Managing Urban Classrooms: Exploring Beginning Teachers' Beliefs, Actions, and Influences of Classroom Management

by

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Dedication

This is dedicated to the best mother I ever had. I know you would have been surprised that I would have attempted let alone completed such a task. Your support while you were around and even more so since you've been gone has carried me throughout life. You have always been my inspiration and I hope that you get a chance to read this in Heaven during times when you're not playing with Comet.

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To all of my colleagues, peers, and professors, you have all taught me so much and continue to teach me what educational research should look like. I know future minds, youth and graduate alike, will be changed for the better having come into contact with you. I want to specifically thank

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Appendices

Appendix

Abstract

  Beginning teachers struggle with classroom management, which is especially problematic for urban schools and other low-achieving, high-poverty environments that employ a disproportionate number of beginning teachers. These teachers tend to enter classrooms unprepared to deal with student misbehavior and tend not to receive adequate support to improve over time. In order to develop beginning teachers as effective classroom managers prior to and within their full-time placement, more needs to be learned about how beginning teachers manage their urban classrooms.

  This descriptive, mixed method study of one interim certification program explores first year urban teachers' classroom management experience. I investigate how teachers conceptualize classroom management, what actions they implement to manage the classroom, and who or what they report as helping them to develop in classroom management. Programmatic surveys of 87 first year teachers provide broad trends of teachers' beliefs, actions, and influences, while interviews, field visits, video recordings, and journals detail five case participants' experiences throughout the year. Case study analyses indicate that teachers differed in the degree to which they emphasized relational dimensions of classroom management. Relatedly, teachers who reported relational beliefs on their program surveys received higher evaluation ratings as compared to teachers who did not report relational beliefs. This study also indicates that teachers felt they improved most as classroom managers when school and program personnel provided them with specific and timely feedback about alternative methods to manage classrooms, and when they learned from their mistakes during clinical and classroom experience.

  These findings have implications for teacher preparation and professional development on how to support teachers in managing classrooms. Findings suggest designing teacher education to emphasize a relational approach to classroom management that underscores the importance of establishing a safe environment and using strategies to promote positive interactions in the classroom. These findings also suggest improving how we prepare classroom managers by increasing

the frequency that teacher educators observe new teachers and by offering feedback that is more targeted and presents alternative methods of managing classrooms.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Beginning urban teachers face a multitude of issues upon entering the classroom. They need to learn the profession (Headden, 2014), they need to learn the profession in often "challenging" school contexts (Hanna & Pennington, 2015; Weiner, 2000; Jacob, 2007), and, for the increasing number of beginning urban teachers who are joining the profession from alternate certification programs, they need to learn the profession with limited preparation (Humphrey & Wechsler, 2008). Despite these issues, beginning urban teachers are expected to perform at a high level in order to raise the academic achievement of students who are often from low-achieving and high-poverty backgrounds (Zeichner & Schulte, 2001; Kane et al., 2008).

One way for these teachers to succeed and to raise academic achievement is through effective classroom management, which is defined as the actions teachers use "to establish and sustain an orderly environment so students can engage in meaningful academic learning…[and] to enhance students' social and moral growth" (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006, p.4). Effective classroom management has been associated with better student outcomes including academic achievement and socio-emotional growth (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Pianta et al., 2008). For example, teachers can create a classroom environment that values learning by effectively managing their classrooms and preventing off-task or disruptive behavior. Consequently, they can focus on teaching academic content rather than quelling misbehavior, which may eventually lead to increased student achievement (Rogoff et al., 2001; Stronge et al., 2010). Effective classroom management also establishes a sense of community, which may positively impact students' intrinsic motivation, empathy, and self-esteem (Solomon et al., 1996). These socio-emotional characteristics are better fostered when disruptions are limited so teachers can facilitate positive interactions among students.

In addition to its demonstrated impact on students, classroom management is also associated with teacher outcomes. For instance, teachers who are unable to discipline students or feel unsupported by administration to give consequences—both aspects related to classroom management—tend to have higher levels of stress, making them more likely to have issues with their physical health (Lewis, 1999). Furthermore, ineffective classroom management can contribute to

teacher turnover as teachers attribute leaving the profession to related issues such as student misbehavior, lack of intrinsic student motivation, and large class sizes (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Martin et al., 2012; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Haberman & Rickards, 1999). These findings draw attention to the importance of preparation and support for beginning teachers to meet the management demands of the classroom.

Classroom management has consistently been identified as one of the most important pedagogical skills (Veenman, 1984; Kagan, 1992; Hoy, 1968), and one of the foremost skills to complement or enhance instruction (Greenberg et al., 2014). Yet, classroom management consistently ranks as one of the top struggles for these teachers (Headden, 2014; Langdon & Vesper, 2006; Langdon 2000), in large part because they are unsure how to manage disruptive students or positively assert authority in the classroom (Stoughton, 2007; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Veenman, 1984). Of the limited strategies that they do know, beginning teachers struggle to effectively implement these actions in their classrooms (Westling, 2010; Britt, 1997; Range et al., 2012; Sokal et al., 2003). This deficiency in classroom management skills is why national training programs like The New Teacher Project list classroom management as a core skill that, if properly cultivated, promotes rapid pedagogical development (Mulhern et al., 2013; Greenberg et al., 2014).

Moreover, beginning teachers in urban schools may have to rely more on classroom management skills in order to succeed than teachers in non-urban settings (Milner & Tenore, 2010; Milner, 2006). Urban schools tend to have higher rates of disruptions and students with behavioral problems (Jacob, 2007; Milner, 2006; Weiner, 2000), yet urban schools often have over double the proportion of inexperienced teachers as their suburban or low-poverty counterparts (Mayer et al. 2001). At the heart of this issue are alternative certification programs, which place beginning teachers in primarily high poverty schools and have become increasingly common. But, these programs tend to provide teachