends to blame the teacher for his/her own misdeeds. Hence, teachers must be good models of responsible behavior and demonstrate responsible attitudes toward class work and school discipline.

Dodson (1978) dealt with the issue of teaching a child responsible behavior from a different perspective. He introduced the notion of natural consequences and artificial consequences in dealing with child misbehavior. The essence of natural consequences is that children learns from their own experience and stops misbehaving if the result of their behavior is unpleasant. For example, if a student misses an exam because of absence, the student would receive a low grade. On the other

hand, artificial consequences should be applied deliberately and immediately, such as depriving the child of something he likes, so that he learns that the consequences of his behavior will be unpleasant if he misbehaves.

Ginott (1969a) also had a different approach teaching children responsibility. He thought that responsibility could be fostered by allowing the child to have "a choice" in matters that fall entirely within the realm of the child's responsibility and a "voice" in matters that fall within the realm of the adult's responsibility. Ginott (1969b) further added that when children reach adolescence, they should have both a choice and a voice in matters related to them.

There is evidence in the literature that disruptive students, when they learned how to assume responsibility by an active involvement in their educational experience, decreased their disruptive behavior (Bratter, 1977, Britton & Stallings, 1981; DeEsch, 1980).

Communication/Establishing Good Relationship.

Another approach to child discipline in school is by following a humanistic approach in dealing with

students. This approach is achieved by building a good relationship with students based on mutual love, respect, and understanding. The essence of this relationship is verbal communication with the child.

Gordon (1975) developed the Effective Training Model for parents and teachers. The main objective of this model is to help participants establish a relationship with children that are egalitarian, collaborative, reciprocal, mutually beneficial, and democratic. This model replaces control with influence, domination with leadership, win-lose method with the notion of no-lose method. The no-lose method makes the parents and children join together to agree on a solution to their problem that will make them feel that they are both winning without leaving either one losing. The adult should learn in this approach how to listen, how to show empathy, and how to change speaking habits, using "I-messages" when talking to the children instead of the blameful "you-messages." In other words, adults, whether teacher or parents, are taught how to be direct rather than manipulative, how to be assertive rather than commanding, how to be self-disclosing rather than punitive.

Dreikur (1972) also emphasized the importance of communication between teachers and students in the classroom. He maintained that communication is important because all pupils in class can talk freely in a controlled discussion, and hence they can develop their oral language skills, share ideas, and express their creativity.

Consistent with this view, Glasser (1965) claimed that the first step toward changing the misbehavior of children is to make friends with children. This relationship should be warm, personal, and honest, and the best way to achieve this kind of relationship is through talking with the child about topics of mutual interest.

Dodson (1978) suggested a different way of communication as proposed by Gordon, Glasser, and Dreikur. He developed the feedback technique of communication. The essence of this technique is that when the child expresses feelings, the adult should do the following: (1) Listen to the child, (2) formulate in his mind what has been said, and (3) give feedback in his own words. Hence, children will really know that parents or teachers understand, because they will hear their own feelings coming back to them from the adults' mouths. Similarly, Ginott

(1969a,b) advised adults not to deny the feelings of youths as they communicate with them. Also, he emphasized that the key to good communication with youths is active listening, that is, showing them genuine feeling, caring, and understanding when listening to them.

Self-Discipline.

Among the other approaches to child discipline is to foster self-discipline in children. Even (1981) and Dodson (1970) claimed that discipline has meaning only when its goal is to assist students to grow in self-discipline and self-regulation.

Gordon (1981) also maintained that the conventional wisdom holds that children should first be disciplined to obey authorities, later they can internalize the external authority to become self-controlled. He added that in reality the opposite is true, that is, obedience to authority brings about the disappearance of self-control and self-respect. The result of submission to external authority is the "crippling" of children by discipline.

Some other researchers such as Hoffman (1979) had different views concerning how to achieve self-discipline. The use of reasoning or induction, according to Hoffman, is the critical determinant of

moral internalization. Induction includes techniques in which the adult gives explanation or reasons for requiring the child to change bad behavior by pointing out the consequences of that behavior.

Collaboration.

A recent approach to resolve the disciplinary problems of children in schools is by advocating co-operation and collaboration in which parents, teachers, educators, students, administrators, and the community members work jointly to achieve a common goal, namely, child discipline. It is an approach in which participants understand their interdependence and can take into consideration the others' points of view (De Nardo, 1981, Seyfarth, 1980, Thomas, 1980; Wiley, 1980).

It is important to include adults, such as teachers, parents, and principals, to solve the problem of school discipline because adults can have some problems related to discipline as well. Duke (1978a) found that out of 30 discipline-related issues, 19 were related to inappropriate adult behavior. From these issues six general categories of adult discipline problems were derived as follows: (1) Inconsistent rule enforcement, (2) noncompliance with discipline policies, (3) insensitivity to stu-

dents, (4) lack of disciplinary data, (5) lack of classroom management skills, and (6) inadequate administration of disciplinary policies.

Collaboration between educators and students appears to have a positive impact on students' behavior. Students who made decisions in collaboration with their teachers developed more positive attitudes toward school, were more internally motivated to participate in school activities, and learned better than did students in teacher control situations (Jensen, 1975; Tjosvold, 1980).

Problems of Research on School Discipline

Although the literature on classroom discipline may not be as abundant as warranted by the severity of the problem, as suggested by Jones and Tanner (1981), a noteworthy body of research data is beginning to emerge. Modern theories and models of discipline are, as noted previously, diverse. The result of diversity is the lack of clear, consistent, and comprehensive definitions of school discipline. There is also a disagreement concerning the most effective ways to discipline students and prevent misbehavior. There is even disagreement over the assumptions underlying these techniques. According to Duke and Jones (1984), some theories support the use

of punishment to control misbehavior. Contrastingly, other theories question the utility of punishment.

Theorists of classroom discipline further disagree over the primary goals of classroom management. Some theorists, according to Duke and Jones (1984), seek to minimize the probability of student behavior, while others strive to maximize the likelihood of responsible student behavior. The methods required by teachers to achieve one goal may be in contradiction to the methods required for the attainment of another goal. For example, to minimize irresponsible behavior requires the teacher to remove temptation and limit student behaviors, while maximizing responsible behavior requires the teacher to create opportunities which remove limitation from student behaviors.

Other problems stem from sources of data on problem behavior of students which have certain limitations. The most common source is asking teachers, administrators, and parents using poll surveys. This kind of measurement has a questionable validity since these people may give a false impression about the situation by making it appear less or more than it really is. Another source of data comes from students' reports which may be confounded by the method of collection or by the people who collect it.

A third source of data is the actual observations of students' behavior in the classroom. Some limitations of this method is that it consumes much time and effort and the bias of the observer. The fourth source of data relies on the disciplinary measures taken by schools. The major limitations of this method is that they are controlled by school personnel--these measures differ from one school to another, and they are even inconsistent within the same school. The use of multiple data sources, then, can be the best way to ensure validity of measurement of students' behavior (Duke & Jones, 1984; Safer, 1982). The problem of discipline as Ciminillo (1980) has noted, is the "school dilemma."

Academic Achievement

A wealth of literature has attempted to relate academic achievement or school performance to school discipline. In investigating the problem behavior of adolescents, it was reported that students who exhibited problem behavior lacked interest in conventional institutions such as school. Also, the school performance of these students contributed significantly to their problem behavior (Jessor & Jessor, 1977). Students who were low achievers

tended to exhibit more disciplinary problems in schools than high achievers (Gnagey 1979; Osborne, 1978).

Feldhusen, Thurslon, and Benning (1973) also found that the misbehavior of undisciplined students was related to several school factors. In comparison to the disciplined students, the undisciplined students tended to have an IQ deficit of nine points, and had significantly lower scores on reading and mathematics achievement tests. Undisciplined students were found to drop out of school at a significantly higher rate than other students, and when they remained in school they tended to graduate at the bottom of their class. Feldhusen, Roser, and Thurston (1977) extended the work of the previous study. In an attempt to predict social adjustment over a nine-year period, it was found that the most reliable long-range predictors were students' reading scores, original behavioral ratings by the teacher, the students' IQ, and the educational level of the father. Using the same data obtained in the Feldhusen, Thurston, and Benning study (1973), Feldhusen, Aversano, and Thurston (1976) found that they could make long-range predictions of delinquency

with an accuracy of nearly 80 percent using some variables such as the sex and the IQ of students.

Furthermore, as has been mentioned before, enhancing school performance appears to improve students' discipline. This can be achieved by enhancing the self-concepts of disruptive students (Mann & Gold, 1981).

Summary

The previously reported literature has dealt with two variables that represent the behavior system of problem behavior theory, as employed in this study. These variables are school discipline and school performance.

School discipline, the criterion in the study, has been perceived differently by different people. Concerning child discipline in Bahrain, two sources were utilized: child discipline in Islam and recent researches that were conducted on youths in Bahrain and the Arab Gulf States. Then, current views of disciplinary methods have been presented. Some of these views have been punishment, teaching responsibility, self-discipline, and collaboration. Finally, problems of research on school discipline were discussed.

Academic achievement is the variable that represents the conventional structure in the problem behavior theory. The literature relating school performance to school discipline has shown that undisciplined students have lower IQs, and lower scores on reading and mathematics achievement tests. In general, there is a strong positive relationship between school performance and school discipline.

Personality System

A common approach in the literature that has dealt with the influence of personality on disruptive behavior of adolescents has been the contrasting of attributes found in disruptive students with the attributes found in seemingly well adjusted and well behaved students. Some of these attributes were personal values and attitudes and self-esteem.

Personal Attitudes, Values and Behavior

Duffy (1971) contrasted the attitudes and behavior of 20 faculty-identified problem students with those of other students. It was found that problem students were more often involved in reckless and inappropriate behaviors, had greater needs for attention and recognition, and preferred teachers

whom they believed were interested in them as individuals.

In an attempt to isolate some personal characteristics which may contribute to misbehavior among undisciplined students, Gnagey (1979) asked teachers to identify disruptive students (referred to as inhibitors) and well-behaved students (referred to as facilitators). From among the identified students Gnagey (1979) selected 59 inhibitors and 86 facilitators and compared them on several dimensions. The combined consideration of all data indicated that classroom inhibitors tended to be relatively unhappy and frightened.

Feldhusen, Thurston, and Benning (1973) also found that teachers rated the personalities and social characteristics of undisciplined students far below those of disciplined students. Most importantly, perhaps, their study revealed that the undisciplined students persisted in displaying the same personality and social characteristics eight years after they were rated by their teachers.

Academic attitudes toward academic achievement and personal value on independence have been found to be related to problem behavior. In a longitudinal study of junior high school and college students,

Jessor and Jessor (1977) reported a group of interrelated factors which contributed to the misbehavior of undisciplined students. According to these researchers, students who exhibit problematic behavior do not value academic achievement, have low expectations of academic success, and express much concern for independence. Similar results have been achieved by other researchers who dealt with different kinds of problem behavior such as deviant behavior, problem drinking, and marijuana use (Donovan, 1977; Jessor & Jessor, 1975; Jessor, Chase & Donovan, 1980).

In another study Srivastava (1972) asked teachers to identify 30 disciplined and 30 undisciplined students from three high schools. The researchers administered the Cattell High School Personality Questionnaire to both groups of students. The study revealed that the students identified as undisciplined tended to be significantly more excitable, impatient, demanding, independent, aggressive, stubborn, and dominant. On the other hand, students identified as disciplined tended to be better in abstract thinking, internally restrained, and more willing to act.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem, which is another dimension of personality, is defined as the perception about oneself, and it is believed to be a very important factor in influencing adolescents' behavior. Self-concept encompasses several aspects of children's development: physical, social, and scholastic (Shavelson, Habner, & Stantson, 1976).

The interrelatedness of this variable and the complexity of the problem of school discipline is easily demonstrated. Damico (1975) reported a study which compared the scores of disruptive and nondisruptive students from grades five years through eight on professed and inferred academic self-concept. The results revealed significant differences between inferred and professed self-concept of disruptive and nondisruptive students. Also, it was reported that students identified as disruptive had significantly lower inferred and professed academic self-concepts than did nondisruptive students. From these results Damico (1975) concluded that negative feelings about oneself as a learner may be a contributing factor in etiology of disruptive student behavior.

In studying the variables of self-esteem, academic achievement, and discipline, McKeown (1975) reported that the enhancement of student self-concept of school related ability improved academic achievement. In addition, Mann and Gold (1981) suggested that high academic achievement, in turn, further raised student self-esteem, which subsequently reduced student provocation to engage in undisciplined behavior. Consistent with this view Burdett and Jensen (1983) reported that children who had low self-concepts had a significantly higher mean in their tendencies toward aggression than did children with high or medium self-concepts.

Research has also revealed that high and low academic achievers did not differ significantly in self-estimates of their ability with respect to personal and social dimensions. However, on school-related and task-related variables the two groups were clearly differentiated. This finding has a direct implication for the proposed intervention technique of Piersel (1979). The behavior change technique of self-observation was implemented by this researcher through behavioral consultation with four students who had academic and discipline problems. These students were asked to keep daily logs on which

they recorded their own behavior, which they perceived to be contributing to their low academic performance and misbehavior. In all four cases self-observation resulted in improved academic achievement and improved behavior. Importantly, this technique succeeded after all other interventions had failed. Similarly, Britton and Stallings (1981) reported that they successfully reduced discipline problems among students through a program which included efforts to change the erroneous thinking of students.

Summary

The literature on personality system has covered two areas: personal attitudes, values, and behavior, and self-esteem. Most of the literature pertaining to the first area has contrasted the personality characteristics of disciplined and non-disciplined students. The non-disciplined students appeared to be relatively unhappy and frightened. Also, they had low expectations for academic recognition, low value on academic recognition and high value on independence. On the other hand, the disciplined students tended to be more internally restrained and more willing to act.

Concerning the second area, self-esteem, the literature has shown that the non-disciplined

students had lower self-esteem than the disciplined ones, especially in relation to academic self-concept. Also, when non-disciplined students were taught to change their erroneous thinking, their disciplinary problems were reduced.

Perceived Social Environment System

There is a wealth of evidence relating some elements of the perceived social environment of students to school discipline. It was reported that poor home conditions, television violence, gangs, a climate of crime in the community, and peer crime influences may all be viewed as initial contributors to the problem of school discipline (Feldhusen, 1978). Nevertheless, three elements of the perceived environment were the focus of most of the studies on perceived environment, namely, the influences of parents, the influence of friends, and the relative influence of parents and friends. These three areas were discussed with reference to Bahraini adolescents whenever possible.

Influence of Parents

In this study, the literature related to the influence of parents on the behavior of their

children has focused on three major areas: socialization of parents, satellization theory, and the generation gap.

Parental Socialization

Socialization research on parenting provides much data which shed light on problem behavior of adolescents. Within the socialization context, parental behavior has been perceived from two dimensions. The first dimension is the "warmth-rejection" and the second is "autonomy-control." Thus, parents were seen as either warm or rejecting and either using control or encouraging independence and autonomy in their children (Shaefer, 1959). Similarly, Baumrind (1971) divided parenting styles into three categories. The first category is the authoritarian, where parents attempt to shape the behavior and attitudes of their children according to a set of standards of conduct. Punishment is used by the authoritarian parents and the child is given limited freedom. The second category is the permissive parenting style. Parents in this category behave in a nonpunitive way towards their children, who are given much freedom. The third category is the authoritative, where parents value both the self will and conformity on the part of their children.

Reasoning and verbal communication is encouraged by authoritative parents.

In line with these findings, Nihira, Yusin, and Sinay (1975) conducted a study on adolescents who were problematic such as being suicidal, aggressive, or drug abusing. These adolescents described their parents more negatively than other children who had no problems. It was also reported that alienated adolescent boys perceived their parents as hostile, nonaccepting, and controlling (Rode, 1971). Radicalism in adolescence which is associated with a personal lifestyle appears to be related to low identification with family (Christiansen, Voiri, & Davis, 1976).

Inconsistency in disciplinary methods of parents has been found to be a very important element influencing adolescents to be socialized into serious kinds of problem behavior. A sample of young adolescent boys who were reported by their parents to be "beyond control" children described their parents as more inconsistent in setting and enforcing rules, and less likely to praise and show interest in their adolescents than parents of normal children (Robinson, 1978). Also, it was found that parental agreement or consistency had a much greater impact on

boys than on girls. These results indicate that boys need more structure, whereas girls need less inhibition. It was further reported that parental consistency has even larger influence at adolescence than at childhood (Block, Rosenberg, & Block, 1983).

All of these studies had some limitations. They were mainly conducted on small sample sizes, most of them used male adolescents and were conducted on a biased sample of adolescents who were either delinquent or beyond control children.

Still, by examining the research that has been conducted on adolescents who are considered to be normal school children, the results were consistent with previous research. Kelly and Goodwin (1983) surveyed high school students from varying cultural, racial, social, and economic background. It was demonstrated that adolescents raised under democratic parenting styles tend to react more positively than those from permissive or autocratic home. Also, Perettii (1981) found that parents of children with conduct problems tended to be more hostile and rejecting than parents of other children. As a consequence those children exhibited overt aggressive behavior toward classmates and teachers in situations where they were not afraid of retaliation. Simi-

larly, Diem (1978) found that students perceived the major cause of deviant behavior to be the lack of involvement and control by the parents. In general, parental rejection, overcontrol, hostility, low support, passivity in mothers, and tolerant attitudes of deviance seem to be related to adolescents' later involvement in problem behavior (Duncan, 1972; Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Maddox, 1970).

Satellization Theory

Some other theorists conceptualized the relationship between parental rearing practices and child development within a theoretical framework. Ausubel developed the "satellization theory" where parents and children were perceived to have a dependent relationship, in which the parents formed the family nucleus around which their children orbited. According to this theory, two types of acceptance relationship have been identified in the family: satellization and nonsatellization. Satellization seems to be the best for child development, where both parents and children accept the power relationship between them. The satellized child enjoys unconditional acceptance that is based on their intrinsic worth. These children learn how to

cope with frustration and acquire self-control. On the other hand, nonsatellized children are either undervalued or overvalued. Undervalued children experience rejection by their parents, hence they conform to avoid punishment only. On the other hand, overvalued children are spoiled and pampered by their parents. They are accepted conditionally, that is, they are given attention and love if they fulfill the needs of their parents. These children become egocentric and undisciplined (Ausubel & Sullivan, 1970; Berzonsky, 1978).

Generation Gap

Another body of research centered upon the literature of generation gap between parents and children to explain the disciplinary problems of adolescents.

Winder and Angus (1968) maintained that parents and their adolescents differ in many dimensions: (1) physiological, which is common in all communities, (2) sociological, which is inherent in the family structure where the child is totally dependent on the adult, and (3) psychosocial, which refers to the difference between adult realism and adolescent's idealism. So, when adolescents see their parents

acting not according to their idealism, they rebel against them.

On the other hand, Prosen, Toews, and Martin (1981) interpreted the generational differences within the life cycle theoretical perspectives of Erikson (1959). These researchers maintained that family members are at different developmental stages which have different maturational task. This leads to an inevitable conflict between them. Parents, as their children reach adolescence, encounter midlife crisis. Hence, parents shift to thought and reflection coupled with feelings of passivity and helplessness. At the same time, their adolescent children start to experience an opposite feeling of excitement and restlessness in their attempt to search for identity and in their attempt to look forward to the future.

The literature on generation gap also revealed that parents and adolescents showed a great amount of agreement about traditional values, such as hard work and duty before pleasure. However, they had conflicting attitudes about sex, education, religion, drugs, politics, and money related issues (Conger, 1977; Tziy & Dimit, 1974). Hence, the nature of

topics involved seem to be a determining factor for the intergenerational conflict.

Other researchers attempted to compare the perceived differences and the actual differences between parents and their adolescents in order to understand better the conflict between them. Parents and their adolescents were asked to respond to a questionnaire that measured attitudes toward contemporary issues. Then, each group was asked to respond in terms of its own attitudes, then to respond in terms of how they expected the other group would respond. The results indicated that adolescents tended to overestimate the generation gap, while parents tended to underestimate it (Lerner, Karson, Mersel, & Knapp, 1975).

Influence of Peers

Concerning peer influence on adolescents, it appears that this influence has increased in modern societies where socialization of adolescents has been undertaken by the school instead of the family. This has made the adolescents more attached to their peer groups and has led to the creation of "youth culture" within the adult culture, which has caused the adolescents to be influenced more by their peers than by their parents (Coleman, 1970; Dacey, 1982). The

influence of the peer group seems to be very important at the early stage of adolescence. At this stage the adolescent faces a psychological conflict called "group identity versus alienation." As the young adolescents spend more time in school with friends, they try to affiliate with a certain group through an internal search for group membership to meet their social needs. A positive resolution of the conflict depends on their success in identification with that group. On the other hand, if they cannot identify with that group, or if the group does not meet his personal needs, a negative resolution of the conflict leaves them with a sense of alienation (Newman & Newman, 1976).

Peer-oriented children report engaging in more undesirable behavior than adult-oriented children. This has been supported by ratings of teachers and by other children. Adolescents who engage in different kinds of problem behavior seem to conform to peers, and they prefer the opinions of their friends over those of their parents (Condry & Simon, 1974; Jessor, Collins, & Jessor, 1972; Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Jessor & Jessor, 1977).

Hence, the employment of peers to assist in the control of problematic student behavior has been

found to be effective. Strain, Cook, and Apolloni (1976) suggested that peers be employed to assist the teacher in use of behavior modification. Functioning as teacher assistants, classroom peers can be trained to serve as models for appropriate behaviors and as managers of reinforcement. According to these researchers, the inclusion of peers in behavior modification programs promotes a democratic climate, fosters responsibility, independence, and cohesiveness. All of these variables seem to be related to the decrease in the occurrence of problematic classroom behaviors.

In agreement with the previous findings, Cooper and Walker (1980) maintained that when a peer dynamics program was applied in schools to reduce the incidence of destructive risk-taking behavior, a positive attitude change was found among the peer group members. Hence, it was concluded that peer group pressure was the single most important factor in determining the presence or absence of juvenile delinquency behavior. Correll (1983) also reported that, following training and experience as peer tutors in a behaviorally-oriented reading program for junior high school students, formerly disruptive students decreased their disruptive behavior and

exhibited improved morale and academic achievement. The rationale for employing peers to control problematic student behavior was further supported by research by O'Brayant-Garland and Moor (1984).

During adolescence, according to Ausubel and Sullivan (1970), children who have successfully achieved "satellization" relationship with their parents, try to undergo a process of "desatellization," that is, being independent of parents. Three mechanisms were identified in this process: resatellization with peers, where the dependency relationship is transferred from parents to peers, working to earn status in socially approved activities; and becoming involved in a task-oriented exploration, which is an ensured way toward maturity.

Relative Influence of Parents and Peers

Although adolescents strive towards independence, their behavior is intimately tied to the behavior of their parents and peers, and most of the literature has concentrated on the influence of either parents or peers. However, a small amount of literature seems to focus on the relative influence of parents versus peers on the behavior of adolescents. Furthermore, this literature is incon-

clusive in determining whether problem behavior of adolescents is attributed to the influence of parents or to that of the peer group.

Some researchers have attempted to relate the tendency of peer orientation and the conflict that exists in the parent-child relationship. These researchers have reported that peer-oriented adolescents perceived their parents as less supportive and less controlling than did parent-oriented adolescents. Also, peer-oriented adolescents reported higher levels of conflict with their parents (Edwards & Brauburger, 1973; Condry & Simon, 1974).

Another body of research has dealt with this issue from a different perspective, where the critical factor was the nature of the situation at hand. Adolescents appear to be peer-oriented in current situations and parent-oriented in future situations. So, when adolescents have to decide on current issues such as hair styles, or joining a club, and the like, they become peer-oriented. But, when they face some future decisions such as deciding on an occupation or marriage, they seem to be parent-oriented (Brittain, 1963).

On the other hand, Larson (1972) maintained that adolescents seem to be realistic and have achieved

independence. Hence, their choices seem to be dependent on the content of the situation and neither on peers nor parents *per se*. Most of these studies used hypothetical situations to measure adolescents' orientation, a method which has been criticized by Montemayor (1982) for restricting adolescents' choices, making them respond in stereotypic ways and according to social expectations. Hence, Montemayor developed a time-used methodology to obtain more detailed reports about adolescents' behavior. In this study it was found that adolescents actually spend an equal amount of time with parents and peers, but they seem to engage in different activities with each of them. They share task-oriented activities with their parents, while they share recreational activities with their peers. Additionally, it was found that time spent with parents was negatively correlated with peer time for females and time spent alone for males. It was also found that adolescents who had conflict with their mothers spent much of their time with their fathers, not with peers. Hence, the sex of the father and the sex of the adolescent should be considered in studying parent-child conflict and its relationships to peer orientation.

The research, then, is abundant with evidence that adolescent children up to at least age 14, tend to be increasingly influenced by peer pressure. However, the conclusion that this conformity to peer influence occurs at the expense of the quality of parent-child relationship is not clear as yet.

Furthermore, some researchers have even claimed that during adolescence, interaction with peers tends to support, express, and specify for the peer context the values of parents and other adults. They also have maintained that the adolescents' subculture is also coordinated within the culture of the adult society (Kandel & Lesser, 1980).

Summary

The literature on perceived environment has concentrated on three major areas: parental influence, peer influence, and the relative influence of parents and peers.

The area of parental influence has been divided into three sections: parenting styles, satellization theory, and generation gap. Adolescents whose parents were authoritarian, nonaccepting, and hostile exhibited nondiscipline and problematic behavior. Also, non-satellized children, who were either overvalued or undervalued by their parents, exhibited

disciplinary problems. Concerning the generation gap, the literature has shown that parents and children differ in many aspects, and they tend to have conflict over some issues such as education and religion.

The influence of peers has recently increased, and peers seem to play a major role in influencing the behavior of young adolescents. The literature has also shown that peer-oriented adolescents are more non-disciplined than parent-oriented adolescents. Hence, using peers as models has been a very effective technique in reducing problem behavior in schools. In Bahrain, the younger generation was more peer oriented than the older generation.

The literature of the relative influence on parents and peers is inconclusive. Some investigations have shown that the parent-child conflict is related to peer orientation. Other investigations have claimed that peer orientation depends on the nature of the situation or on its content.

School Climate System

The literature on school climate is abundant and diverse.

In a recent comprehensive review of literature on school climate, Anderson (1982) stated that this body of research is derived from both organizational climate research and school affect research. However, school climate research can be recognized as a separate area of inquiry. Most researchers, according to this review, seems to agree that the school climate construct includes the total environment quality within the school building that is composed of four dimensions: ecology, milieu, social system, and culture. Ecology refers to the physical aspect of an environment, such as building, materials, and equipment. Milieu refers to the social aspect of an environment, such as satisfaction with school, teachers' or students' characteristics. The social system is concerned with pattern relationships of individuals or groups, such as teacher-student relationship. Finally, the culture is related to belief systems, values, and meaning, such as teacher expectations, reward and praise, and peer norms. School climate is also referred to as the interactive life of the school. The difficulty in agreement among researchers on a unified definition of school climate is attributed to differences in theoretical orientations, variables to

study, unit of measurement, and validity of qualitative data (Anderson, 1982; Nwankwo, 1979; Tagiuri, & Litwin, 1968).

Although there is a sizable body of literature dealing with school climate, most of the researchers have attempted to relate school climate to students' achievement or students' academic performance. A few researchers have directed their efforts to investigate the relationship between school climate and school discipline. For the purpose of this study, the literature on school climate has concentrated on three areas: students' satisfaction with school, their commitment to work, and the influence of the teacher.

Satisfaction with School

Some of the investigations that have attempted to relate school climate to school discipline have centered on students' satisfaction with the general climate in school. Epstein and McPartland (1976, 1978) conducted a research on secondary school students with the Quality of School Life Questionnaire. The results of their research revealed that only about one-third of all secondary students reported that they were very happy in

school. It was also reported that older students were less satisfied with their school experience than were younger students, and females had significantly higher scores on the SAT subscale than males. Also, Nwankwo (1979) administered the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire to 400 teachers from 40 secondary schools. School discipline, according to these researchers, was associated with climate type of school: good discipline was associated with open climate and poor discipline was associated with closed climate. Similarly, Willower and Licata (1975) conducted a research on 291 students and 92 teachers in two secondary schools. They found that school discipline was associated with greater satisfaction with school life.

Commitment to Work

Another body of research with respect to school climate has focused on investigating the influence of classroom work and task related activities on school discipline. Wynne (1980) used multiple sources of information, such as staff and student interviews, observations, school documents. One of the major findings was that discipline was associated with the instructional program. Consistent with this view,

Larson and Karpas (1963) maintained that one of the major reasons for adolescent misbehavior in secondary schools was frustration due to bad curriculum and poor teaching. Also, Feldhusen (1978) contended that school contributes to all forms of antisocial, aggressive, and disruptive behaviors that interferes with school functioning. These behaviors according to Feldhusen were the result of poor teaching, irrelevant curricula, student experiences with academic failure, and a negative school climate. Moreover, Gottfredson (1984) suggested that altering the school organization and climate was more effective in preventing discipline problems than approaches which focused on treating individual students. Many other researchers have provided data to support the hypothesis that certain kinds of school programs are indeed effective in reducing disruptive behavior and increasing academic achievement simultaneously. Creating a humanistic and affective school climate was seen to be a major determinant of reducing disruptive behavior in schools and poor scholastic experience as a major cause of disruptive behavior (Gold & Mann, 1982; Myers, 1979).

Consistent with the previous findings Deering and Kingsburg (1981) and Knight (1981) maintained that disruptive behavior may be a result of a dull approach, poor classroom arrangement, a prolonged activity in the classroom, or unmet educational needs. Hence, a well organized effective program could minimize the occurrence of disruptive behavior in the classroom. Research-based guidelines for an effective program for discipline were derived from Chamberline (1971). The program includes preventive plans some of which are: (1) involving students in a high degree of participation; (2) encouraging cooperation among students; (3) providing a learning situation that is free from distraction; (4) developing ideals, interests, and skills to enhance self-control and good citizenship.

Influence of the Teacher

Most of the research pertaining to the relationship between school climate and school discipline has centered on the influence of teachers on students' behavior. Three elements of the teacher's influence have been delineated here: teacher-student relationship, teachers' characteristics, and the teacher's management skills.

Teacher-Student Relationship

Good student-teacher relations have been identified by Gaddy and Kelly (1984) as a major factor in creating and maintaining a positive school climate. In his Teacher Effectiveness Training Program, Glasser (1975) stressed that student-teacher relationship should be based on mutual love, respect, and understanding. The key factor in this relationship is effective communication between the teacher and the students. Also, conducting group discussions, building students' self-esteem and self-responsibility are seen as important goals of teachers who are functioning in a humanistic classroom atmosphere. In agreement with this view, Moskowitz and Hayman (1976) investigated the behavior of first-year teachers in inner-city junior high schools. These researchers discovered that the first contact at the beginning of the school year was critical in establishing effective patterns for controlling student behavior. Also, they found that the most effective teachers employed more behaviors which conveyed the impression of personal acceptance of the students, joked more often, provided helpful suggestions more frequently, and were more generous with verbal reinforcement. These teachers were found to monitor closely the in-

appropriate behaviors of less disciplined students and intervened before disruptive behavior developed. The most effective teachers were also found to be able to create a classroom climate that was positive, exciting, less critical, were generally more humanistic, and interacted more often with students (Duke & Perry, 1978). It was also found that the lack of teacher support was among the most important problems areas of secondary school students (Applegate, 1981).

Teachers' Characteristics

The literature also revealed that certain characteristics of a teacher appear to influence behavior of students to a great extent. For example, Kounin (1970) conducted classroom observations and interviews with students and concluded that clarity, firmness, and roughness were three basic dimensions of teacher behavior. Clarity, according to Kounin, referred to the precision of the communication directed by the teacher to the students regarding appropriate classroom behavior. Firmness was described as the teacher's ability to communicate definiteness of expectations. Finally, roughness

referred to noisy, expressions of anger, frustration, or control.

Data provided by Kounin (1970) clearly suggest that a teacher's action to control a disruptive student affects both that student and other students in the classroom. During the controlling action of the teacher, Kounin found that clarity induced the misbehaving student and surrounding students to conform. He found that firmness generated improved behavior in all concerned students, and roughness resulted in anxiety and disruptive behavior in all students in the classroom. Among the other characteristics of teachers that were seen to be strongly related to students' disruptive behavior was teacher consistency in enforcement of behavior standards and of application of systems of rewards and punishment (Freiberg, 1983; Wilde & Sommers, 1980).

Teachers' Management Strategies

In addition to teacher-student relationship and teacher characteristics, school climate also has been determined by the management strategies and techniques employed by the teacher to decrease the occurrence of disruptive behavior in the classroom.

When attempting to maintain classroom control, the teacher must keep in mind the "ripple effect" as described by Kounin (1970). According to this researcher, the ripple effect is the disturbance of surrounding students, which occurs when a teacher disciplines a misbehaving student. If improperly applied, the disciplinary action of the teacher may produce class disruption beyond the disruption created by misbehaving students.

Kounin (1970) provided some dimensions of teachers' behavior as keys to effective management, some of which are: (1) Teacher withitness, or knowing all the time what is going on in the classroom; (2) overlapping or the ability to do two or more things in the classroom simultaneously without classroom disruption; (3) smoothness in transition from one classroom activity to another; (4) providing variety and challenge in seat-work and (5) group focusing on task or activity.

Effective management of high school teachers involves teacher organization, planning for the first day of school, students' time on task, task variety, teacher-student interaction during instruction, the size of instructional grouping, and dealing with

students' problems as they arise (Eckbreth, 1978; Sanford, 1984; Stallings, 1981).

It was further reported that a good teacher can establish orderly classroom environment, maintain the cooperation of students, individualize the materials and assignments according to students abilities, can use student interests as motivating factors, encourage each student to compete with himself, and be reasonable in making assignments of justifiable length (Deering & Kingsburg, 1981).

Also, Eisenhart (1977) added that a competent teacher should be able to maintain control in the classroom by preserving a system of student behavior and group functioning in the school environment which allows the teacher to select the activities in which the group will engage. To maintain control and affect student behavior the teacher must participate in organizing the school context, particularly those aspects related to (1) the arrangement of physical environment and people in it, (2) the proper use of time, and (3) the use of an appropriate system of rewards and recognition (Eisenhart, 1977).

Summary

The literature on school climate has centered on three areas: students' satisfaction with school, their commitment to work, and the influence of teachers on students' behavior.

Some investigations in the area of satisfaction with school have shown that male students and older students were less satisfied with school than were female students and younger students. Also, good school discipline was associated with open school climate, and poor discipline was associated with a closed climate.

In the area of commitment to work, it was found that students' misbehavior was related to poor teaching, irrelevant curriculum, and academic failure. Moreover, it was found that involving students in classwork, cooperation among students, and developing interests and skills in the classroom could prevent disciplinary problems in school.

The area pertaining to the influence of the teacher has been divided into three parts: teacher-student relationship, teachers' characteristics, and teachers' management skills. Good relationships between the teacher and students have been found to be related to good school discipline. Also, three

dimensions of teacher characteristics were seen to influence students' behavior. These characteristics were clarity, firmness, and roughness. School discipline is also related to the management strategies of the teacher. Some of these strategies are: teacher withitness, overlapping, smoothness in transition from one activity to another, and establishing an orderly classroom environment.

School Discipline in Bahrain

School discipline seems to vary in severity and diversity among different cultures. In the United States, for example, school discipline is a well recognized problem that is supported by alarming statistics. In a recent survey conducted by the National Education Association, discipline in the classroom was found to be reported as the greatest problem facing teachers. The 1983 Poll indicated that 25 percent of the respondents reported that "lack of discipline" was the biggest problem facing local schools. Other studies have indicated that students' behavior problems contribute to a great extent to teacher stress and "burnout" and can also explain why many teachers are leaving their jobs (Fitler & Tokar, 1982; Gallop, 1982, 1983).

In Bahrain, disciplinary problems of students seems to be less severe and less varied than those problems that students exhibit in more advanced countries such as the USA. However, within the Bahraini society, there seems to be variation in the extent to which students exhibit problem behavior. Moreover, the disruptive behaviors that some students exhibit should be considered problematic according to the Bahraini social norms that govern the behavior of children and the way they are disciplined, as implied by Jessor and Jessor (1977).

The literature on school discipline of youth in Bahrain is almost nonexistent. However, one may gain some insight by referral to two major sources. The first source is child discipline in Islam, whereas the second source can be derived from some researches that have been conducted in Bahrain and in some of the Arabian Gulf countries.

Child Discipline in Islam

The first source, child discipline in Islam, which functions as a general guideline for child discipline in Bahrain is derived from the Holy Quran, the main source of Sharia in Islam. In Quran there is much emphasis on good conduct and disciplined

behavior that is expected from people regardless of their sex, nation, or age as revealed by the following verse from Quran as translated by Pickthal (1977).

> O Mankind, we created you from a single pair of male and female and made you nations and tribes that you may know each other. Lo, the noblest among you in the sight of Allah (God) is the most righteous of you, the best in conduct. (Al-Quran 49:13)

Hence, Moslem youths are expected to be well-behaved and well-disciplined in line with the Islamic law that drew general rules of conduct for people in their daily lives. Also, like any other members in the Islamic community, they are forbidden from exhibiting any kind of undisciplined behavior, such as lying, cheating, stealing, drinking, gambling, or any other form of problem behavior.

Islam's general approach to children may be summarized in three principles:

1. The child is not to be the cause of any harm to its parents and the parents should also cause their children no harm. Thus, Islam prohibited infanticide that was prevailing in Arabia prior to Islam. Thus, the relationship between the parents and children should be based on mutual love and obligations.

2. Children are a source of pride and joy to their parents, however, each parent and child has a personal relationship to God that comes first. Each parent and child is independently responsible for his/her own deeds before God.

3. The child is totally dependent on parents and should obey them except when there is a conflict over the choice of God. In this case the child must choose the side of God (Abdel Ati, 1977).

Children in Islam have three major rights: the right to life and equal life chances, the right to legitimacy, and the right to socialization and care. Hence, to take good care of children and to show them love, kindness, and compassion and to teach them proper manners are the basic duties of parents toward their children. The parents are responsible for their children's welfare and support as long as the children are minors and incapable of taking care of themselves (Abdel Ati, 1977).

It is important to note that responsibility for children in Islam is a matter of religious obligation as well as social concern. When parents die and there are no relatives of the children, child discipline and welfare becomes a joint responsibility

of the Moslem community at large, whether designated officials or ordinary people (Abdel Ati, 1977).

The Moslem educator plays a key role in disciplining children, according to Islamic dictator. Hence, he should be a good example for his students in conduct and disciplined behavior, because the Islamic education advocates that a teacher can influence students more by modeling than by lecturing. The teacher is also required to discipline students by showing love, care, and affection and not by using harsh punishment. The major aim of discipline in Islam is religious, that is, to raise good Moslems who abide by the Islamic law and adhere to the fundamentals of Islamic religion (Abdel Ati, 1977).

These fundamentals include Islamic beliefs and duties. Islamic beliefs involve belief in one God, in His angels, His books, His messengers, and in the last day of judgment. Religious duties, which are a practical code, form basic pillars of Islam. These duties consist of the following: (1) profession of faith (kalima), which is the acceptance of the oneness of God and that Mohammed is His messenger; (2) prayers (salat), which are practiced five times a day; (3) fasting (som), which refers to abstinence

from all food and drink from early dawn to late dusk in the month of Ramadan; (4) alms-giving (zakat), which refers to compulsory charity of two and a half percent of one's total wealth; and (5) pilgrimage to Mecca (haj), which every Moslem of both sexes who can afford it should undertake this holy visit once in a lifetime (Al Saleh, 1981; Sheik Ali, 1981).

Problems of Youths in the Arabian Gulf

It is more insightful to understand problem behavior of Bahraini youth with the wider context of youths in the Arabian Gulf, because youths in Bahrain and its neighboring countries share many characteristics in common: religion, language, history, culture, social habits and traditions, the geographic area in the middle of the world, and future aspirations.

There have been a few studies in the Arabian Gulf that have dealt with problem behavior of youths and the focus of these studies was to discover the kinds of problems youths have without trying to understand or explain empirically the factors that are related to these problems.

Al Badri (1972) conducted a study on students at the Riyadh University in Saudi Arabia and discovered

some of the problems that students suffer were absence of school counselors that could guide students and help them solve their problems, poor relationships among students, anxiety, obsession, and being distant from their family.

Another study was conducted by Al Jismani and Al Tahhan (1981) on secondary students at the United Arab Emirates. The results of this study showed that most of the problems were related to morality, religion, adjustment, curriculum, free time, and incompatibility with the opinion of the father.

Similarly, Ismael (1984) listed the problem that students in the Arabian Gulf had as follows:

1. In the United Arab Emirates, the problems were related to school work, such as cheating, absenteeism, and dropout.

2. In Saudi Arabia the problems were specified as psychological and free time.

3. In Iraq the problems were classified as psychological, familial, emotional, and school-related problems.

4. In Qatar, the problems were behavior, health problems, and school problems.

5. In Bahrain, the problems were identified as familial and psychological.

The same study gave some examples of youth problems without relating it to any of the previously mentioned countries some of which were: parental divorce, developmental anxiety, authoritarian methods of parents' discipline, and problems related to sex education and relationship with the other sex.

Al Hiti (1985) criticized the previous studies for the methodologies they used that focused only on individuals and were merely useful for counseling purposes. He further suggested that other researchers should tackle the general problems of youths as well as those that revolve around youths as a group of people that have shared problems, and not only on the specific cases of individuals.

Al Hiti (1985), reviewing the literature on deviant behavior of youth in the Arabian Gulf in relation to school, discovered the following problems: absenteeism, disturbance of teachers in class, disobedience of school regulations, cheating, writing on walls, and damaging public properties.

According to a social study that was conducted in Kuwait, it was found that 52.11 percent of Kuwaiti students at the secondary level did not go to school, mainly because of health-related problems. The majority of students indicated that they had

difficulties in school and the most prevailing problem was disruptive behavior in the classroom. Also, the most difficult subjects, according to secondary school students, were biology and math. In addition, the most difficult problems related to school achievement were difficulty of comprehension of subjects, understanding the teachers' explanations in class, and school discipline (Social Service Directorate in Kuwait, 1973).

Another important source on Arab youths was a series of studies that was presented to the Fifteenth Educational Conference in Kuwait in 1985, organized by the Kuwaiti Teachers Society.

One study was conducted by Al Ghanem (1985) and was aimed at identifying the behavior problem of Kuwaiti youths that resulted from a mismatch between the psychological and the physical aspects of the educational system (scholastic and nonscholastic). The behavior problems of youths according to this study were related to four areas: (a) family, (b) school (c) society at large, and d) the adolescence stage.

A random sample of teachers and students at the secondary level was asked to give their opinions regarding youths' behavior problems within each area.

Concerning problems related to family socialization, 17 items were listed among which were: dependency, authoritarianism, selfishness, vulnerability, passivity, overshyness, fear, violence, jealousy, dishonesty, misuse of new technology, imitation of the behavior of foreigners, and poor religious motives. Both teachers and students found that these problems existed among youths with varying degrees, reaching their maximum in the problem of misuse of new technology and imitation of new behaviors that were foreign to Kuwaiti society. Also, teachers found that over 60 percent of problems of youths could be attributed to family socialization (Al Ghenem, 1985).

Concerning school problems, the teachers found that the most significant problems were related to academic achievement and school discipline. Also, teachers found that school problems exceeded 60 percent of youth's problems. Students, on the other hand, found that the most significant school problems were loss of interest in school work and school discipline. Furthermore, female students perceived that their school had more problems than did the male students.

With respect to problems related to the society at large, the most significant problems were

perceived to be smoking, loss of Islamic Arab identity, loss of meaning in social relationship and not planning for the future.

Finally, in relation to the problems inherent in the adolescence stage, the teachers perceived that the important problems were stubbornness, inability to concentrate, excitability, and turmoil, whereas students found all problems within these areas as important. Some of those problems were: making friends adults did not approve of, daydreaming, turmoil, depression, hypersensitivity, and refusing directions from adults. The results also showed that female students were more sensitive to these problems than were male students (Al Ghenem, 1985).

A series of important studies of youths was conducted by a group of investigations under the guidance of the Amiri Court in Kuwait in 1985. One of these studies was conducted on a sample of youths which was representative of different social, educational, and familial levels, different ages and different residence areas, to study problems of self-adjustment of youth. This study showed that the problem of self-adjustment is of great concern among Kuwaiti youths, and the most significant problem to them was the inability to bear the frustration

resulting from failure in achieving one's goal. In addition, the study revealed that socialization methods were highly correlated with problems of self-adjustment in youth, hence they need to be evaluated and revised. Though the problems of self-adjustment are not serious among youths in Kuwait, there is a need for guidance in the process of family socialization. Also, youths need to understand that life is not always failure or success, and the critical issue is persistence to reach one's goals. Regarding sex differences, females were significantly more incapable of differentiating between right and wrong than were males, were more influenced by what people said, more indecisive, more annoyed by failure, and more feeling bored (Amiri Court--Jizul Dirasat, 1985).

Another study aimed at investigating the problems of youth aspirations and future goals to determine out the relationship between those goals and adjustment. These results showed that the most significant problems were problems related to fear of the future and problems related to unclear future objectives. When different problems were ranked into different levels, the problem of inability to change or to accept others' opinion had the first rank.

Hence, this study recommended that youths should be more tied to new changes in Kuwaiti society to actualize their potentials, need to have clear aspirations to match their capabilities, and also need psychological, vocational, and educational guidance in schools and youth centers to help them discover their potentials and interests and direct them toward achieving their goals (Amiri Court in Kuwait, Jihazul Dirasat, 1985).

Concerning problems related to society at large, another study of the Studies Institute grouped those problems under two major classifications: problems related to irresponsible behavior toward society, and problems dealing with indulging in undesirable behavior and attacking others' properties. The results showed that youths who were well adjusted had positive opinions about youths in society, whereas those who were maladjusted had negative opinions. The number of females who thought that a large number of youths indulged in antisocial behavior was more than that perceived by the males. In general, Kuwaiti youths indicated that some antisocial behaviors prevailing among youths were: drug use, drinking, driving fast, misuse of telephones, and

breakage of school equipment and materials (Amiri Court in Kuwait, Jihazul Dirasat, 1985).

Another study of this series was conducted on Kuwaiti youths. The results of this study showed that organization of free time was a problem of great concern for youths in Kuwait. The nature of free-time problems differed according to nationality and sex. The study further showed that not indulging in sound activities during free time was related to many dimensions of maladjustment: lack of trust in oneself and in one's capability, lack of trust in others, insecure feelings about the future. The activities that should be practiced during free time should be a means and not an end toward whole development (Amiri Court in Kuwait, Jihazul Dirasat, 1985).

Bahrain celebrated the International Year of Youth in 1985 by formulating a national committee that included representatives of all formal and informal sectors concerned with youths to design programs and plans that serve youths in Bahrain under the slogan "youth is the treasure of the country." Many scientific meetings, conferences, debates, and seminars were held for the this occasion. One of the conferences was held in Baghdad in November 1985 to

discuss the contemporary problems in the Arab Gulf society (Follow-up Bureau, 1985).

Bahrain presented a paper at this conference that discussed the needs of youths, their future aspirations, and the methods to overcome obstacles that hinder their development. In this paper youths were defined to fall in the age range between 15 and 24, and two stages were identified. The first stage was between 15 and 18, where physical and mental development are completed. The second stage fall between the ages of 19 and 24, when the youths mature and become capable of participating in the development of their country. Three major problems of Bahraini youths were discussed in this paper: handicapped youths, youths and drugs, and juvenile delinquency (Follow-up Bureau, 1985).

Data showed that the number of handicapped youths was 1,935, which was one percent of the total population under age 30. This number represents moderate and severe cases only, since 85 percent of handicaps are simple cases not yet discovered. Most of the youths' handicaps were physical, followed by mental, poor eyesight, hearing and speech problems, and finally learning disabilities.

The problem of youths and drugs has become the focus of people who are concerned about Bahraini youths, as this problem could have debilitating effects on youths if not adequately treated. Prior to the year 1981 the problem of drug use was not really serious and the number of cases of youths taking drugs was fluctuating according to temporary sets of circumstances. However, beginning with 1981 the number of cases began to increase steadily. While the rate of increase was 26 percent in 1981, it rose to 65 percent in 1983, drawing the attention of officials and the public to the seriousness of the problem.

This paper attributed the drug problem to many reasons, some of which were economic and demographic changes, the sudden increase of wealth in the country, and the foreign manpower that has influenced the integration of the Bahraini society. Bahrain is fully aware of this drug problem and is exerting every possible effort to solve it.

The third problem that this paper discussed was the problem of juvenile delinquency. The total number of reported deviants among Bahraini youth was 260 in 1983 compared to 213 in 1982--increase of 22 percent. Most of the cases were stealing, physical

aggression, damage to others' properties, running away, and immoral behavior. It is important to note that the highest rate of deviants were among males compared to females, and was among those whose ages were between 12 and 14, which constitutes about 60 percent of the total number of delinquents (Follow-up Bureau, 1985).

According to the Follow-up Bureau (1985), juvenile delinquency was attributed to the following factors: (1) parental neglect--some parents did not know where their children went or with whom they associated; (2) family disintegration--both parents were deceased or the fathers who had more than one wife; (3) number of family members--many deviants came from large families where they did not have individual attention or care, or where family members lived in one or two rooms, which could lead to many sexually deviant behaviors; (4) low level of income and harsh treatment of parents--many of the deviants came from poor families or had parents who used harsh physical punishment; (5) free time--most deviants indulged in undesirable behavior when they did not have a place in which to spend their free time, such as summer camps or sports clubs; (6) runaways from schools--quite a large number of deviants quit school

for different reasons, such as they could not cope with most of the subjects that they found difficult or they did not like theoretical studies but preferred more practical ones; and (7) psychological problems--many delinquents seemed to have some emotional disturbances.

The Ministry of Interior in Bahrain has given special attention to this problem and has opened some centers for juvenile delinquents to provide them with adequate care and proper services to help them overcome this problem (Follow-up Bureau, 1985).

An important study on Bahraini youths was conducted by the High Council on Youth and Sports with UNESSIF in 1979 to investigate the needs of the new generation in Bahrain. The sample consisted of 3,205 participants from different sex, age, and geographic distributions. The "new generation" was defined as the group of school children whose ages ranged between 12 and 18, and who had never been married. In contrast, the "present generation" referred to all adults responsible for socializing the new generation, such as parents, educators, and teachers. In this survey, it was found that both generations agreed that the most faulty attribute of the new generation was irrational behavior.

Irrational behavior, according to this survey referred to being impulsive, hasty, irresponsible, and being interested in superficials only.

Drinking, which is one form of problem behavior of adolescents across cultures, seems to be prevalent in some Bahraini adolescents as well. In the same survey, 56.4 percent of participants from the new generation reported that drinking was very prevalent among their peers. However, addiction to drinking was the most refused dimension of character for both generations, the present and the new.

Stealing, which is a highly condemned behavior in the Bahrain society, was attributed to bad discipline by around 50 percent of participants in the survey from both generations, from both sexes, and from both urbans and rurals. Bad discipline came in the second position after poverty, as one of the causes of stealing; however, it came prior to unemployment, nonreligiousity, heredity, and unstrict law, respectively.

In general, the most important problems that Bahraini students at the secondary level seem to have are: family problems, especially divorce; retardation in achievement; absenteeism; and psychological problems (Ismael, 1986).

Government Services for Bahraini Youth

The government of Bahrain offers services and programs for youths through its different institutions, such as the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Information, and through some specialized institutions such as the High Council for Youth and Sports.

The educational services could be reflected in the improvement of the quantity and quality of youth education. For example, some indicators could be the growth of number of students enrolled in schools, increase in number of teachers and schools, rate of success in schools, rate of dropout, amount of budget assigned for education, upgrading of teachers and curriculum, and improvement in health, psychological, and social services in schools.

The number of students in Bahrain increased about 18 percent between 1972-1982. This rate of increase is relatively low compared to its neighboring countries, because education in Bahrain is well established and has its roots in ancient history.

The education budget reached 9.7 percent of the total budget in the year 1980. The low level of the education budget is expected and is attributed to the

fact that most of the construction funds related to education were spent during the last decade and the focus has now been on the current budget (Al Ouni, 1986).

Concerning the percentage of dropouts, it has decreased from 2 percent in 1979/1980 to 1.5 percent in 1980/1981, and this rate is very low compared to other countries in the Arabian Gulf.

The teacher-student ratio in Bahrain is 1:15, though high, it is far better than the one the United Nation recommends.

The number of students and the amount of educational equipment have also increased to accommodate a higher number of students at all levels of education.

The quality of education has improved as well as the quantity. Students at the secondary levels have many options: general, technical, commercial, health sciences, and religions, to cope with the new demands of industrialization and the needs of the country for technical skills. The number of students enrolled in technical education has become 45 percent of the total number of students.

Other educational services the country has contributed to Bahraini youths include upgrading the

qualifications for teachers by training them in difficult fields, providing students with health services, social supervision, school libraries, and educational activities.

Bahraini youths are also provided with different services by the mass media through educational, intellectual, sports programs, and films on radio and television; however, programs directed toward youths constitute a small portion in the mass media in Bahrain (Ismael, 1986).

A major concern of the High Council for Youth and Sports, which was initiated in 1975 under the direct supervision of H.H. Sheikh Isa Bin Hamad Al Khalifah, the heir apparent and the Minister of the Exterior, has been to draw general policy for youths activities and sports so that youths can become healthy, fully developed, socially, intellectually and physically. Some of the activities of this council are: (1) studying the conditions of youths, improving services for them and meeting their needs; (2) developing the intellectual, technical, and scientific talents of youths; (3) organizing youth participation in general social service and local and international occasions; (4) directing youth energies to positive participation in programs for

development; (5) making full use of free time in constructive activities through work camps, summer centers, and youth clubs; (6) organizing exhibitions and intellectual contests among youths to improve their production; (7) encouraging youth responsibility and improving their capabilities in all fields of science, arts, and general service; (8) suggesting and legislating rules and regulations related to youths; and (9) representing Bahrain in youth-related areas locally and internationally and enhancing the role of Bahrain in these areas (High Council of Youth and Sports & UNESSIF, 1979).

Most of the countries in the region have introduced programs for youths that can be grouped into six major areas: sports, cultural, scientific, arts, social, and general service.

These programs however have been criticized for the following reasons:

1. Activities in these programs are considered to be the end and not the means, because there is not so much emphasis on developing leadership and organizing groups among these youths. Also, these programs are concentrated on the elite youths and not on the majority.

2. The current programs are organized into separate or isolated areas of education: sport education, religious education, or social education. As a result, education has lost its holistic meaning and there became an overlap in many of the activities that were disguised under different programs.

3. The current youth programs are not planned or organized by youths themselves. This has made them indifferent and disinterested in these program.

4. Some of the programs are designed without studying the real needs of youths and do not take into account the dynamic and changing needs of youths to cope with the vast changes in their society.

5. There is a lack of coordination between current youth programs and other similar programs that are organized by other institutions, such as schools, family, and society (Economic and Social committee for West Asia, 1985).

Putting youth care into real context, Towfiq (1985) maintained that youth care requires helping youths cross the bridge between childhood and maturity equipped with adequate knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes to find their way in the adults' world. Also, youths have their basic needs as well as psychological needs that they strive to

fulfill. He further indicated that production and services are closely related, and when youths are offered appropriate services they become more capable of production quantitatively and qualitatively. Towfiq maintained that youth care should revolve around the following:

1. Youths should be provided with proper services not during free time only but during working time and free time, as well.

2. Youth care should not be merely a concern of agencies that are specialized in youths, but should be extended to all fields in which youths work or live. This welfare should be comprehensive, treating all youths of different sectors of society on an equal basis.

3. Youth care does not mean only providing services for youths, the aim rather should be concerned with providing the best circumstances for youths so that they can have a full and healthy development;

4. Social studies and researches should be combined with social work by planning agencies at different levels (Towfiq, 1985).

Summary

The literature on discipline in Bahrain has been derived from two major sources: child discipline in Islam and some recent studies on youth problems in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf. Child discipline in Islam is mainly religious and aims at raising good Moslems who abide by Islamic law and the fundamentals of the Islamic religion, which include Islamic beliefs and duties. With regard to studies on problems of youths in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf, they were limited. The bulk of these studies aimed at exploring the kind of problems youths have and they all were descriptive in nature. Also, most of the problems were related to family socialization, school adjustment, problems related to developmental adolescence, and problems related to society at large. Finally, services and programs for youths in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf were presented and criticized.

Major Factors influencing Disciplinary Problems of Bahraini Youths

The literature on disciplinary problems of youths in Baharain has concentrated on three major areas: influence of school, influence of family, and

influence of parents and peers. These three areas have been discussed within the conceptual framework of problem behavior theory on which this study is based. The literature with respect to self-esteem and academic achievement, being very little, has been integrated into the literature on school discipline in Bahrain, as seen earlier in this chapter.

Influence of School

Problem behavior of youths in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf seems to be related to school. Some of these problems, according to Al Qaysi (1986), are: (1) school curricula that are monotonous, long, and do not meet the needs of youth development on the one hand, and the new changes in the society on the other; (2) unequal distribution of students among different specializations; (3) the outdated and inadequate evaluation system; (4) the lack of attention given to technical education, though in Bahrain the percentage of students enrolled in this kind of education is relatively high compared to other countries in the Arabian Gulf; (5) ineffective teaching methods; (6) high teacher-student ratio; (7) poor teacher training methods; and (8) poor

coordination between the educational and the planning institutions.

Al Qaysi (1986) further indicated that the poor relationship between school curricula and social reality outside has led students toward office jobs devaluing the technical ones. Also, poor student activities, the nonexistence of real educational guidance, and the inadequacy of some school buildings have contributed to the appearance of some undesired behaviors among youths such as indifference, disobedience, cheating, dropouts, and other school problems that hinder youths' contributions to their society. Al Qaysi did not criticize the Bahraini educational system in particular, but referred to the educational system of the countries in the Arabian Gulf in general.

Al Qaysi (1986) also criticized informal education claiming that the concept of free time is misunderstood in most of the Arabian Gulf countries. He emphasized that the free time of youths should not be separated from productive work in school but rather that there should be a natural continuation between the two. Hence, Quasi claimed that the programs for youths in most of the countries in the region were not adequate.

Hatab and Makki (1986) grouped the school-related problems of youths into three categories: students' problems related to the process of preparing for classes, problems related to school curriculum, and problems related to the physical and administrative structures of the schools.

The new technological changes that entered the region have been reflected in the educational arena. The teacher has lost the role as the mere mediator of education, who conveys knowledge to students through lecturing. The new role of the teacher has changed into that of a guide or facilitator who motivates students through discussion and problem-solving so that they may discover knowledge by themselves. The new concept of education has included other mediators of knowledge such as those who are concerned with psychological, educational, or vocational guidance. So, any problem related to preparation of youths may evolve if the educational institutions overlook the roles of these new mediators of knowledge. Some of these problems may be failure, underachievement, dropout, and poor preparation of students for classes (Hatab & Makki, 1980).

With respect to problems related to curriculum and educational objectives, they are related to the

understanding of oneself, society, and the world; if the curriculum fails to satisfy the needs of youths in these areas of understanding, it could create real problems in their lives. When students do not understand their own capabilities and their real potentials, this may result in continuous failure in their vocational life. Also, if students do not accommodate the values and culture of their own society, they can have different social adjustment problems. Furthermore, if youths do not acquire the necessary skills to enter the job market, they will be incapable of productive work, and consequently an important part of human resources will be lost. Other problems may also evolve if the curriculum stays rigid and inflexible, which will inevitably lead youths to find themselves incapable of using new technology. This may lead to frustration and hinder the full development of youths.

There also exist some problems for youths in relation to the physical and administrative structure of the organization. Schools and colleges are not a place to obtains knowledge only; they are fields of continuous social and intellectual interaction among different members of the academic community. Hence, failure of educational institutions in their new

functions would create some problems on the part of youths, such as shyness, hesitance, loss of trust, conflict with authority and own culture, especially in relation to regulations, rules, and social customs and traditions (Hatab & Makki, 1980).

Concerning attitudes related to school, one of the studies that was conducted in Kuwait on a large sample of students showed that the most prevailing negative attitudes among students were: society favors those who have money more than those who have degrees; feeling happy when departing from school; there is nobody in school who helps solves students' problems; school administration is harsh; being an underachiever compared to others. The study also revealed that there were more males than females who agreed with these negative attitudes toward school (Amiri Court in Kuwait, Jihazul Dirasat,1985).

Teacher-Student Relationship in Bahrain

Teachers play an important role in the educational process, because they are the ones who implement the educational policy of decision makers, apply curricula inside classrooms, and interact with students. Also, they provide models for students to emulate.

The role of an educator is related to his/her qualifications, performance, personal behavior, attitudes, and the relationship with others in school, both administrators and students (Bin Hamidah, 1985).

The teacher-student relationship in Baharain has recently become the focus of both the officials and the public. This relationship has been perceived to be deteriorating, which triggered many debates and controversies trying to locate the reason for the deterioration of this relationship. As there are no empirical data on this issue, investigating this issue from local newspapers, namely the interviews of people at different levels of the educational process, may shed light on teachers' status in Bahrain and its impact on the teacher-student relationship.

The teacher-student relationship and consequently school discipline seem to be tied to the disciplinary methods teachers use. It was reported that Bahraini students dislike teachers who punish them and like those who do not. Some of these students strongly refused corporal punishment as a disciplinary method used by teachers. Furthermore, some students indicated that their teachers favored rich

students, the physically attractive, and especially the high achievers (Suar, 1986).

The teacher-student relationship seems to be related also to the changing status of Bahraini teachers and the devaluation of the teaching profession after the economic boom in Bahrain in the 1970s. The economic boom and the sudden increase in wealth in the country have induced many economic and social changes which have influenced education as well. People became money-oriented and consequently, finding that other professions demanded more income than teaching, they gave secondary importance to teachers (Suar, 1986).

Furthermore, it was documented that some Bahraini teachers, besides having low economic and social status, were not qualified for the job, did not have enough training, and were overburdened with many hours of teaching and other responsibilities related to school life (Suar, 1986).

The mass media were also seen to influence the teachers' status. A long time ago the teacher used to have the major role in educating youths, whereas at present the mass media, such as television and videos, have become more important mediators of

knowledge and have made the teacher's role less important (Suar, 1986).

It was further reported that the relationship of teachers with principals were sometimes negative, which may lead teachers to displace their frustration on students. Also, the teacher-student ratio, which is important in the educational process, is very high in Bahrain (Suar, 1986).

It was reported that school discipline in Bahrain and the negative relationship between teachers and students could be attributed to the recent educational policy of automatic promotion of students from one grade to another. Therefore, students, knowing that they will pass anyway at the end of the year, even if they fail in one subject, became less respectful of teachers, achieved less, and exhibited some kinds of problem behavior (Suar, 1986).

Summary

School environment or school climate seems to have a great influence on youths in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf region in general. Most of the problems associated with school climate deal with school curricula that are monotonous and long, unequal

distribution of students among different specializations and low level of enrollment in technical education, inadequacy of the evaluation systems in schools, poor teacher training, lack of coordination between the educational and the planning institutions, and poor preparation of youths for real life situations outside school.

The teacher-student relationship has been the focus of officials and the public recently in Bahrain. This relationship is seen to be deteriorating for many reasons, among which are: The policy of automatic promotion from one grade to another, low economic and social status of the teaching profession, poor preparation and training of teachers, the influence of the mass media, and the absence of rules that organize the teacher-student relationship.

Influence of Family

The Arabic family, unlike the family in the West, plays a major role in the socialization of its youths. In the field study that was conducted in Bahrain by the High Council for Youth and Sport and UNESSIF (1979), the majority of the urban youths that participated in the study indicated that the family

was the most influential social institution on behavior. Also, the rural youths indicated that they wished that the family would have the greatest influence, though they chose school to have this position.

The influence of family on youths in Bahrain can be manifested in the following areas:

Changing Role of Bahraini Family

Before oil, the economic situation in the Bahraini family was based on the production of the family as a whole, where brothers, sons, cousins, and uncles used to work together as a team. The eldest member of the family, usually the grandfather, is an authoritarian figure who had absolute power over the other members of the family. Family ties were very strong in the extended family, where all family members lived in one house which usually included three generations: the grandparents, the parents, and the children. The economic situation was also based on the tribal distribution of the society, where families were divided into different social levels whose importance depended on wealth, power, or origin (Ameen, 1983).

With the discovery of oil, and the change of the traditional economy into a new one based on

industrialization, commerce, and services, the structure of the extended family has also changed into a nuclear one. In this new family system the husband lives with his wife and children only and each family member is distinguished by his own individual capabilities. Also, the woman's status has improved and the wife started earning a living beside her husband.

The new economy has provided youths with work opportunities, so they have their own income, which has made them independent of their fathers. Also, they are able, after marriage, to have a home of their own away from their families. This has weakened the power of the father and has made children free in making their own decisions. Youths now even compete with adults in the work market, as formal education has provided them with new skills that the new economy demands, which the older generation does not have. Hence, part of the socialization of children has been taken away from the family by other institutions in the society, which has made the family less influential on the youths, since they no longer need it for protection, education, and economic or social security (Ameen, 1983).

Modernization, therefore, has made parents more permissive and less authoritarian, and this permissiveness, as one study on Arabic families has shown, increases with more exposure to modernization (Najati, 1974).

Family Problems

Concerning family problems, Al Qaysi (1986) maintained that family problems such as divorce, death of one parent or both, polygamy, authoritarianism of parents, physical punishment, threats, lack of mutual trust and understanding between parents and children, as well as social and economic status of the family result in some deviant behavior on the part of youths such as cheating, lying, stealing, sexual deviance, rebellion, and irresponsible behavior.

Parental Socialization Methods

Parental socialization methods in Bahrain can be shown in three areas: parental control, verbal communication, and participation in decision making.

Parental control, as revealed in one of the studies that was conducted on a group of youths at the University of Kuwait, was related to some adjustment problem of youths (Turkey, 1974). This study showed that parental control over their

children through inducing feelings of anxiety and guilt was related to the inability of children to cope with different life situations. On the other hand, parental support for achievement was related to self-confidence.

Families of delinquents in the Arabian Gulf seem to use ineffective socialization methods with their children. Al Khateeb et al. (1981) conducted a study on some delinquents in some of the Arabian Gulf countries. This study showed that the families of these delinquents used some ineffective socialization methods such as blaming, comparing with others, physical punishment, threats, and even involving the police to solve the problems that their youths exhibit.

Verbal communication between parents and children seems to be lacking in Arabian families. About 65 percent of students at the secondary school in Kuwait indicated that they had no difficulty in family relationships. Among those who had problems related to their families, the most important problems were lack of verbal communication with parents, problems related to allowance, control of older siblings, and adherence to old beliefs by the family (Social Service Directorate in Kuwait, 1973).

Participation in making decisions in matters related to youths' lives was important to them. In the survey that was conducted by the High Council of Youth and Sports and UNESSIF (1979), the participants were given a hypothetical situation, where a father was hesitant whether or not to let his children, who became adolescents, participate in making decisions on how to manage his own business, which was their shared, source of income. If he shared decisions with them, his work would be delayed because of the conflict in opinions that might arise among them. On the other hand, the children's actual participation was the only way toward their maturity, though this might have a negative impact on his business. Responding to this hypothetical situation, the majority of the participants agreed that the father should share decisions with this children. However, the results showed that the present (old) generation was more inclined to take the authoritarian position than was the new generation. At the same time, males were more inclined toward sharing than were females (High Council for Youth and Sport & UNESSIF, 1979).

Generation Gap

Another important problem that has influenced the behavior of youths in Bahrain and the Arabian

Gulf is the generation gap between the older generation and the new generation. Al Qaysi (1986) maintained that the new technological and social changes that entered the Arabian Gulf with modernization, coupled with the development of new means of communication, have widened the gap between the two generations. Besides, the developmental changes at adolescence contributed significantly to this problem. The critical issue, according to Al-Qaysi, was that socialization methods and social values did not change relative to the rapid changes in the physical environment in the lives of youths.

The generation gap in Bahrain can be detected from the different attitudes between the old and the new generation in Bahrain in relation to different issues pertaining to their lives. The field of study that was conducted by the High Council for Youth and Sport with the UNESSIF (1979) revealed that many attitudinal differences existed between the old and the new generation in Bahrain in many areas that were investigated in the study. These differences were also revealed when each generation indicated how it viewed the other generation. For example, though both generations agreed that the most outstanding attributes they both had was adhering to religion,

morality, and old traditions, each generation claimed this attribute applies best for its group. Over 40 percent of the participants in this study, of both generations, responded that they did not find any positive quality in the new generation. Furthermore, when the participants were asked which generation they would prefer, each generation chose its own. Hence, this study revealed that there is a generation gap between the old and the new generation.

Lack of Cooperation Between Family and School

Lack of cooperation between the family and school seems to influence Bahraini students' disciplinary problems in school. After the economic boom in Bahrain in the 1970s, the families became obsessed with finding new sources of income to increase their riches, hence putting all the burden of educating their children on the shoulders of teachers. It has been claimed that most parents view school as a custodial institution only. Also, some teachers and principals claimed that many parents only show up during the "Open Day," which is the day that schools schedule for parents to visit the school of their children to see what is going on in schools and how their children are doing there (Suar, 1986).

Relative Influence of Parents and Peers

Peer groups seem to play an important role in the lives of Bahraini youths. The field study that was conducted on Bahraini youths in 1979 stated that friendship among members of the new generation was stronger than that among the present generation. This was attributed according to this study to: (1) the new generation is much freer than the older generation from commitment toward the family as it imposes certain duties and formalities; (2) the school plays a basic role in formulation and improvement of friendship; (3) the society is more liberal with the youths who spend time with their friends away from their families than with adults; and (4) the intergenerational conflict that makes youths more vulnerable to being directed toward friends as an outlet for them from the pressure of conventional groupings. The data also showed that when friends met they mainly spent their time sharing conversations about work, school, and sports. In this study it was further reported that "friends" were ranked in the fourth position in terms of influence for all subgroups.

The field research that was conducted in Bahrain in 1979 revealed that, though the majority of

respondents reported that they would seek the advice of their parents if they confronted a personal problem, there were significant differences among the subgroups on responding to this item. The males preferred their fathers and the females preferred their mothers. Also, males and rurals preferred seeking the advice of a friend to that of their mother. Concerning the new generation, who were adolescents, they were significantly different from the old generation in choosing their friends. Besides, an almost equal number of respondents, that is 25.9 and 24 percent, chose either their mother or a friend as a source of guidance to seek when having a personal problem (High Council & UNESSIF, 1979). Hence, the status of a friend seems to play an important role for many Bahraini adolescents, especially for males and rurals. However, the father appears to have the most significant influence on all subgroups of respondents.

In the same survey, a similar result was achieved concerning choosing idols. For the new generation, 29.5 percent chose the father, 10.4 percent chose the mother, and 29.1 percent chose "others." For males, 31 percent chose the father, 2.7 percent chose the mother, and 19.6 percent chose

"others." For females, 20.3 percent chose the father, 13.7 percent chose the mother, and 34 percent chose "others." The responses of rurals and urbans were also similar to those of the other subgroups (High Council & UNESSIF, 1979).

Al Khateeb et al. (1981) conducted a study on delinquents whose ages ranged between 7 and 18. Of these delinquents, 26.8 percent attributed their misbehavior to the influence of their friends, whereas 14.4 percent attributed it to the influence of their family.

Summary

The influence of family on youths in Bahrain seems to be paramount. This influence has been discussed in relation to some areas such as: changing role of Bahraini family, family problems, socialization methods, generation gap, cooperation between family and school. Then, influence of peers and relative influence of peers and family in Bahrain were also discussed.

Influence of Demography

Demography plays an important role in influencing the behavior of youths in Bahrain and its neighboring countries. In this section the

characteristics of these youths are described, then the literature pertaining to each of the demographic variables that were included in this study is discussed. These variables, as will be mentioned later in Chapter III in more detail, are sex differences, specialization, economic level of family, family size, educational level of family, birth order in family, and geographic distribution.

According to population census in 1981 the size of Bahraini youths was estimated to be about 22 percent of the total population, assuming that the youths fell in the range between 15 and 24 years of age. It was also found that the percentage of males and females was equal among the nationals, whereas males exceeded females among foreign youths.

Furthermore, it was reported that the percentage of foreign youths in relation to the total population of youths in Bahrain between the ages of 20 to 24 was over 50 percent, which was an increase of 61 percent. This sheds light on the problem of heavy reliance on foreign manpower in Bahrain, which may have a negative impact on the comprehensive development planning that should depend on national manpower (Directorate of Statistics, 1983; Ismael, 1986).

Another important issue that was raised by the Ismael (1985) study is the educational status of Bahraini youths within the broader perspective of Arabian Gulf youths. It was reported in this study that 56.5 percent of Bahraini youths were not enrolled in public education and that within this percentage the number of females exceeded the number of males. Though this high percentage could be partially justified by the enrollment of many youths in private schools, it does not explain why the number of females outside schools surpasses the number of males. Furthermore, according to the 1981 census, the percentages of Bahraini youths who were illiterate between the ages 15 to 19 and 20 to 24 were 10.0 and 14.7, respectively. For the first age group 3.8 percent were males and 7.0 percent were females, whereas for the second age group 4.3 percent were males and 8.6 percent were females. Hence, the number of illiterate females was far more than that of the males (Statistical Abstract/1983, 1984).

Concerning the marital status, the above study reported that 21 percent of youths in Bahrain were married and this ratio was less in Bahrain than in some of its neighboring countries such as the United Arab Emirates. Also, the number of married males,

unlike youths in Kuwait exceeded the number of married females.

Sex Differences

Research indicates that there is very little difference between the sexes in academic achievement orientation, although there appears to be a tendency for girls to maintain a higher level of interest in academic achievement. Evidence indicating whether either sex is subject to more parental pressure for school achievement is scanty. Based on the small amount of available data it appears that neither boys nor girls are given greater encouragement by parents to succeed academically. However, when parental expectations are examined with respect to attending college, it is clear that parents more often hold such an expectation for their sons than for their daughters (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974)

Research investigating the amount of praise, reward, or other positive feedback given to children has provided mixed results. Many studies have found no sex differences in this area, but in those studies where differences were found, it becomes clear that boys receive greater amounts of both positive and negative feedback than do girls. Although it was

found that lower-class mothers give their sons more positive feedback during a problem-solving task than they give their daughters, it was also revealed that the mother expressed more disapproval of boys' behavior in other situations. Within the classroom setting, it was found that teachers give more praise and more disapproval to boys than they do to girls (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974).

A review of the literature by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) found that there were clear differences in the amount and kind of discipline directed at boys and girls. Almost always, boys receive more physical punishment than do girls. This finding has been found to be consistent across a wide range of ages, and is found in both interview and observational studies. Boys also receive more of what has been referred to as "simple power assertion." Although this may take the form of physical punishment, there are other forms of direct coercion, such as physically picking up a child and moving him from one location to another.

It was found that when mothers express disapproval to their sons, they are more likely to simply say "No." But with their daughters mothers' prohibitions were found to be softened or deflected with

suggestions of alternate behavior for the girls to engage in, instead. In a large-scale study conducted in England, few differences were found in the parental treatment of boys and girls up to the age of 4 years. The major difference that the researchers found was that boys were the recipients of more physical punishment and were suspended from school far more frequently than girls (Bryan & Freed, 1982; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Manley-Casimir, 1977).

The well-established fact that boys receive more physical punishment than girls may be explained, in part, by the observation that boys are more aggressive than girls. In all cultures where relevant behavior has been observed, boys have been found to be more physically and verbally aggressive. They also display attenuated forms of aggression, such as mock-fighting and aggressive fantasies, more often than girls. Sex differences in aggression have been found in children as young as 2 years of age. Although aggressive behaviors decrease with age in both sexes, boys and men remain more aggressive than girls and women throughout the college years.

The above data may provide insights into the observed phenomenon that male students tend to display behavior problems more frequently than female

students (Eisenthal & Strauss, 1970). Being more physically and verbally aggressive, male students are more likely to engage in behaviors which are disruptive to classroom learning activities. Furthermore, Brown (1982) reported that peer pressure was stronger among female students than male students. Therefore, peer-oriented programs designed to curb problematic school behavior would be less effective with boys, who are less responsive to pressures from peers and also more likely to be disruptive and in need of intervention.

When intervention strategies designed to reduce problematic school behavior are employed by adults, such as teachers and parents, such strategies are less likely to be effective with male students than with female students. This statement was supported by the reports of Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) which showed that boys more often attempted to dominate adults, and girls were more compliant to the demands and direction of adults. Since boys are more physically and verbally aggressive than girls and less compliant to the demands of adults and peers, it seems inevitable that the bulk of reported cases of discipline problems involves boys rather than girls. The problem is further enhanced by the fact that

girls exhibit greater interest in school and assigned work than do boys.

Douvan and Adelson (1966) reported on their national survey of adolescents and noted that identity formation was a more active issue for boys than for girls. For boys the issue of identity centered around interrelated themes of autonomy, achievement, and vocational choices. For girls, identity was likely to be synthesized around interpersonal relationships and the development of intimacy. It was also noted that self-conceptions for girls tended to be more diffuse, undecided, and unformed. These researchers concluded that self-definition for girls was deferred to, and the self was defined in terms of future successful experiences in courtship and marriage. These findings reflect the traditional sex-role socialization. In the 1980s a similar survey may reveal different results.

In Bahrain sex differences are striking in many areas. Being a traditional society, males and females are socialized differently when they are very young. High Council for Youth and Sport & UNESSIF, (1979) reported in their survey that the majority of the participants reported that the major obstacle hindering the Bahraini women's development is the old

habits and traditions. In Arabia, a long time ago, the distinction between the sexes began before the child was born. The overwhelming desire of parents was to have boys. If the newborn baby was a boy, he was greeted with great pleasure, but if it was a girl, the mother was ashamed and the father's face was darkened with displeasure. The Islamic religion has reproached the practice; some parents, however, still carry these old habits to the present (Patai, 1971).

In the new era of development in Bahrain, a female's status has improved to a great extent. Many people, however, still hold the belief that a woman's first place is at home to rear children and manage the household. In the field study that was conducted by the High Council for Youth and Sport and the UNESSIF (1979) it was found that there was a significant difference between the different subgroups on the major objective of girls' education. The older generation, the males, and the rurals saw that the major objective of girls' education was to prepare them to be good housewives. On the other hand, the new generation, females, and urbans found it to be preparing girls for work.

The statistical data in Bahrain in 1983 showed that Bahraini females surpass Bahraini males with respect to academic achievement at all educational levels, primary, intermediate and secondary. It was also reported that Bahraini males are more oriented toward their peer group than Bahraini females and as was mentioned earlier, that in Bahrain males were more oriented toward their fathers and females toward their mothers (Council of Ministers, 1984; High Council for Youth and Sport & UNESSIF, 1979).

Furthermore, fathers tend, as Turkey (1975) claimed, to control males more than females, which adds a psychological burden on males. Turkey (1974) further delineated the difference between the perception of males and females on parental care and came out with the following results: (1) males perceive that both parents exert more control on them than on females; (2) males perceive that both parents give them more independence than females; (4) females perceive that their mothers exert more control on them than do their fathers; and (5) males perceive that their mothers accept them more than they accept females. These results indicated that the sex of the parent in relation to the sex of the child is important to understanding parental care. So, the

father is the authority figure for male children and the mother is the authority figure for female children.

Specialization

In most of the Arab countries in the Gulf region, the development of human resources does not meet manpower requirements. The specialization of art, which only qualifies youth for administrative and bureaucratic jobs, is overcrowded in the government, whereas the technical jobs that are needed are still not filled. However, between the years 1981-1982, Bahrain had about 45 percent of its total number of students enrolled in technical education at the secondary level, whereas 20.3 percent and 34.5 percent were enrolled in arts and sciences, respectively. This percentage is relatively high compared to other countries in the region, where the percentage of arts specialization exceeds 50 percent and percentage of technical education, except Iraq, falls below 12 percent. The science specialization is relatively low in Bahrain compared to its neighboring countries, and 30 percent of students at the secondary level in technical education are commerce majors (Al Ouni, 1986).

Economic Level of the Family

The economic level of the family is a wide area in the literature, however, in relation to Bahrain, there have been few statistical data without pinpointing the influence of these variables on different dimensions or times of youths.

Before the discovery of oil, the family was the economic producing unit besides being a social unit for its members. The new economic changes after the discovery of oil made the family a consuming unit after it had been producing and consuming at the same time (Ameen, 1983).

The social change introduced new jobs for youths that were different from those of the older generation. The rate of administrative, clerical, service, and industry jobs increased, whereas the rate of vocational, technical, trade, agricultural, and fishing jobs, which had prevailed in the villages, decreased (High Council for Youth and Sports & UNESSIF, 1979).

The rate of Bahraini employees according to the census of 1981 was 24 percent of the total population. Also, the number of those who were searching for jobs was 4,021, of which 65.8 percent

were males and 34.2 percent were females (Directorate of Statistics, 1981). Importantly, the influx of foreign manpower after the economic boom in Bahrain in the early 1970s made it more difficult for nationals to find jobs, since foreigners were favored by many agencies and companies. Besides, the distribution of income over a larger number of individuals decreased the share for the Bahraini individual, though it generally increased significantly during this period. Data also showed that the number of families decreased as monthly income increased, and the highest ratio (38 percent) was for families who had income between BD 100-199 above which the number of families started to decline (Directorate of Statistics, 1975). In general, families that had monthly incomes of less than BD 200 constituted 50.6 percent of the total number of families, whereas those whose income was over BD 500 constituted only 8.7 percent (Ameen, 1983; Directorate of Statistics, 1976). In the study that was conducted by Al Khateeb et al. (1981) on some delinquents in the Arabian Gulf, it was found that 58.5 percent of these delinquents lived in low income areas.

Family Size

One important demographic variable is the number of family members. The average number of family members in Arabian countries is high compared to that of some Western countries. The size of the family differs according to its structure. The size of the extended family is large because it tends to increase the number of its members to utilize them in farming, diving or fishing. In contrast, the size of the nuclear family is small because, within a modern economy and a changing culture, the focus of the family has centered on a few children who can be provided with good quality education and care (Ameen, 1983).

Concerning the size of the family in Bahrain, data were inconsistent. Ameen (1983) reported that the size of the family ranged between 6.0 and 7.7, and he attributed the inconsistencies in reporting these data to the fact that some sources focused on Bahrainis more than on foreigner, while other sources dealt with both.

Family size is related to the fertility rate, economic level of the family, and the educational level of the family, especially of the mother.

Family planning also plays a big role in determining family size (Ameen, 1983).

Educational Level of the Family

The economic level of the family seems to be related to the educational level, because the more educated an individual is, the more opportunity he/she has to find a better job and consequently improve the economic level of that family. Statistical data in Bahrain were consistent with the above hypothesis. The Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (1979) reported that the average income of illiterates was 176, which increased to reach 363 for those who had college degrees and a higher level of education. Though this is a general rule, there were many exceptions in Bahraini data which showed that there were many individuals who had high income with a low level of education. In fact, the lack of educational planning in Bahrain accounts for the overconcentration in the specialization of the arts, which the job market does not need, hence creating a problem of unemployment among educated people as well.

Birth Order in Family

Ordinal position has frequently been suggested to be an important variable influencing children's behavior at different ages. Though in Bahrain there has been no empirical studies confirming this speculation, there is some evidence in the literature indicating that individuals of different birth order tend to be different on different behavioral dimensions. First-born children have shown a high need for achievement, high responsibility scores, low test anxiety, strong self-discipline, need for approval, susceptibility to social pressure, high ability of leadership, conformity to authority, self-sufficiency, and task orientation. Contrastingly, later-born children have been described as being more socially oriented, more popular with peers, and as being nonconformist (Forer, 1977, Miller & Maruyama, 1976).

Different social environment within the same family could be responsible for these differences; that is, the behavior of children could be dependent on the way their parents and siblings treat them. In one study, Baskett (1984) showed that though parents and siblings emitted similar levels of prosocial responses toward oldest and last born children,

oldest children were more likely to be the recipient of negative responses than were last born children.

In general, the literature on the influence of birth order on behavior of children was inconclusive and Steelman and Powell (1985) attributed the inconsistencies of birth order research to shortcomings of past inquiries. The limitations of previous researchers have been due to the failure to take confounding variables into account. Some of these variables are sex differences, socioeconomic status, and family size. These investigators conducted a study on the two samples of children whose ages were 6 to 11 and 12 to 17, respectively. Controlling for some confounding variables, such as gender, family size, and socioeconomic status, the results of this study revealed that birth order was significant and a positive predictor of social success. Later-born children were better in terms of outgoingness, popularity, and ease in making friends. Nevertheless, some behavior such as leadership appears to be influenced by birth-order for males but not for females (Steelman & Powell, 1985).

Geographic Distribution

In Bahrain, unlike most other countries in the region, the youths in the rural areas do not constitute a big portion of the total number of youths. Bahraini youths in the rural areas constitute about 15 percent compared to 85 percent in urban areas. The ratio of urban youths is increasing rapidly with modernization (Economic and Social Committee for West Asia, 1986).

Geographic distribution is also related to family income. Families that had an income of over BD 200 constituted 44.2 percent of families in the cities compared to 31.5 percent in the villages. Also, the average monthly family income reached BD 302 in the cities and 234 in the villages (High Council for Youth and Sports & UNESSIF, 1979).

Consistent with the above findings, another study that was conducted by the High Council for Youth and Sports, UNESSIF, and the Ministry of Health in 1980 found that people in the income group between BD 100 - 199 had the highest ratio among other groups in both cities and villages. Also, this rate reached 37.2 percent in cities compared to 44.4 percent in villages, whereas families with monthly income over 200 reached 49.3 percent in cities and 38.9 percent

in villages. The latter group has increased recently in both cities and villages. In spite of the increase in family income, this could not be a good indicator of improvement of the economic level of families because the rate of inflation has greatly increased in the country

Summary

The previous literature on demography dealt with seven variables: sex differences, specialization, economic level of the family, family size, educational level of the family, birth order and geographic distribution.

Bahraini youths constitute a big portion of total population and numbers of females and males are almost equal. There is a high percentage of youth who are illiterate and outside of schools.

The literature showed that the different demographic variables that were included in the study were interrelated and influence youths' behavior. However, there are no empirical data supporting this speculation in the Arabian Gulf in general, and in Bahrain in particular.

Research Questions

In light of the previous literature, seven research questions are sought to be answered with respect to the significant difference between disciplined and non-disciplined students on each of the following measures of demography: sex, specialization, economic level of family, family size, educational level of family, order in family, and geographical distribution. Each research question is stated and followed by a rationale for being included in the study.

Question 1

Is there any significant difference between males and females for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in secondary general education on measures of discipline?

Rationale

The previous literature on sex differences revealed that males and females are socialized differently by parents. Boys seem to receive greater amounts of both positive and negative feedback than girls (Maccoby & Jackline, 1974)) In all cultures, boys have been found to be more physically and verbally aggressive, and are more likely to engage in

discipline behavior in schools (Eisental & Strauss, 1970, Brown, 1983). In Bahrain, males and females are also treated differently due to religious and social background. Boys are given more independence and freedom, whereas girls stay more at home and their freedom is restricted. Males in the Arabian Gulf perceive that their parents exert more control on them and that their mothers accept them more than females. On the other hand, females perceive that their mothers exert more control over them (High Council for Sport and Youth & UNESSIF, 1979; Turkey, 1974, Turkey, 1975). Some teachers and principals in Bahrain have claimed that boys are less disciplined than girls (Suar, 1986), however, this speculation is not empirically tested in Bahrain.

Question 2

Is there any significant difference between students of different specializations (arts versus science), for the selected sample of Bahraini youths on measures of school discipline?

Rationale

Specialization of youths seems to play an important role in influencing the behavior of youths in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf. Some scholars have

claimed that the uneven distribution of students among different specializations and the mismatch between some of these specializations and the economic demands of the country could result in some kinds of youth problems (Ameen, 1983, Al Ani & Al Qubaysi, 1985, Al Qaysi, 1986). In addition, many teachers have indicated that arts students are less disciplined than science students. However, this observation requires an empirical support which may be provided in this study.

Question 3

Are there any significant differences among students of different economic levels of families: (high, above average, average, and low) for the selected sample of Bahraini youths, on measures of school discipline?

Rationale

The economic level of the family appears to be related to behavior of youths previous literature has revealed. Youths who were deviants came from low income families (Al Khateeb et al., 1981; Follow-up Bureau, 1985). However, in Bahrain this speculation needs empirical support.

Question 4

Are there any significant differences among students of different family size: low (3 or less), (4-6), and (7 or more), for the selected sample of Bahraini youths on measures of school discipline?

Rationale

Previous research on family size revealed that due to the religious and cultural beliefs, the average size of Arabian family is high compared to that of the Western family. In Bahrain, data reporting family size were inconsistent, ranging between 6.0 and 7.7 (Ameen, 1983). In general, the literature indicated that family size is positively related to the perception of parents as loving and supportive, and negatively correlated with their perception as punitive and controlling (Peterson & Kunz, 1975). In addition, the literature relating parental punitiveness, control, and lack of support to youth problem behavior, was abundant (Nihira et al., 1975; Robinson, 1978; Rode, 1971). Hence, family size could be consequently related to problem behavior of youths, which this study has attempted to explore.

Question 5

Are there any significant differences among students of different educational level of family (low, average, and high), for the selected sample of Bahraini youths, on measures of school discipline?

Rationale

The previous literature indicated that children who came from low socioeconomic level of family exhibited more kinds of problem behavior than children who came from high socioeconomic levels (Eaves, 1975; Touliatos & Lindholm, 1975). In addition, the literature showed that the economic level of the family is highly related to the educational level of the family (Ameen, 1983). Thus the educational level of the family may also be related to disciplinary problems of youths.

Question 6

Are there any significant differences among students of different birth order (eldest, middle, and youngest), for the selected sample of Bahraini youths on measures of school discipline?

Rationale

The literature relating birth order to school discipline generally indicated that birth order is an important variable influencing behavior of youths.

First, children were shown to score high on measures of self discipline, leadership, and conformity, whereas later-borns were shown to be more socially oriented, more popular with peers, and nonconformist (Forer, 1977; Miller & Maruyama, 1975). However, the literature relating birth order to school discipline in Bahrain is nonexistent, hence this study has attempted to delineate this relationship.

Question 7

Is there any significant difference among students of different geographical distribution (urbans versus rurals) for the selected sample of Bahrain youths on measures of school discipline?

Rationale

The literature on geographical distribution revealed that when Bahrain entered modernization after oil discovery many social changes occurred, one of which was the immigration of people from villages to cities, where work opportunities were centered. More recently, the economic boom introduced new social and economic changes, such as the influx of foreign manpower, spread of mass media and means of communications, and the widened generation gap (Directorate of Statistics, 1983; Al Qaysi, 1986). Hence, it is speculated that youths who come from

rural areas would be more susceptible to indulge in disciplinary problems in schools than youths who come from urban areas, because they tend to experience more drastic changes in their social environment, and the discrepancy is more between their old life styles that they are accustomed to and the new life styles that the Bahraini society has recently experienced.

Research Hypotheses

Based on the previous literature the six hypotheses have been drawn to be tested. Each hypothesis is stated then followed by a rationale for being included in the study as follows:

Hypothesis 1

The variance in school discipline is predicted or accounted for by the linear combination of the following predictors in demography:

a. geographical distribution
b. specialization
c. family order
d. family size
e. economic level of family
f. educational level of family

Rationale

The literature on the relationship of demographic variables to discipline, though abundant in the international literature, in general, is almost nonexistent in Bahrain, especially in relation to the predictive nature of this study, where multiple regression analysis is used. The advantage of using this statistical technique in investigating the contribution of demography to school discipline is that it allows investigating the contribution of the predictors both independently and in combination. Hence, this study will avoid the methodological flaws that previous studies encountered where many confounding variables were not taken into account for each of the predictor variables. In addition, this technique can delineate the relative contribution of demography as a separate area of inquiry, with respect to other areas.

Importantly, demography has been perceived to be directly related to school discipline in Bahrain, because Baharain is a traditional society, where some demographic variables such as sex (High Council for Youth and Sport & UNESSIF, 1979) and socioeconomic level of family (Al Khateeb, 1981; Ameen, 1983) still

play an important role in determining the behavior of youths.

Hypothesis 2

The predictor variable, academic achievement, contributes significantly to the variance in school discipline for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in the secondary general education.

Rationale

The previous literature revealed that academic achievement is related to students' disruptive behavior, and that students of low academic achievement tend to exhibit different kinds of disruptive behavior in schools (Feldhusen et al., 1978; Gnagey, 1979; Osborne, 1978). However, in Bahrain, this relationship is not yet empirically explored.

Hypothesis 3

The predictor self-esteem contributes significantly to the variance in school discipline for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in the secondary general education.

Rationale

Most of the literature that dealt with personality and problem behavior was conducted on those youths who were delinquents, institutionalized or exhibited serious forms of problem behavior. In this study, the focus was on those youths whose behavior was, though undisciplined, still reflective of normal aspects of personality that are not necessarily pathological or abnormal. Self-esteem is one variable in the personality system that is not necessarily restricted to delinquents alone and which seems to be related to disciplinary problems of youths as the literature has previously shown. In Bahrain, there are no empirical studies delineating the relationship between self-esteem and youth problems.

Hypothesis 4

School discipline is predicted or accounted for by the linear combination of the following predictors in the perceived social environment system:

a. parents' support
b. parents' control
c. peers' support
d. peers' control

e. parents-peers compatibility

f. parents-peers influence.

Rationale

The research dealing with the relationship between perceived environment and the problem behavior focuses mainly on either the influence of parents or the influence of peers. In this study the influence of each of the parents and peers was considered as well as the relative influence of each of them compared to one another. Moreover, most of the previous investigations have studied the influence of parents or peers in terms of their actual behavior and not as how their influence is perceived by the youths themselves. There is some evidence that the perception of youths could influence their behavior more than what actually happens in the world around them (Ansubel & Sullivan, 1970). Hence, the variables related to the perceived influence of parents, peers, and the relative compatibility and influence of each of them were included in the study.

Hypothesis 5

The variance in school discipline is predicted or accounted for by the linear combination of all the

predictors in school climate system. These predictors are:

a. Reactions to teachers

b. commitment to work

c. satisfaction with school

Rationale

The literature relating school climate to school discipline is abundant (Epstein & McPartland, 1976, 1978; Nwanko, 1979; Willower et al., 1975). Also the researches that have been conducted in Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf indicated that school-related problems is a great deal of concern to many people in the educational arena (Al Badri, 1978; Al Ghanem, 1985; Al Hiti, 1985; Al Qaysi, 1986; Follow-up Bureau, 1985; Hatab & Makki, 1986; Ismael, 1984, 1986; Social Service Directorate in Kuwait, 1973).

Since the focus of the study is school discipline, and this kind of problem behavior occurs within the context of the school environment, the problem behavior theory was modified by adding a new system, namely, school climate system. The major areas in school system that have been seen to influence students' discipline are: teachers, classwork, and general attitudes towards school.

Hypothesis 6

The variance in school discipline is accounted for by all the predictors that are included in the research model. These predictors are subsumed within demography and the four systems that constitute the model, namely, behavior system, personality system, perceived social environment system, and school climate system.

Rationale

Most of the previous research on school discipline has centered on developing different models, programs or theories to alleviate this problem, without understanding the real reasons behind it. In addition to that, the bulk of research on problem behavior has used a univariate technique using one dimension only of problem behavior such as cognitive, emotional, or social. In this study, a multivariate approach is sought because it is believed to be more appropriate in dealing with a complex construct such as that of school discipline, which is one form of problem behavior. Hence the problem behavior theory of Jessor and Jessor (1977) which employs a multidimensional approach to study problem behavior and uses a broad perspective in dealing with such behavior serves the major purpose

of the study, that is, exploring the psychosocial correlates of school discipline in Bahrain.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study is undertaken to investigate and analyze the relationship between some psychosocial variables in youths and school discipline. The aim of this chapter was to provide a quantitative approach in line with the purpose of the study by which the major hypotheses could be tested and the research questions answered.

In this chapter, the population and the sample are described and the procedure of the data collection is indicated. Next is presented justification for the instruments selected for use in the study and a full description of those instruments. Finally, methods of data analysis and a research model are specified.

Population

The population for the study consisted of all the classes of male and female students at the first secondary level of general education in Bahraini

schools. In those classes students' specializations were either science or arts. All students with other specializations in the industrial, commercial, or health sciences were excluded and only students in the general education system were included in the study. The reason the investigator focused on students in general education was that of over 50 percent Bahraini students at the secondary level enroll in the general education system.

This population consisted of 78 classes which included 2,496 students at the first secondary level of general education in Bahrain. With respect to the sex of students, the population included 27 classes for males and 51 classes for females. The male classes included 836 students, whereas the female classes included 1,660 students. With respect to the field of specialization, the students majored in either sciences or arts. Therefore, the population included 44 science classes and 34 arts classes. The science classes had 1196 students. According to sex and field of specialization the population consisted of male 18 classes of sciences, 9 male classes of arts, 26 female classes of sciences, and 25 female classes of arts. The number of students in these

classes were 52, 315, 779, and 881, respectively (see Table 1).

Table 1

Distribution of Bahraini Students in the First Secondary School in General Education According to Sex and Specialization

	Males	Females	Total
Science	521	779	1,300
Arts	315	881	1,196
Total	836	1,600	2,496

Sample

The sample for the study consisted of 17 classes that were randomly selected from the total population. Out of these classes eight classes were for males and nine classes were for females. According to specialization, eight of those classes were for arts and nine classes for sciences.

The average number of students in each class was about 35 and the total number of the sample was 628 of which 505 really participated. There were 123 students excluded from the study because 10 students had missing data in their files and 113 students were

absent. The participants included 245 males and 260 females. With respect to sex and specialization, in the art classes there were 108 males and 144 females, whereas in the science classes there were 137 males and 116 females (hence adding up to 252 arts students and 253 science students) (Table 2).

Table 2

Distribution of Bahraini Students in the Sample According to Sex and Specialization

	Males	Females	Total
Art	108	144	252
Sciences	137	116	253
Total	245	260	505

The ages of the students ranged between 10 and 21 with a median of 16.0 and a mode of 16.0. With respect to the geographic distribution, 51.4 percent of the students were from urban areas and 48.6 percent were from rural areas.

The economic level of the family ranged between low and high, with 51.0 percent of the participants

having an average income level, 3.8 percent high and 12.9 percent low.

Concerning the educational level of the family, 54.8 percent of the students had families of a low educational level, 23.6 percent average and 21.6 percent high.

The number of family members ranged from "3 or less" to "7 or more," and 78.5 percent of students came from families who had "7 or more" members.

The order in the family ranged between "eldest" to "youngest": 70.7 percent of students in the sample were in the "middle" whereas 16.7 percent were the "eldest," and 12.6 percent were the "youngest."

Other psychometric information about the sample can be found in Appendix A.

Procedure

The investigator met with the Assistant Undersecretary of General and Technical Education in Bahrain, Mr. Hasan El Mehri, to receive permission to implement the study after having clarified its purposes and major contributions. With approval granted, the investigator called upon principals of all secondary schools in the realm of general education and collected data concerning the number of

classes at the first secondary level. A list of the names of these classes was obtained from each school, and a random sample of 17 classes was selected from the total population by using a simple random procedure. The participating classes were located in 10 different schools, of which six were schools for females and four schools were for males. The names of the participating girls' schools were: Al Moharraq, Al Manama, Isa Town, Jidhafs, West Riffaa, and Halima Al Saadiya. The names of the participating boys' schools were: Al Hoora, Al Naim, Isa Town, and Sheikh Abdul Aziz Bin Mohammed Al Khalifa.

The investigator later visited each of the participating schools twice, the first time was to administer the questionnaire to students and the second time was to collect data regarding the demographic characteristics of the sample, grades on school discipline, and grades on school achievement of those participants. The data collection took a period of two months.

During the first visit to the schools, the investigator administered the questionnaire to students after she had clarified the purpose of the study and read the instructions. Students were

insured confidentiality of information they would give, hence teachers were requested not to be present in the classroom while students were filling out the questionnaire. The investigator was available in each of the participating classes to answer questions of students and to monitor the process of data collection to achieve its desired goals.

During the second visit, the investigator met with the principal and the social worker of each school, where she had oral interviews with all of them to obtain an indepth understanding of the problem of school discipline of the students of these schools. Based on these interviews, the investigator designed a short questionnaire to collect data on some demographic variables that were perceived to be very important to school discipline as was suggested by principals, social workers, and some teachers. These variables were: specialization, educational level of the family, economic level of the family, order in the family, and the residence area. Information on these variables was obtained from students' records at each school. The economic level of the family was subjectively determined by the school social supervisor, according to either or both of two criteria: father's occupation and his salary.

The educational level was determined as follows: (a) illiterate or primary level for both parents was rated low; (b) intermediate level for both was rated average; (c) secondary or college level for both parents was rated high. However, if one parent was illiterate and the other was secondary or college level the level was rated as intermediate. Then, data on school achievement were obtained from students' certificates, whereas information on students' school discipline was obtained from two sources to ensure the external validity of this information. The two sources were: the social worker and one of the students' teachers.

Instruments

The instrument that has been used in the study consisted of selected scales from the questionnaire on socialization of problem behavior in youths that was employed by Jessor & Jessor (1972). Also, the instrument included the (QSL) Quality of School Life scale, that was developed by Epstein and McPartland (1976). The questionnaire was divided into two major parts that included 56 items. The first part was self-reporting questionnaire that included 45 items. These items were grouped into three sections:

personality system, perceived social environment system, and school climate system (Appendix B). The second part included 11 items that were grouped into two sections: behavior system and demography (Appendix C). The first part of the questionnaire was filled out by students. Regarding the second part, the information on demography was obtained from the social supervisor, using students' records, the information on academic achievement was obtained from students' certificates, and information on school discipline was obtained from two sources: social supervisor and one of the teachers who is well acquainted with students.

Measures of Personality Systems

In this study the personality system is represented by one variable, self-esteem.

Scale 1. Self-Esteem (SE)

This scale consists of five items which measure how adolescents evaluate themselves in terms of confidence, respect, and in being able to form meaningful relationships with others. The score ranges from 10 to 40; from low self-esteem to high self-esteem (Jessor & Jessor, 1972).

The alpha estimates of reliability (Cronbach, 1951) of personality system measure are adequate and range from .78 to .88 (Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980). In this study the alpha estimate of reliability of self-esteem was .54.

Measures of Perceived Environment System

The perceived environment system in this study includes one structure, the distal structure, while the proximal structure was excluded. The distal structure includes variables that are not directly related to problem behavior. These variables are measured by the following scales (Jessor & Jessor, 1972).

Scales 2. Perceived Family Support (FSU)

This scale includes two items that measure the extent of interest and help the adolescents perceive that they receive from their parents. The responses are scored on a 5-item Likert scale ranging from 2 to 10; from "hardly ever" to "almost always."

Scale 3. Perceived Family Control (FCN)

Two items were included in this scale that measure how much adolescents perceive their family as

being strict and disapproving of problem behavior. The responses were scored on a 5-item Likert scale ranging from 2 to 10, from "hardly ever" to "almost always."

Scale 4. Perceived Peer Support (PSU)

This scale includes two items that measure adolescents' perceptions of the extent to which their friends show genuine interest in them and concern for their problems. The responses are scored on a 5-item Likert scale ranging from 2 to 10; for "hardly ever" to "almost always."

Scale 5. Perceived Peer Control (PCN)

This scale includes two items that measure perception of friends' influence on adolescents in terms of strictness and persuasion. The responses are scored on a 5-item Likert scale that ranges from 2 to 10, from "hardly ever" to "almost always."

Scale 6. Perceived Parent-Peer Compatibility (COM)

This scale includes three items that measure the extent to which adolescents perceive that their parents and their friends are in agreement in rela-

tion to matters of importance to them. The responses are scored on a 5-item Likert scale that ranges from 3 to 15, from "no agreement" to "almost complete agreement."

Scale 7. Perceived Parent-Peer Influence Scale (PPI)

This scale includes two items that measure the relative influence on adolescents of parents versus friends, which reveal whether the student is parent-oriented or peer-oriented. The responses are scored on a 3-item Likert scale ranging from 2 to 6, from greater influence of parents to greater influence of peers. Scales of the distal structure of perceived environmental system have an alpha reliability that range between .51 and .79.

Measures of the Behavior System

The Behavior System includes two structures; the first one is the problem behavior structure, which is represented by school discipline, and the second is

the conventional behavior structure, which is represented by academic achievement.

Scale 8. School discipline

School discipline is the criterion in this study, and is measured by a 6-item Likert scale that includes: excellent, very good, good, average, satisfactory and poor. The scores on these items ranged from 1 to 6, respectively.

Scale 9. Academic Achievement

This variable represented the conventional structure according to the problem behavior theory, and is measured with reference to students' school records on a 6-item Likert scale. The scores range from 1 to 6, excellent to poor, respectively.

Measures of the School Climate System

The Quality of School Life instrument was developed by Epstein and Mcpartland (1976) to measure students' attitudes toward the school experience. It is a multidimensional measure of students' satisfaction with school in general, their commitment to classwork, and their reactions to teachers. The investigator selected this questionnaire to be used

in the study because it was perceived to be directly related to school discipline. School discipline as a form of problem behavior takes place in the school environment in which teachers, school work, and attitudes towards school are important dimensions. Moreover, this instrument, unlike most instruments that measure school climate, relies on the perceptions of students themselves and not on the perceptions of teachers or principals. This is valuable because it has been documented that students' perceptions and not what actually happens in the real world influence student's behavior (Ausubel & Sullivan, 1970; Berzonsky, 1978). The instrument has been perceived to be appropriate for students in grades 4-12.

The QSL scale has been proven to be more efficient with large populations of students than other measures employed. Also, it is not time-consuming or expensive, and can be easily administered and scored.

The questionnaire consists of three scales which form 27 items based on three aspects of the concept of the quality of school life. The three scales follow.

Scale 10. Satisfaction with School (SAT)

This scale examines students' general satisfaction with school. Students who are positive in their evaluation of life in school are more likely to behave in socially accepted ways. The scale includes five items.

Scale 11. Commitment to Classwork (COM)

This scale deals with the level of student interest in classwork such as assignments and projects. Students who find these interesting and important may develop a more positive attitude about learning. The scale includes 11 items.

Scale 12. Reaction to Teachers (TCH)

This scale measures students' evaluation of their teachers in terms of instructional interaction and interpersonal relationships. Students who report positive evaluations of their teachers are likely to be better in many aspects of school-related behavior. This scale includes 11 items.

Scoring Procedure (QSL)

The scoring procedure of the QSL is a simple tally of the number of positive evaluations for the

total scale and for each subscale. Each item of the scale is assigned one point for positive evaluation and zero for those that are negative. The score for each student is obtained by calculating the number of points received on the 27 items of the total QSL scale.

Each scale in the QSL is scored in the same way. The score is obtained by counting the number of points within that scale. Hence, SAT scale score is the sum of the points received for items 21, 25, 29, 37, and 45. The responses "false, true, true, 1 or 2, and always or often" are given one point with reference to these items, respectively, and other responses were given zero. The COM scale score is the sum of the points received for items 19, 23, 27, 28, 31, 33, 35, 40, 41, 42, and 43. A score of one point was given to each of these items if the responses were "false, false, false, false, 1 or 2, 3 or 4, 1 or 2, 1 or 2, seldom or never, and seldom or never," respectively. Concerning the TCH scale, the score is the sum of the points received for items 20, 22, 24, 28, 30, 32, 34, 36, 39, and 44. The corresponding responses with "true, false, false, true, false, true, false, 1 or 2, 1 or 2, 1 or 2, and always or often" received a score of one point each.

The total QSL score is the sum of the points received for all 27 items (Epstein & McPartland, 1978).

Psychometric Properties of (QSL)

Reliability studies on the internal consistency of QSL were conducted for 4,266 elementary and secondary students. The results showed that this instrument is a highly reliable scale. The overall reliability coefficient for the QSL is .87 for secondary students. For the subsets, the reliability coefficients, using Kuder Richardson formula 20, ranged from .79 to .81 for the SAT subscale; .72 to .80 for the COM subscale; and .64 to .73 for the TCVH subscale. In this study, the alpha reliabilities for the subscales SAT, COW, and TCH were .70, .66, and .71, respectively.

Evidence for concurrent and discriminant validity of the QSL was obtained for grades 6 to 12 from questionnaire items, open-ended comments, peer and teacher nominations, and achievement tests. There was some evidence that students who reported high satisfaction with the quality of their school were industrious, participated more in class, were ambitious, and had positive evaluations from their teachers and parents. Moreover, QSL was able to

discriminate between groups of students who were expected to differ in their reactions to school life. It was reported that students who had higher scores on QSL were those who were recognized by their teachers as having high interest in school and were admired by their peers.

Concerning the construct validity of the subscales, some studies were conducted to determine what the subscales actually measure and what they were intended to measure. These studies showed that each of the QSL subscales is responsive to different measures, and hence represents a separate dimension within the total scale (Epstein & McPartland, 1978).

Measures of Demography

This category includes seven variables: sex, specialization, economic level of the family, educational level of the family, family size, birth order in the family, and residence area.

Scale 13. Sex

The sex variable was measured on a categorical scale, where a score of 1 is given for males and 2 for females.

Scale 14. Specialization

The specialization variable was also measured on a categorical scale, where a score of 1 is given for science students and a score of 2 is given for art students.

Scale 15. Economic Level of Family

The economic level of the family was measured on a 5-level additive scale, where scores of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are given to high, above average, average, below average and low, respectively.

Scale 16. Educational Level of Family

The educational level of the family was measured on a 3-level categorical scale, where a score of 1, 2, and 3 was given to "low," "average" and "high," respectively.

Scale 17. Family Size

The number of family members was measured on a 5-level categorical scale, where a score of 1 was given to "3 or less," a score of 2 was given to "4, 5, and 6," and a score of 3 was given to "7 or more."

Scale 18. Birth Order in Family

The order in the family was measured on a 3-level categorical scale, where a score of 1 was given to "eldest," a score of 2 was given to "middle," and a score of 3 was given to "youngest."

Scale 19. Geographic Distribution

The residence area or geographic distribution variable was measured on a categorical scale, where a score of 0 was given to "village" and a score of 1 was given to "city."

Data Analysis

The research hypotheses were tested by multiple regression procedure, while the research questions were answered by using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistics.

Since this study aimed at investigating the effect of several predictor variables on an outcome variable such as school discipline within the framework of problem behavior theory, multiple regression analysis is the most appropriate statistical analysis for this purpose. It also indicates which linear, weighted combination of variables best predict a given dependent variable. The effect of each

independent variable or cluster of variables is in effect in addition to that contributed by other independent variables in the analysis. The analysis also indicates the strength of all of the predictors combined on the criterion. Therefore, the multiple regression will determine the independent and combined effect of personality variables, perceived environment variables, behavior variables, and school climate variables, or school discipline. Also, forward stepwise regression was employed to test the relative contribution of predictors.

With respect to the research questions, One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used since the analysis in relation to each question involved one independent variable with two or more levels. The test statistics for ANOVA is the F-ratio of the two variance estimate or mean squares, where

$$F = \frac{MSb}{MSw}, \quad MSb = \frac{SSb}{k-1}, \quad MSw = \frac{SSw}{N-k}$$

The underlying distribution of the F-ratio is the F distribution, which is a function of the degrees of freedom associated with the two variance estimates, MSb and MSw. There are K-1 degrees of freedom associated with MSb and N-k degrees of

freedom associated with MSw, whereas degrees of freedom associated with the total variation are N-1.

Research Model

The research model in this study is derived from the Problem Behavior Model of Jessor and Jessor (1977). However, the main difference is that this model added a new system, namely, the school system, because it is believed to be directly related to school discipline, the problem behavior under investigation in this study. Also, another difference is that unlike the Jessors' study, demography is given primary importance in this study. Bahrain being a traditional society, demographic variables such as sex, economic level of the family, etc. are perceived to play an important role in influencing the behavior of youth.

The research model (Figure 2) is comprised of four major systems and one category that includes the demographic variables. Demography is not called a system because the interaction between it and the other systems is seen to be unidirectional.

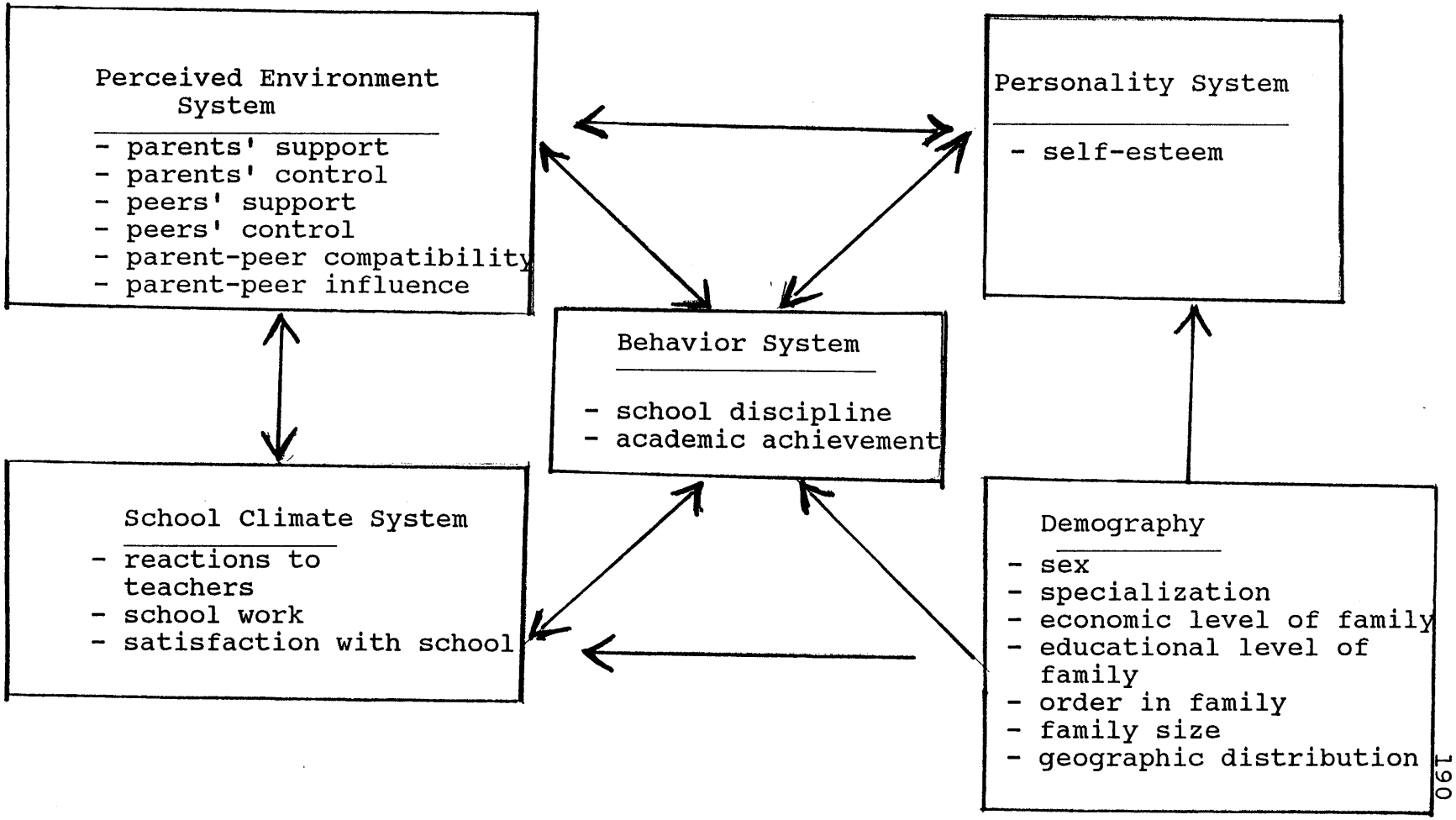
The four major systems are: the behavior system, the personality system, the perceived environment

system, and the school system, that have been described in detail earlier in this chapter.

School discipline is perceived to be a multidimensional construct, which is influenced by all of the four systems, as well as by demography, both independently and in combination.

Figure 2

School Discipline Model



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter results of the study are presented in relation to the seven research questions and six hypotheses. Tables related to these findings are also presented. Results are followed by a discussion with reference to each of the research questions and hypotheses.

Research Questions

Question 1

Is there any significant difference between males and females for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in the secondary general education on measures of school discipline?

The means and standard deviations of discipline scores for males and females are presented in Table 3, along with the means and the standard deviation for the total sample. As can be seen in Table 3, the means of discipline scores for males and females were 2.69 and 2.45, respectively. Analysis of variance

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores for Males and Females

Sex	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
Female	2.45	1.34	260
Male	2.69	1.17	245
Total Sample	2.57	1.26	505

Table 4

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Males and Females

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F-Ratio
Between Groups	7.26	7.26	1	
Within Groups	804.48	1.59	503	4.54*
Total	811.75		504	

* $p < .05$

(ANOVA) was used to evaluate the effect of sex on discipline. The data indicate that the main effect involving sex was significant as shown in Table 4 (F=4.54; df=1, 503; p<.05). The results, therefore, answer the first question; that is, there was a significant difference between males and females on discipline. Also, results derived from Table 1 show that females' mean of discipline scores was lower than those of males, and since the higher an individual scored the less discipline he/she demonstrated according to the criteria set in the scoring procedure for the discipline scale, then females were more disciplined than males for the selected sample in this study.

The previous literature indicated that many Bahraini teachers reported that males and females differed in their behavior with respect to school discipline, however, there was no empirical evidence for this speculation, which this study now provides. These results were not surprising, because Bahrain is a traditional society in which people tend to add more restriction on girls than on boys, according to social and religious background. Boys are given more freedom than girls and are allowed to stay outside the home much later than girls, go out with friends

more frequently, and engage in more activities outside the home, especially sports (High Council for Youth and Sports & UNESSIF; Patai, 1971). Hence, boys could be more susceptible to disciplinary problems than girls in Bahrain.

These results are also consistent with the previous literature on sex differences, where it was found that boys are more aggressive and less disciplined than girls (Bryan & Freed, 1982; Eisenthal & Straus, 1970; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974).

However, an alternative explanation could be that boys are not necessarily less disciplined than girls, but the way they express their frustration is more pronounced, because it usually takes a form of physical aggression.

Question 2

Is there any significant difference between students of different specializations, (arts versus sciences), for the selected sample of Bahraini youths on measures of school discipline?

The means and standard deviations for arts and science students are presented in Table 5, along with those of the total sample. The means of arts and

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores for Arts and Science Students

Special-ization	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
Arts	2.88	1.37	252
Science	2.25	1.06	253
Total Sample	2.57	1.26	505

Table 6

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Arts and Science Students

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F-Ratio
Between Groups	51.05	51.05	1	33.75*
Within Groups	760.69	1.5	503	
Total	811.75		504	

* $p < .001$

science students were 2.88 and 2.25, and standard deviations were 1.37 and 1.06, respectively.

Using ANOVA, Table 6 shows that the main effect involving specialization was very significant ($F=33.75$; $df=1, 503$; $p<.001$). Also, data indicate that arts students were less disciplined than science students according to the criteria set for the scores in the previous chapter.

These results are consistent with the speculation of Al Qaysi (1986) that youths' behavior is related to the uneven distribution of students among different specializations. Also these results are consistent with the claim of some teachers and principals in Bahrain when they were interviewed in one of the local papers (Suar, 1986) that arts students exhibited more disciplinary problems than science students. However, this speculation was empirically validated through this study only.

It is important to mention that specialization *per se* could not be the reason behind whether Bahraini students are disciplined or not, but there could be some confounding variables, such as mental ability, home environment, or some prerequisite skills, that direct students toward choosing certain specializations.

Another alternative explanation of why art students tend to have more disciplinary problems than science students could reside in society at large. With modernization, Bahrain entered the industrialization era, and the need for technical skills made itself clear in all aspects of Bahraini development. So, the influx of foreign manpower was inevitable to cope with the economic demands in the country. However, many students still prefer theoretical fields which lead them to bureaucratic jobs that are not really needed in the country. These students, knowing that they will not be able to find a good job or even be unemployed, since they lack the technical skills or because companies favor foreign manpower, would tend to exhibit some kinds of disciplinary problems. This is consistent with what some previous researchers claimed: lack of coordination between school curricula and social reality by the education system, could be behind the reason why some youth exhibit some kinds of problem behavior in the Arabian Gulf (Ameen, 1983; Al Qaysi, 1986).

Question 3

Are there any significant differences among students of different economic level of family (high, above average, average, below average, and poor) for the selected sample of Bahraini youths, on measures of discipline?

Means and standard deviations of discipline scores of students of different economic levels of the family are presented in Table 7. Using ANOVA to evaluate the effect of economic level of the family on discipline, the results shown in Table 8 reveal that the main effect involving economic level of family was significant ($F=5.75$; $df=4, 499$; $p<.001$).

Since the analysis of variance indicated that there was a significant main effect of economic level of the family, further statistical treatment was required to pinpoint the exact areas of significance. the Tukey method (Tukey, 1949) was employed for this purpose.

Data analysis using the Tukey method revealed that groups of students who had below average and low economic level for the family had means of discipline scores that were significantly different from those of groups who had high and average economic levels. Also, the group which had below

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores for Students of Different Economic Level of Family

Economic Level	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
High	1.94	.97	19
Above Average	2.48	1.24	93
Average	2.43	1.25	257
Below Average	3.02	1.04	70
Low	2.92	1.46	65
Total Sample	2.56	1.27	504

Table 8

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Students of different Economic Level of Family

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F Ratio
Between Groups	35.77	8.94	4	5.75*
Within Groups	775.78	1.55	499	
Total	811.56		503	

* $p<.001$

average economic level had a mean that was significantly different from that of the group that had an above average level. By examining the means of all groups, it was evident that the two groups of low and below average economic levels were the least disciplined among all groups (Table 7).

The literature relating the economic level of family to school discipline is rare in Bahrain, though there is some evidence that youths in the Arabian Gulf who came from low income families tended to exhibit some kinds of deviant behavior (Al Khateeb et al., 1981; Follow-up Bureau, 1985).

However, one should be careful to infer that income of the family is the determining factor of school discipline, because there could be some confounding variables, such as poor mental stimulation, poor nutrition, and health problems that low income people usually have.

Besides, there was a limitation in relation to the self-reporting data of students. Most students, whether they were poor or rich, tended to report that their families had an average economic level. Hence, it was imperative to consult the social supervisor of each school and to determine the economic level of the family with reference to two criteria: father's

occupation and father's salary, as indicated in Chapter III. However, data concerning the second criterion was not available for many of the students.

Question 4

Are there any significant differences among students of different family size (3 or less, 4-6, and 7 or more) for the selected sample of Bahraini youths on measures of school discipline?

Table 9 presents means and standard deviations of discipline scores for different groups of students with respect to family size: 3 or less, 4-6, and 7 or more, along with those of the total population.

ANOVA was used to test the effect of family size on discipline, using F test statistics. Results shown in Table 10 reveal that the main effect involving family size was not significant ($F=0.2$; $df=2, 497$; $p>.05$).

The explanation for these results is that most of the families in Bahrain are of large sizes, even the rich ones, due to some religious and cultural beliefs. As previously mentioned, the average family size in Bahrain ranged from 6.4 to 7.7 as some studies indicated (Directorate of Statistics, 1975;

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores for Students of Different Family Size

Family Size	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
3 or Less	2.50	1.37	6
4 - 6	2.63	1.27	101
7 or more	2.54	1.26	391
Total Sample	2.56	1.26	498

Table 10

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Students of different Family Size

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F Ratio
Between Groups	.6935	.34	2	.21
Within Groups	797.99	1.61	495	
Total	798.69		497	

$p > .05$

High Council for Youth and Sports & UNESSIF, 1980; Ministry of Labor, 1981). In this study, the majority of students (78.5 percent) had 7 or more family members. Therefore, probably because family sizes are not so diverse among youths in Bahrain, this predictor showed no influence on the behavior of those youths.

Question 5

Are there any significant differences among students of different educational level of family (low, average, and high) for the selected sample of Bahraini youths, on measures of discipline?

Means and standard deviations of school discipline scores are presented in Table 11, along with those of the total sample. ANOVA was used to test the influence of educational level of the family on school discipline. Results presented in Table 12 reveal that the main effect involving educational level of the family was significant ($F=5.47$; $df=2, 497$; $p<.01$).

The Tukey method was used to pinpoint the exact areas of significance. Using the Q test statistics used in the Tukey method, results revealed that the population means for the group of students who came

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores for Groups of Students of Different Educational Level of Family

Education Level of Family	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
Low	2.67	1.25	274
Average	2.63	1.12	118
High	2.21	1.38	108
Total Sample	2.56	1.26	500

Table 12

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Students of Different Educational Level of Family

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F Ratio
Between Groups	17.29	8.64	2	5.47*
Within Groups	785.52	1.58	497	
Total	802.82		499	

* $p<.001$

from low and average educational level of family were significantly different from that for students from high educational level of family. Moreover, the means of discipline scores for all groups indicate that students of "low" and "average" educational level of family were less disciplined than those for high educational level.

These results were in agreement with most of the studies that have been conducted in this area, indicating that students who exhibit some kinds of problem behaviors come from families within a low socioeconomic level where the level of parents' education is usually low (Eaves, 1975; Touliatos, & Lindholm, & Rich, 1975).

However, it is crucial to mention that the data pertaining to educational level of the family had some limitations, because the educational level of the mother was not mentioned in many cases. Also, there was no unified definition of what qualified a person to be deemed "educated." Some people, especially in the low socioeconomic status in Bahrain, often consider a person who can read and write as educated. Hence, it was difficult to determine on the basis of students' records alone whether their parents were educated or not. Also, it

was difficult to decide the educational level of the family in some cases where the father was at the college level, for example, and the mother was illiterate.

Another difficulty arose when the investigator found that the educational level of the family as a whole was mentioned as either "educated" or "not educated," without specifying the educational status of the mother and the father separately or knowing to what extent parents were educated.

Question 6

Are there any significant differences among students of different birth order (eldest, middle, and youngest) for the selected sample of Bahraini youth on measures of school discipline?

Table 13 presents means and standard deviations of discipline scores for students of different family order, eldest, middle, and youngest, along with those of the total sample.

ANOVA was employed to test the effect of birth order on school discipline. Results in Table 14 reveal that the main effect in relation to family order was not significant ($F=1.76$; $df=2, 488$; $p>.05$).

These results were not anticipated, and the

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores for Groups of Students of Different Family Order

Family Order	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
Eldest	2.32	1.31	82
Middle	2.62	1.24	347
Youngest	2.56	1.35	62
Total Sample	2.56	1.27	491

Table 14

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Students of Different Birth Order

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F-Ratio
Between Groups	5.70	2.85	2	1.76
Within Groups	786.89	1.61	488	
Total	792.59		490	

$p > .05$

birth order in the family does not seem to exert any influence on school discipline. One explanation for that could be related to family size. When there are many members within one family, the order of children may become less important, as roles shift soon from the youngest to the middle position when a new child is born the majority of youth, as the study indicated (Appendix A), were in the middle position.

Moreover, the sex of the child in relation to his/her position could be important. For example, when the eldest child is a girl it is different from the situation where the eldest child is a boy, because as Ameen (1983) and Patai (1971) indicated, in an Islamic traditional society; therefore, boys are usually favored, the boys could have a more important status than girls, even if the girls were older than the boys. Therefore, further investigation is needed where the sex of the child in relation to its birth order is indicated.

Question 7

Is there any significant difference between students of different geographic distribution (urban versus rural) for the selected sample of Bahraini youth on measures of school discipline?

Table 15 presents means and standard deviations of discipline scores for urban and rural students along with those of the total population. ANOVA was employed to determine the effect of geographical distribution on school discipline. Results that are derived from Table 16 reveal that the main effect with respect to geographical distribution was not significant ($F=1.43$; $df=1, 498$; $p>.05$).

There is no research in Bahrain indicating the influence of geographical distribution is related to school discipline. However, these results are not surprising, because youths who reside in villages constitute only 15 percent of the total youths in Bahrain, and this ratio is very low compared to other neighboring countries (Economic and Social Committee for West Asia, 1986). When modernization entered Bahrain, as was mentioned earlier in this study, tremendous technological and social changes occurred in the country. One of these changes was the increased immigration from villages to cities where work opportunities were centered. Also, the intense population growth has exerted pressure on existing housing, so the government constructed low-cost houses in the suburbs, such as Isa Town, in

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations of Discipline Scores Students of Different Geographical Distribution

Geographical Distribution	Means of Discipline Scores	Standard Deviation	N
Village	2.64	1.20	243
City	2.50	1.32	257
Total Sample	2.57	1.27	500

Table 16

Analysis of Variance of Discipline Scores for Students of Different Geographical Distributions

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F-Ratio
Between Groups	2.32	2.32	1	1.43
Within Groups	803.78	1.61	498	
Total	806.11		499	

$p > .05$

which people from villages and cities could reside (Directorate of Statistics, 1983). This was coupled with the spread of means of communication and mass media in the very small country, Bahrain. It is natural that the gap between youths in villages and those in the cities would be narrowed to a great extent, and would make the two groups more homogeneous, which could have influenced the results of this study, in relation to geographic distribution.

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The variance in school discipline is predicted or accounted for by the linear combination of the following predictors in demography:

a. geographical distribution

b. specialization

c. family order

d. family size

e. economic level of family

f. educational level of family

g. sex

Table 17 presents the data pertaining to the regression of school discipline on the combined

Table 17

Multiple Regression Analysis of School Discipline on Demography Predictors

Step	Demography	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
1	Residence			-.04
2	Education (2)			.04
3	Order (1)			- .08
4	Family Size (1)			.02
5	Major			- .25
6	Family Size (2)			.06
7	Sex			.10
8	Income			.18
9	Order (2)			- .00
10	Education (1)			.01
All Predictors		.33	.11	

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Regression	10	89.11	8.91	6.08*
Residual	467	684.74	1.47	

* $p < .001$

predictors of demography. Results derived from this table indicate that Multiple R=.33, R square=.11, and standard error=1.21. To test the significance of R^2, or the proportion of variance accounted for by the linear combination of all the predictors in demography, ANOVA was employed. Results shown in Table 17 reveal that regression of school discipline on all the predictors in demography, simultaneously, is very significant ($F=6.07$; $df=10, 467$; $p<.001$). Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted beyond .001 level of significance. In other words, the predictors of demography accounted for 11 percent of school discipline. These predictors are: geographical distribution, educational level of family, family order, family size, specialization, family income, and sex.

These results reveal that demography accounted for a significant portion of the variance in school discipline, which was inconsistent with what Jessor and Jessor (1977) had indicated. It was found that demography plays a secondary role in the problem behavior theory, and is only indirectly related to problem behavior. However, Jessor and Jessor attributed the secondary position of demography to

the homogeneous sample they had, which was Anglo-American in ethnic status and middle class in socioeconomic position. By contrast, in this study, the backgrounds of the students were widely diverse, and the sample was a true representative of the total population, as was indicated in Chapter III, which could explain the different results this study had.

Importantly, the different cultures to which the two samples belong could be a valid reason why demography contributed more to problem behavior with respect to Bahrain. In Arabic culture some demographic variables do play an important role in the lives of people, and as Ameen (1983) mentioned, at the present time the status of the family in terms of richness or power determines how an individual is viewed and how he/she behaves.

Furthermore, these results were consistent with some studies that found that students of the lower class had a greater incidence of behavior problems (Eaves, 1975; Follow-up Bureau, 1983; Touliatos, J & Lindholm, B., 1975).

Hypothesis 2

The predictor variable, achievement, contributes significantly to the variance in discipline for the

selected sample of Bahrainie youths in the secondary general education.

Table 18 presents data related to regression of school discipline on academic achievement. Multiple R, which is the correlation coefficient between the criterion, school discipline and the predictor, academic achievement was =.43. R^2, which indicates the proportion of variance of school discipline accounted for by academic achievement, =.19. To test the significance of R^2, the ANOVA procedure was employed to test whether or not the proportion of predictable variance was significantly different from zero. Table 18 also reveals that R square was very significant ($F=119.4$; $df=1, 502$; $p<.001$). Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted beyond the .001 level of significance. In other words, academic achievement predicts or accounted for about 19 percent of school discipline.

These results were consistent with the previous work on problem behavior theory by Jessor and Jessor (1977). However, behavior system, particularly academic achievement, seems to play a major role in predicting problem behavior relative to the other

Table 18

Multiple Regression Analysis of School Discipline on Academic Achievement

Step	Predictors	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
1	Academic Achievement	.44	.19	.44

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Regression	1	155.53	155.53	119.43*
Residual	502	653.75	1.302	

* $p < .001$

systems that constitute the problem theory, as employed in this study.

Besides, these results were in line with the previous literature where the bulk of studies found that there exists a strong positive relationship between academic achievement and school discipline (Feldhusen et al., 1978; Gnagey, 1979; Osborne, 1978).

One explanation why school achievement seems to play a very significant role among Bahraini youth could be related to the policy of "continuous promotion" of students that the Ministry of Education has adopted in recent years, where students are automatically and continuously promoted from one grade to another regardless of their school performance. This policy may be cost effective in the short term perspective, because a higher number of students are accommodated in schools; less school buildings, equipment, and facilities are required, and a lesser number of teachers are demanded. Yet, the long-term losses seem to be great from the educational perspective.

Students who find that they are going to pass at the end of the year, anyway, regardless of their own effort or ability, tend to attribute their success to

external factors, such as the permissive educational system or luck. This of a great significance with respect to the attribution theory. According to this theory, individuals tend to attribute their success or failure to one dimension, locus of control, where persons tend to be either internal or external (Rotter, 1966). There is another classification according to Weiner (1972) where individuals attribute causes of success and failure within two dimensions: locus of control (internal or external) and stability (fixed or variable). Like Rotter, in the locus of control dimension, ability and effort are classified as internal, whereas task difficulty and luck attributions are classified as external determinants of performance. It is postulated that attributions to an individual's ability or task characteristics are relatively fixed, while attributions to effort or to chance are perceived as variable.

An "internal" student will feel that effort and reward are related, whereas an "external" student fails to perceive the cause-and-effect relationship between his actions and their consequences. Hence, students would work harder if they knew that they were responsible for their own success. There is a

wealth of evidence in the literature showing that externals score higher than internals on measures of hostility and aggression, whereas internals exhibit more achievement motivation and spend more time on academic pursuits than do externals (Crandall, Katkovsky, & Crandall, 1965; Solomon & Oberlander, 1974).

Therefore, the critical factor could be the way students cognitively attribute reasons for success or failure, and achievement could be a mediator between students' attribution and school discipline. An alternative explanation, therefore, may be found in the motivation system that guides the behavior of students in Bahrain; and if this is proven to be true, the educational policy concerning the continuous or automatic promotion of students should be seriously re-evaluated.

Hypothesis 3

The predictor variable, self-esteem, contributed significantly to the variance for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in the secondary general education.

Table 19 presents Multiple R and R Square of regressing school discipline on self-esteem (R=.08,

Table 19

Multiple Regression Analysis of School Discipline on Self-Esteem

Step	Predictors	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
1	Self-Esteem	.08	.01	-.08

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Regression	1	5.81	5.81	3.62
Residual	503	805.95	1.60	

$p=.057$

R^2=.01). To test the significance of the proportion of variance in discipline accounted for by self-esteem, ANOVA was employed. Results in Table 19 also reveal that regressing school discipline on self-esteem is not significantly different from zero (F=3.62; df=1, 503; p>.05).

So, the null hypothesis was retained, and the predictor self-esteem appears not to influence school discipline. These results were not in agreement with most of the research that was conducted in this area, which showed that there is a moderate or strong relationship between self-esteem and problem behavior of youths (Britton & Stallings, 1981; Burdett & Jensen, 1983; Damico, 1975; Mann & Gold, 1981; McKeown, 1975; Piersel, 1979).

The reason why the results were not in line with the theory could be related to the instrument that has been used to measure self-esteem. The self-esteem (SE) scale had relatively low reliability (r=.50), which could have influenced the results.

Another reason could be as Jessor and Jessor (1977) indicated, that self-esteem and similar variables within the belief structure of the personality system were believed to be remotely related to problem behavior, unlike the variables in

the personal control structure. Hence, the investigator speculated that including variables in the personal control structure alone or with other variables in the instigation structure would have influenced the significance of contribution to the personality system, to a great extent.

Furthermore, the sample in the study included students who had no serious problem behavior or pathological cases of maladjustment. They were students who were thought to be non-disciplined according to the ratings of teachers and the social supervisors. Yet, they were considered normal and healthy from the psychological perspective, whereas most of the literature that has been conducted in this area has dealt with students who had serious emotional and psychological problems.

Hypothesis 4

School discipline is significantly predicted or accounted for by the linear combination of the following predictors in the perceived social environment system:

a. parents' support

b. parents' control

c. peers' support

d. peers' control

e. parents-peers compatibility

f. parents-peers influence

Table 20 presents Multiple R and the squared R for the linear set of the variables in the perceived environment system. As can be seen from Table 20, Multiple R=.21, and R^2=.04. To test the significance of R square or the proportion of variance in school discipline accounted for by the linear combination of these variables, ANOVA was used. Results in Table 18 also reveal that R square was statistically significant (F=3.89; df=6, 498; p<.001). So, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted beyond the .001 level of significance. In other words, the set of predictors, combined in the perceived environment system, predicted or accounted for 4 percent of the variance in school discipline.

These results were expected and were in line with previous literature relating parents' influence to problem behavior of youths (Block et al., 1983; Christiansen et al., 1976; Diem, 1978; Duncan, 1972; Feldhusen, 1978; Kelly & Goodwin, 1983; Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor et al., 1980; Madoz, 1970;

Table 20

Multiple Regression Analysis of School Discipline on Predictors in the Perceived Social Environment System

Step	Predictors	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
1	Parent-Peer Influence			.07
2	Peer Control			-.10
3	Family Control			.14
4	Peer Support			-.06
5	Family Support			-.03
6	Parent-Peer Compatibility			-.10
	All predictors	.21	.04	

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Regression	6	36.41	6.07	3.90*
Residual	498	775.34	1.56	

* $p<.001$

Perettii, 1981; Robinson, 1978), and the literature relating the influence of peers to problem behavior of youths (Condry & Simon, 1974; Colman, 1970; Dacey, 1982; Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor et al., 1980). Also, these results were in line with the research that was conducted in the Arabian Gulf relating youths' problems to the influence of the family (Al Badrig, 1972; Al Hiti, 1985; Follow-up Bureau, 1985;Al Ghanem, 1985; Ismael, 1984; Al Jismani & Tahhan, 1981; Al Khateeb et al. 1974; & Al Qaysi, 1986).

However, the magnitude of the contribution, though very significant, is relatively low. This low contribution of the perceived environmental system to school discipline could be related to the low reliability of the perceived environment scales. So, one should be careful in generalizing these results to other populations. Moreover, the proximal structure, which is believed to be directly related to problem behavior theory, has been excluded in this study, which could also explain the low contribution of this system to school discipline.

Furthermore, the scales in the perceived environmental system only indicate the influence of parents without specifying the different impact the

sex of the parent may have in relation to the sex of the child. Previous research showed that in Arabian families, the fathers seem to control their sons more, whereas mothers seem to control their daughters more. Also, it was found that daughters prefer their mothers, and sons prefer their fathers (High Council for Youth and Sport & UNESSIF, 1979; Turkey, 1974, 1975).

In addition, siblings may influence the behavior of youths, especially in a traditional culture such as Bahrain, where modernization and rapid social and technical changes have widened the gap between parents and children. Hence, youths could have support or control from their elder siblings as well.

Another alternative explanation for the low contribution of this system could lie in the fact that in Bahraini society, unlike in Western societies, the family plays a major role in influencing the behavior of children, so youths, whether they are disciplined or not, are parent-oriented. Also, the child rearing practices among families are not so diverse, and parents, as the previous literature indicated, are mostly controlling and authoritarian, where the authority is mostly in the hands of the father (Ameen, 1983; Patai, 1974).

Hypothesis 5

The variance in school discipline is predicted or accounted for by the linear climate of all the predictors in the school organization system. These predictors are:

a. Reactions to teachers

b. Commitment to work

c. Satisfaction with school

Table 21 presents data pertaining to regression of school discipline on all the predictors in the school climate system ($R=.35$, $R^2=.12$). To test the significance of R^2, or whether the regression of school discipline on all the predictors in the school climate system is statistically significant, ANOVA was employed. Results presented in Table 21 also reveal that R^2 is very significant ($F=23.12$; $df=3, 501$; $p<.001$). So, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted beyond the .001 level of significance. In other words, all the predictors in the school climate system combined together accounted for 12 percent of the variance in school discipline.

The results are in harmony with previous literature in general relating school climate to

Table 21

Multiple Regression Analysis of School Discipline on Predictors in the School Climate System

Step	Predictors	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
1	Reaction to Teachers			-.30
2	Satisfaction with School			-.19
3	Commitment to Work			-.10
	All Predictors	.35	.12	

Source of variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Regression	3	98.72	32.91	23.12*
Residual	501	713.03	1.42	

* $p<.001$

discipline (Nwanko, 1979; Willower et al., 1975). They are also consistent with precious research in the Arabian Gulf relating youths' problems to school-related factors (Al Ghanem, 1985; Al Hiti, 1985; Al Qaysi, 1986; Bin Hamidah, 1985; Ismael, 1985). These are results are interesting, since they provide an empirical evidence for the importance of including school system to the problem behavior model.

In line with the conceptual framework of problem behavior theory, problem behavior under investigation was related to some risk factors specific to that behavior. In previous studies on different kinds of problem behavior, different risk factors that were specific to those behaviors were delineated. For example, when marijuana use was the target behavior the risk factors were variables related to peer control in the perceived environmental system. On the other hand, when problem drinking was the target behavior under investigation, variables within the personality system were related most to that behavior (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor et al., 1980). In this study, since the problem behavior was school discipline, it was expected that the risk factors should reside in the school system and in academic

achievement--as can be seen from these results and the previous ones.

By examining the Beta weights in Table 21, it can be seen that the reaction to teacher predictors contributed most. This is also interesting, because these results provide an empirical support for the speculation in Bahrain that teacher-student relationship is at stake. Also, it gives a possible answer to the current hot controversy of teacher-student relations and that the disciplinary problems that some students have in Bahrain could be influenced by this relationship.

As teachers seem to contribute significantly to the problem of school discipline in Bahrain, it is insightful to investigate the factors that are related to this important contribution.

Two areas could be of potential significance to be pursued by future investigations, namely teachers' expectations and students' control ideology of Bahraini teachers to determine the relationship between each of these variables and school discipline of Bahraini youths.

Hypothesis 6

The variance in school discipline is accounted for by all the predictors that are included in the research model. These predictors are subsumed within demography and the four systems that constitute the model, namely, behavior system, personality system, perceived social environment system, and school climate system.

Table 22 presents data pertaining to multiple regression analysis ($R=.57$, $R^2=.33$). ANOVA was used to test the significance of R^2, or the proportion of variance in school discipline accounted for by the predictors in the school discipline model, simultaneously. Results in Table 22 also reveal that regressing school discipline on all predictors in the school discipline model is very significant ($F=10.50$; $df=21, 455$; $p<.001$). So, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis is accepted. In other words, all the predictors in the school discipline model accounted for about 33 percent of the variance in school discipline, which was very significant beyond the .001 level.

An important objective of this study was to

Table 22

Multiple Regression Analysis of School Discipline on All of the Predictors in the Research Model

Step	Predictors	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
1	Achievement			.43
2	Parent-Peer Influence			.08
3	Peer Control			-.07
4	Family Size (1)			.00
5	Birth Order (2)			.05
6	Educational Level of Family (2)			.02
7	Family Control			.12
8	Sex			.06
9	Self-Esteem			-.08
10	Family Size (2)			.07
11	Residence			-.07
12	Satisfaction with School			-.20
13	Peer Support			-.06
14	Family Income			.14
15	Parent-Peer Compatibility			-.05
16	Family Support			.03

Table 22 (cont.)

Step	Predictors	Multiple R	R Square	Beta
17	Reactions to Teachers			-.21
18	Specialization			-.02
19	Commitment to work			-.00
20	Birth Order (1)			-.04
21	Educational Level of Family (1)			-.07
	All predictors	.57	.33	

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Regression	21	251.82	11.99	10.50*
Residual	455	519.60	1.14	

* $p < .001$

identify students who were at high risk for disruptive behavior in schools. This was accomplished by identifying the variables that contribute most to school discipline, so that objectives of control and preventive programs for problem behavior could be prioritized in line with the relative importance of these variables.

Hence, stepwise regression analysis was performed with school discipline as the dependent variable, where R^2 or the proportion of variance in school discipline was partitioned incrementally. Forward stepwise selection tests were performed at each step at which each independent variable or set of independent variables were entered into a regression analysis to determine the contribution of each predictor already in the equation if it were to enter last. The predictor that was entered was the one that had the largest t followed by the ones that were smaller until the value of Beta was no longer significant ($p \leq .05$).

Table 23 presents data pertaining to stepwise regression analysis of school discipline on all relevant predictors in terms of their relative contribution to the variance.

Table 23

Stepwise Regression of School Discipline on all the Predictors in the Research Model

Step Wise Predictors	R	R^2	F value	Sig. F	R2 Change	F Change	Sig. F Change	Beta
1. Academic Achievement	.43	.19	109.35	.000	.19	109.35	.000	.43
2. Reactions to Teachers	.51	.26	82.82	.000	.07	45.93	.000	-.27
3. Sex	.53	.28	60.80	.000	.02	12.70	.000	.14
4. Economic Level of Family	.54	.29	49.10	.000	.01	10.26	.001	.13
5. Satisfaction	.55	.30	41.22	.000	.01	7.25	.007	-.12

Results shown in Table 23 reveal that from step 1 through 5 the values of R and R^2 were increasing, whereas the Beta weight associated with each predictor was decreasing. Also, the value of F associated with R^2 was gradually decreasing to a level where R^2 was no longer significant ($p \leq .05$). In step 1, the entering of the achievement predictor accounted for about 19 percent of the variance in school discipline ($p < .001$). In step 2, the entry of reaction to the teachers predictor resulted in an increment of .071 in R^2, which was significant ($p \leq .001$).

Hence both the achievement and reaction to teachers' predictors accounted for 26 percent of the variance in school discipline. In step 3, the entry of the sex predictor, resulted in a further increment of .019 in R^2 which was significant beyond the .001 level of significance. Hence, the three predictor variables--achievement, reaction to teachers, and sex--accounted for about 28 percent of the variance in school discipline. In step 4, the entering of the economic level of family predictor resulted in a further increase of .015 in R^2, which was significant at the .001 level. Hence, the economic level of family predictor, added to the previous three

predictors, accounted for about 29 percent of the variance in school discipline. Finally, in step 5, the entry of the satisfaction with school predictor resulted in an increment of .010 in R^2, which was significant at or below the .01 level of significance. Hence, the satisfaction with school predictor with the previous four predictors accounted for about 30 percent of the variance ($p < .001$).

These results were anticipated and provided strong empirical evidence for the validity of problem behavior theory, not only among youths of different sex, age, socioeconomic levels and ethnic backgrounds within the same culture, but also among youth from a different culture such as that of Bahrain. However, it is important to note that there were different outcomes with relative contributions of different predictors that were specific to the Bahraini culture; behavior system and demography contributed to problem behavior more in the case of Bahraini youths than for youths in the American culture. Besides, school system had a significant contribution to school discipline, which could contribute a new area of investigation for further research on problem behavior.

Examining the data pertaining to stepwise regression (Table 23), it is essential to consider these predictors in terms of their relative importance. These data provide support that the most vulnerable groups of students could be the low achievers, then students who have bad relationships with teachers, then boys, then low income students, and finally students who have a low level of school satisfaction.

Though the results of this study indicated that the above mentioned predictors accounted for about 33 percent of school discipline, yet, there was a big portion of the variance that is not yet explained. Hence, the contribution of other factors that could influence school discipline, such as mass media, school transition from intermediate level to secondary level, and developmental changes that are inherent in the adolescence stage, warrant further investigation to determine the contribution of these factors to school discipline.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Problem

Youths in Bahrain, who constitute over 20 percent of the total population in Bahrain (Statistical Abstract, 1981), have been perceived to face many challenges in the present time. Some of these challenges are related to the rapid technological and social changes, such as: the widened generation gap, urbanization, the influx of foreign manpower, changes in the family structure, explosion of knowledge, influence of the mass media, the need for vocational training, the sudden increase in wealth in the 1970s followed by a sudden economic recession with imposed restrictions on expenditure, and finally an unpredictable future where oil is depleting and natural and human resources are limited. Other types of challenges that Bahraini youths have to face are the developmental changes: physical, mental, emotional, social, and personality changes.

Hence, Bahraini youths at this critical stage of human development have to cope with the burden of rapid technological and social changes that are inevitable in a traditional society such as that of Bahrain, which is moving with wide strides toward modernization.

Problem behavior of youths could be attributed to these changes, and it has been the major concern of parents, teachers, principals, and officials in Bahrain to discover the needs of the youth and to find every possible way to help solve their problems. One of the major behavior problems that Bahraini youths seem to have is school discipline, as has been reported by their teachers, principals, and some researchers (Suar, 1986).

Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate the factors that were related to school discipline and that could best predict its occurrence among Bahraini youths. Having delineated those factors, the investigator believes that the Ministry of Education, supported by all those who are concerned about youths, could design and implement preventive and control programs for the problem behavior of youths in Bahraini schools.

The problem behavior theory of Jessor & Jessor (1977) was the conceptual framework that the present study was based on. This theory was selected because it deals with problem behavior from a multi-dimensional approach. This theory has been tested on different kinds of problem behavior, such as marijuana use, problem drinking, and deviance. Also, it has been used for youths of different age, sex, and ethnic groups in both longitudinal and cross-sectional studies and the results were consistent; that is, the psychosocial factors that constitute this theory accounted for about 50 percent of problem behavior (Donovan, 1973; Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor et al., 1980).

Problem behavior, according to Jessor & Jessor (1977) occurs by the interaction of three systems: personality system, perceived environment system, and behavior system. Each is considered a system, because it includes interrelated variables that indicate varied possibilities of occurrence of problem behavior. For the purpose of the study, the problem behavior was modified by adding a new system, namely, the school system. Besides, demography was given primary importance, as this area seems to be related to the behavior of youths in Bahraini

culture. In addition, school discipline has been perceived according to the social norms of Bahraini culture and has been operationally defined with reference to the perception of Bahraini teachers reflected in their ratings of disciplined and non-disciplined students.

The predictive nature of the study makes it possible to predict the onset of problem behavior, such as school discipline, by discovering the youths' general tendency toward that behavior. These tendencies represent a psychosocial risk within and across all systems, regardless of the specific behavior under investigation. Also, engaging in any kind of problem behavior could be related to other kinds of problem behaviors, and could be seen as a part of a syndrome of youth problem behavior.

The literature on school discipline and the variables included in the study has been reviewed. The literature first presented a brief description of problem behavior theory of Jessor and Jessor (1977), which is the conceptual framework on which this study is based. Then, the literature pertaining to the four major systems have been discussed; behavior system, personality system, perceived environment system, and school system. The last major section

has dealt with school discipline in Bahrain with an emphasis on available literature on influence of family, influence of school, and influence of demography.

Based on the previous literature, seven research questions have been sought to be answered with reference to demography, and six research hypotheses have been drawn to be tested. The first five hypotheses have dealt with the independent contribution of demography, behavior system, personality system, perceived environment system, and school system, to school discipline. The last hypothesis has dealt with the combined contribution of all predictor variables to school discipline.

Methodology

The sample consisted of 17 classes that were randomly selected from the total population of first secondary school classes from both boys' and girls' schools. The total number of the sample was 505 students, of which 205 were males and 260 were females. With respect to specialization, there were 252 art students and 253 science students.

The investigator visited all classes and administered the questionnaire to students, then

during later visits collected data pertaining to demography, school discipline, and academic achievement.

The instrument consisted of a 45-item self-reporting questionnaire, which was a combination of two questionnaires, the Problem Behavior Questionnaire and the Quality of School Life questionnaire, and an 11-item questionnaire which included variables related to demography, achievement and discipline.

The research questions were tested by using the analysis of variance procedure, whereas the research hypotheses were tested by using the multiple regression procedure.

Results

Regarding the research questions, data analysis using ANOVA resulted in the following:

1. For the research question related to the influence of sex differences on school discipline, F was significant ($F=4.54$; $df=1, 503$; $p < .05$), and males' mean score was higher than that of females.

2. For the research question related to the influence of specialization (arts versus sciences) on school discipline, F was significant ($F=33.75$; $df=1$,

503; p <.001), and mean scores for art students were higher than that of the science students.

3. For the research question related to the influence of economic level of the family (high, above average, average, below average, and low) on school discipline F was significant (F=5.75; df=4, 499; p <.001), using Tukey method procedure. The population means of groups of below and low average were significantly different from those of high and above average income. Besides, the population mean of the below average group was significantly different from that of the above average group.

4. For the research question related to the influence of family size (3 or less, 4-6, 7 or more) on school discipline, F was not significant (F=.21; df=2, 495; p >.05).

5. For the research question related to the influence of educational level of the family, F was significant (F=5.47; df=2, 497; p <.01). Using Tukey method, it was shown that the population means of the low and average educational level of family group were significantly different from those of the high educational level group.

6. For the research question related to the influence of birth order (eldest, medium, youngest) F was not significant (F=1.76; df=2, 488; $p \geq .05$).

7. For the research question related to the influence of geographical distribution (urbans versus rurals), F was not significant (F=1.43; df=1, 498; $p \geq .05$).

Regarding the research hypotheses, the data analysis using multiple regression analysis resulted in the following:

1. The contribution of demography to school discipline was significant (R^2=.11; F=6.08; df=10, 467; $p < .001$). Hence the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted at the < .001 level of significance.

2. The contribution of academic achievement to school discipline was significant (R^2=.19; df=1, 502; F=119.42). Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted at the < .001 level of significance.

3. The contribution of school system was significant (R^2=.12; F=23.12; df=3, 501; $p < .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted at the < .001 level of significance.

4. The contribution of perceived environment system was significant (R^2=.04; F=3.89; df=6, 498; p<.001). Hence the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted at the p<.001 level of significance.

5. The contribution of the school system was significant (R^2=.12; F=23.12; df=3, 501; p<.001). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted at the < .001 level of significance.

6. The combined contribution of all predictors in the school discipline model was significant (R^2=.33; F=10.50; df=21, 455; p<.001). So, the null hypothesis was rejected and the research hypothesis was accepted at the < .001 level of significance.

To determine the relative contribution of all predictors in the equation, forward stepwise regression showed that R^2=.30 was significant for the following predictors in terms of their relative contribution: (1) academic achievement (R^2=.18, f=109.3, p < .001); (2) reactions to teachers (R^2=.25, F=45.9, p <.001); (3) sex or gender (R^2=.27, F=12.7, p <.001); (4) economic level of family (R^2=.29, F=10.2, p=.001); (5) satisfaction with school (R^2=.30, F=7.2, p<.01).

Conclusions

Based on the findings from this investigation, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. There is a significant difference between Bahraini male and female students in the secondary general education on school discipline, and male students tend to be less disciplined than female students.

2. There is a significant difference between arts and science students on school discipline at the secondary level of general education in Bahrain. Arts students are less disciplined than science students.

3. The economic level of the family plays an important role in relation to school discipline, and there is a significant difference between students of different economic level of family on school discipline for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in the secondary general education. Besides, students of below average and low economic levels appear to be significantly different from those of the high and above average levels in terms of school discipline. Moreover, students of below average economic levels appear to be significantly different from the group of average economic level of family.

In general, youths of lower family income seem to be less disciplined than those of higher family income.

4. Family size, birth order in the family, and geographical distribution do not seem to play an important role in relation to school discipline for the selected sample of Bahraini youth; as there was not a significant difference among students of different family size, different birth order, or different geographic distribution.

5. The educational level of the family seems to be important for youths in the first secondary general education level in Bahrain. There is a significant difference between students of different educational levels of family. Also, students of low educational levels seem to be significantly different (and less disciplined) than students in the average and high educational level.

6. Demography predicts school discipline and accounts for a significant portion of the variance in school discipline for the selected sample of Bahraini youths in secondary general education in Bahrain.

7. Academic achievement predicts school discipline and accounts for a significant portion of the variance for Bahraini youths in secondary general education.

8. Self-esteem does not account for a significant portion of the variance in school discipline, hence it is of little importance in predicting school discipline for Bahraini students in secondary general education.

9. The independent contribution of the combined predictors in the perceived environment system to school discipline is significant for Bahraini youths in secondary general education. The practical contribution of this system, though statistically significant, is questionable due to the low level of its contribution.

10. The school system, especially teachers, plays a significant role in predicting school discipline for students in secondary general education in Bahrain.

11. The combined contribution of all predictors in the school discipline model accounts for a significant portion of the variance in school discipline. However, this contribution is attributed mainly to five predictors. These predictors with respect to their relative contribution from highest to lowest are: (a) academic achievement, (b) reactions to teachers, (c) sex or gender, (d)

economic level of family, and (e) satisfaction with school.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were suggested:

1. Since academic achievement contributes most to school discipline, factors related to academic achievement in Bahraini schools should be thoroughly investigated to delineate the relationship between those factors and school discipline. These factors may lie in the educational system, the belief system of teachers and principals, or even within the students themselves. The attribution research may offer a deep understanding of the motivation system behind the thinking and behavior of youths, and may also explain why some students are low achievers, and consequently become disruptive. The educational policy in Bahrain of letting students pass from one grade to another continuously and automatically regardless of their own effort makes the attribution research in Bahrain warrant serious investigation to determine the influence of the continuous or automatic promotion on students' attribution of

success and failure, and consequently on their achievement and behavior

Another area that is perceived to be of potential importance is the area of teachers' expectation in relation to the low level of achievement of some students, especially those in the art specializations. Students' achievement could be a mediator between teacher expectation and school discipline.

Therefore, it is recommended that future research be conducted in these two areas.

2. As teachers' significant contribution to school discipline came second in importance to academic achievement, it is recommended that special attention be given to those factors related to teachers' influence on students. Some of these factors could be related to the low economic and social status of Bahraini teachers. Other factors could be related to the insufficient or inadequate training of Bahraini teachers that would qualify them for this important job. Some other factors could be related to the teacher-student relationship on one hand, and the teacher-principal relationship on the other. Based on these analyses with respect to teachers' contribution, it is recommended that all

efforts be directed to improving the image of the teaching profession in Bahrain. This can be done by improving the economic and social status of teachers. Teaching should not be perceived as only finishing the curriculum at the end of the year. It rather should mean enhancing the professional and personal growth of teachers and building a healthy relationship between teachers and students based on mutual trust, respect, and understanding. It is also recommended that programs be designed by some professionals in teachers training to train Bahraini teachers on how to be effective in their classroom, on how to use management strategies, and how to communicate with their students.

3. Since school discipline is multidimensional, as shown in this study, it is recommended that all psychosocial variables be taken into account when solving this problem. Thus, school discipline should be a joint venture, where students, parents, teachers, principals, social workers, psychologists, curriculum specialists, and officials cooperate to solve the disciplinary problems of youths. Each group should assume responsibility to help alleviate this problem without blaming the other group for

causing it but, rather all groups should cooperate to achieve that goal.

4. Data concerning demography, school achievement, and school discipline should be more accurate and specific. The Ministry of Education should follow a standard procedure in collecting data and keeping them in students' records, so that researchers would benefit from this information, without being misled or misguided. Also, scales concerning personality system and perceived environmental system should be improved to determine the real contribution of these areas to school discipline.

5. Youths in Bahraini schools should find greater relevancy in learning, where they discover what they study is worthwhile in the world of work. Also, the curriculum of schools should change to help children adjust to the rapid technological and social changes in their society. Importantly, the focus of teachers and curriculum specialists should not be on the content of the curriculum that may soon be irrelevant in a rapidly changing society, but rather on how students should think.

6. It is insightful to note that some kinds of nonconforming behavior of some students could reflect

creativity and novel responses that though could apparently be seen as nondisciplined, yet are desired and should be nurtured rather than stifled by overemphasis on discipline. So, only a competent teacher can distinguish between the behavior that is driven by a creative need, or the one that is potentially harmful to oneself and others.

7. Finally, it is recommended that further investigation be performed to explore the contribution of other areas, such as mass media, school transition, and developmental changes at adolescence to put school discipline in its real perspective in the research endeavor. Also, educators, researchers, and officials should seize upon the problem of school discipline as an opportunity for educational improvement, rather than suppress it. This problem could be related to other behavior problems that Bahraini youths have. Hence, it would benefit youths, their future, and their country if this problem and other similar ones are confronted to be solved, in the best way possible.

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APPENDIX A

Psychometric Information about the Sample

SCHOOL

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
	A	62	12.3	12.3	12.3
	B	22	4.4	4.4	16.6
	1	21	4.2	4.2	20.8
	2	59	11.7	11.7	32.5
	3	55	10.9	10.9	43.4
	4	67	13.3	13.3	56.6
	5	25	5.0	5.0	61.6
	7	62	12.3	12.3	73.9
	8	67	13.3	13.3	87.1
	9	65	12.9	12.9	100.0
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

VALID CASES 505 MISSING CASES 0

SEX

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
FEMALE	F	260	51.5	51.5	51.5
MALE	M	245	48.5	48.5	100.0
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

VALID CASES 505 MISSING CASES 0

MAJOR SPECIALIZATION

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
ARTS	A	252	49.9	49.9	49.9
SCIENCE	S	253	50.1	50.1	100.0
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

VALID CASES 505 MISSING CASES 0

AGE

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
	10	14	2.8	3.0	3.0
	12	4	.8	.9	3.8
	14	5	1.0	1.1	4.9
	15	64	12.7	13.7	18.6
	16	157	31.1	33.5	52.1
	17	155	30.7	33.1	85.3
	18	46	9.1	9.8	95.1
	19	14	2.8	3.0	98.1
	20	8	1.6	1.7	99.8
	21	1	.2	.2	100.0
	.	37	7.3	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	16.325	STD ERR	.075	MEDIAN	16.000
MODE	16.000	STD DEV	1.617	VARIANCE	2.614
KURTOSIS	5.615	S E KURT	.225	SKEWNESS	-1.553
S E SKEW	.113	RANGE	11.000	MINIMUM	10.000
MAXIMUM	21.000	SUM	7640.000		

VALID CASES	468	MISSING CASES	37

INCOME ECONOMIC LEVEL OF FAMILY

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
HIGH	1	19	3.8	3.8	3.8
ABOVE AVERAGE	2	93	18.4	18.5	22.2
AVERAGE	3	257	50.9	51.0	73.2
BELOW AVERAGE	4	70	13.9	13.9	87.1
LOW	5	65	12.9	12.9	100.0
	.	1	.2	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	3.137	STD ERR	.044	MEDIAN	3.000
MODE	3.000	STD DEV	.987	VARIANCE	.973
KURTOSIS	-.100	S E KURT	.217	SKEWNESS	.297
S E SKEW	.109	RANGE	4.000	MINIMUM	1.000
MAXIMUM	5.000	SUM	1581.000		

VALID CASES 504 MISSING CASES 1

EDUC EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FAMILY

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
LOW	1	274	54.3	54.8	54.8
AVERAGE	2	118	23.4	23.6	78.4
HIGH	3	108	21.4	21.6	100.0
	.	5	1.0	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	1.668	STD ERR	.036	MEDIAN	1.000
MODE	1.000	STD DEV	.809	VARIANCE	.655
KURTOSIS	-1.147	S E KURT	.218	SKEWNESS	.675
S E SKEW	.109	RANGE	2.000	MINIMUM	1.000
MAXIMUM	3.000	SUM	834.000		

VALID CASES 500 MISSING CASES 5

NUMFAM NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
3 OR LESS	1	6	1.2	1.2	1.2
4 MEMBERS	2	17	3.4	3.4	4.6
5 MEMBERS	3	43	8.5	8.6	13.3
6 MEMBERS	4	41	8.1	8.2	21.5
7 OR MORE	5	391	77.4	78.5	100.0
	.	7	1.4	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	4.594	STD ERR	.039	MEDIAN	5.000
MODE	5.000	STD DEV	.874	VARIANCE	.765
KURTOSIS	4.174	S E KURT	.218	SKEWNESS	-2.212
S E SKEW	.109	RANGE	4.000	MINIMUM	1.000
MAXIMUM	5.000	SUM	2288.000		

VALID CASES 498 MISSING CASES 7

ORDER ORDER IN FAMILY

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
ELDEST	1	82	16.2	16.7	16.7
MIDDLE	2	347	68.7	70.7	87.4
YOUNGEST	3	62	12.3	12.6	100.0
	.	14	2.8	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	1.959	STD ERR	.024	MEDIAN	2.000
MODE	2.000	STD DEV	.541	VARIANCE	.292
KURTOSIS	.421	S E KURT	.220	SKEWNESS	-.032
S E SKEW	.110	RANGE	2.000	MINIMUM	1.000
MAXIMUM	3.000	SUM	962.000		

VALID CASES	491	MISSING CASES	14

RESIDE RESIDENCE AREA

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
VILLAGE	0	243	48.1	48.6	48.6
CITY	1	257	50.9	51.4	100.0
	.	5	1.0	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	.514	STD ERR	.022	MEDIAN	1.000
MODE	1.000	STD DEV	.500	VARIANCE	.250
KURTOSIS	-2.005	S E KURT	.218	SKEWNESS	-.056
S E SKEW	.109	RANGE	1.000	MINIMUM	.000
MAXIMUM	1.000	SUM	257.000		

VALID CASES 500 MISSING CASES 5

ACHIEVE GRADE ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT LAST TERM

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
EXCELLENT	1	50	9.9	9.9	9.9
VERY GOOD	2	90	17.8	17.9	27.8
GOOD	3	153	30.3	30.4	58.1
AVERAGE	4	129	25.5	25.6	83.7
SATISFACTORY	5	69	13.7	13.7	97.4
POOR	6	13	2.6	2.6	100.0
	.	1	.2	MISSING	
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	3.230	STD ERR	.056	MEDIAN	3.000
MODE	3.000	STD DEV	1.249	VARIANCE	1.561
KURTOSIS	-.599	S E KURT	.217	SKEWNESS	-.007
S E SKEW	.109	RANGE	5.000	MINIMUM	1.000
MAXIMUM	6.000	SUM	1628.000		

VALID CASES	504	MISSING CASES	1

DISCIP GRADE ON SCHOOL DISCIPLINE LAST TERM

VALUE LABEL	VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
EXCELLENT	1	128	25.3	25.3	25.3
VERY GOOD	2	121	24.0	24.0	49.3
GOOD	3	143	28.3	28.3	77.6
AVERAGE	4	75	14.9	14.9	92.5
SATISFACTORY	5	29	5.7	5.7	98.2
POOR	6	9	1.8	1.8	100.0
	TOTAL	505	100.0	100.0	

MEAN	2.570	STD ERR	.056	MEDIAN	3.000
MODE	3.000	STD DEV	1.269	VARIANCE	1.611
KURTOSIS	-.413	S E KURT	.217	SKEWNESS	.479
S E SKEW	.109	RANGE	5.000	MINIMUM	1.000
MAXIMUM	6.000	SUM	1298.000		

VALID CASES 505 MISSING CASES 0

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE, PART I

QUESTIONNAIRE, PART I

Student Code No._____

Name _____

Sex _____

School _____

Grade _____

The purpose of this research is to explore factors that may influence the behavior of youths in order that a better understanding can be gained of their problems, needs, and aspirations. Therefore, your cooperation in being accurate and honest in responding to this questionnaire is very important to help achieve this goal.

General Directions

Please read the following:

1. Fill in the information above regarding your name, sex, school, and grade.

2. The are four parts to this questionnaire. Please read the directions of each part carefully, then answer the questions, following those directions.

3. This questionnaire is not a test, and it will not be graded. Hence, there are no right or wrong answers. All of your answers are welcome as long as they reflect what you really think and feel.

4. Be careful to answer all questions and be sure to select only one response that you find to be the most appropriate answer for each of the questions.

5. If there is anything you do not understand, please ask for help.

Thank you,

Jihan Alumran

A. Personality System: Self-Esteem

These questions are about how you see yourself as a person, how you feel about yourself, and how you evaluate yourself. Please answer the questions in terms of how you see yourself at this point in your life.

Circle one response for each question.

1. How easy is it for me to form meaningful relationships with other members of my sex?

a)	b)	c)	d)
Not easy at all	not too easy	fairly easy	very easy

2. How much respect do I feel for myself as a person?

a)	b)	c)	d)
Not much at all	not too much	a fair amount	a great deal

3. How confident do I feel about my potential for self-development in the next few years?

a)	b)	c)	d)
Not confident at all	Not too confident	fairly confident	very confident

4. How interesting do I feel I am to other people?

a)	b)	c)	d)
Not interesting at all	not too interesting	fairly interesting	very interesting

5. On the whole, how satisfied am I with myself?

a)	b)	c)	d)
Not satisfied at all	not too satisfied	fairly satisfied	very satisfied

B. Perceived Social Environment System

The following questions are designed to give you a chance to tell us about people in the world around you. It is important that you tell us about them and not about you. Give each question some serious through and be as frank as you can in answering it. You may find you are not sure of your answer in all cases, but do the best you can.

Following each question there are five possible answers. Simply circle the letter of the answer most appropriate for each question.

6. Would you say that your parents generally encourage you to do what you are interested in doing and show interest in those things themselves?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Hardly ever	not too often	sometimes	very often	almost always

7. When you need help with some problems you're having do your parents try to understand and give you the help you need?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Hardly ever	not too often	sometimes	very often	almost always

8. Compared to the parents of your students, how strict would you say your parents are with you?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
A lot less strict	less strict	about the same	more strict	a lot more strict

9. If you act in a way your parents disapprove of, are they likely to make things tough for you?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Hardly ever	not too often	sometimes	very often	almost always

10. Do you feel free to talk to <u>your friends</u> about personal problems when you want to?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Hardly ever	not too often	sometimes	very often	almost always

11. Do <u>your friends</u> encourage you and show interest in your ideas, you plans, and your feelings

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Hardly ever	not too often	sometimes	very often	almost always

12. If you were planning to do something <u>your friends</u> disapprove of, would they do whatever they could to persuade you not to do it?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Hardly ever	not too often	sometimes	very often	almost always

13. Compared to most other students, how strict would you say <u>your friends</u> are about standards of how to behave?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
A lot less strict	less strict	about the same	more strict	a lot more strict

14. With respect to the sort of things you personally think are important in life, would say that <u>your parents</u> and <u>your friends</u> are pretty much in agreement about these things?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
No agreement at all	some agreement	a fair amount	a lot of agreement	almost complete agreement

15. Would you say your parents and your friends have much the same idea about what kind of person you should become?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
No agreement at all	some agreement	a fair amount	a lot of agreement	almost complete agreement

16. With respect to what you should get out of being in school, would say that your parents and your friends think pretty much the same way about it?

a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
No agreement at all	some agreement	a fair amount	a lot of agreement	almost complete agreement

17. If you had a serious decision to make, such as whether or not to continue school, or whether or not to get married, whose opinion would you value most . . . your parents, or your friends?

a)	b)	c)
parents most	parents and friends equally	friends most

18. With regard to your present outlook on life, what is important to do and what is important to be . . . whose views have had a greater impact on you, your friends or your parents?

a)	b)	c)
parents greater	parents and friends equally	friends greater

C. School Climate System

The questions in this part will help you and others who seek to improve schools to understand how you feel about school and things that happen in school.

Read each question carefully, then mark one answer only that is closest to what you think.

Circle "a" if the following statements are TRUE and circle "b" if they are FALSE for you.

	TRUE	FALSE	
19.	a	b	In class, I often count the minutes till it ends.
20.	a	b	I wish I could have the same teachers next year.
21.	a	b	Most of the time I do not want to go to school.
22.	a	b	Most of my teacher want me to do things their way and not my own way.
23.	a	b	I hardly ever do anything very exciting in class.
24.	a	b	My teachers often act as if they are always right and I am wrong.
25.	a	b	I am very happy when I am in school.
26.	a	b	Most of my teachers really listen to what I have to say.
27.	a	b	I daydream a lot in class.
28.	a	b	Certain students in my classes are favored by my teachers more than the rest.

29.	a	b	I like school very much.
30.	a	b	Teachers here have a way with students that makes me like them.
31.	a	b	Most of the topics we study in class can't end soon enough to suit me.
32.	a	b	Most of my teachers do not like me to ask a lot of questions during a lesson.

Check one ( ) answer that tells best what YOU think.

33. This term I am eager to get to . . .

_____a all my classes.

_____b most of my classes.

_____c about half of my classes.

_____d one or two classes.

_____e none of my classes.

34. How would you rate the ability of most of your teachers compared to teachers in other schools at your grade level?
My teachers are . . .

_____a far above average.

_____b above average.

_____c average.

_____d below average.

_____e far below average.

35. In my classes I get so interested in an assignment or project that I don't want to stop work.

_____a Never.

_____b Hardly ever.

_____c Quite often.

_____d Every day.

Check <u>one</u> ( ) answer that tells best what YOU think.

36. Thinking of my teachers this term, I really like . . .

_____a all of them.

_____b most of them.

_____c half of them.

_____d one or two of them.

_____e none of them.

37. The school and I are like . . .

_____a good friends.

_____b friends.

_____c distant relatives.

_____d strangers.

_____e enemies.

38. The work I do in most classes is . . .

_____a not at all important to me.

_____b not too important to me.

_____c pretty important to me.

_____d very important to me.

39. This term my teachers and I are . . .

_____a on the same wave length.

_____b on the same planet.

_____c somewhere in the same solar system.

_____d in two different worlds.

40. The things I get to work on in most of my classes are . . .

_____a great stuff--really interesting to me.

_____b good stuff--pretty interesting to me.

_____c OK--school work is school work.

_____d dull stuff--not very interesting to me.

_____e a total loss for me.

41. If you could choose to take any courses at all, how many of your present courses would you take?

_____a All of them.

_____b More than half.

_____c About half.

_____d Fewer than half.

_____e None of them.

Read each statement. Then check ( ) Always, Often, Sometimes, Seldom, or Never to tell how often the statement is true for YOU.

	a	b	c	d	e
42. I enjoy the work I do in class.	Always ___	Often ___	Sometimes ___	Seldom ___	Never ___
43. Work in class is just busy work and a waste of time.	___	___	___	___	___
44. I feel I can go to my teachers with the things that are on my mind.	___	___	___	___	___
45. School work is dull and boring for me.	___	___	___	___	___

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE, PART II

QUESTIONNAIRE, PART II

Check ( ) the most appropriate response.

A. Behavior System

1. Grade on academic achievement last term:-
   a.____ excellent
   b.____ very good
   c.____ good
   d.____ average
   e.____ satisfactory
   f.____ poor

2. Grade on school discipline (behavior) last term:-
   a.____ excellent
   b.____ very good
   c.____ good
   d.____ average
   e.____ satisfactory
   f.____ poor

B. Demography

3. Sex Male _____ Female _____

4. Age _____

5. Specialization: Science _____ Arts _____

6. Economic level of family:-
   a.____ high
   b.____ above average
   c.____ average
   d.____ below average
   e.____ low

7. Educational level of father:-
   a.____ illiterate
   b.____ primary
   c.____ intermediate
   d.____ secondary
   e.____ college

8. Educational level of mother:-
   a.____ illiterate
   b.____ primary
   c.____ intermediate
   d.____ secondary
   e.____ college

9. Number of family members:-
   a.____ 3 or less
   b.____ 4
   c.____ 5
   d.____ 6
   e.____ 7 or more

10. Order in family:-
   a.____ eldest
   b.____ middle
   c.____ youngest

11. Residence area:-
   a.____ village
   b.____ city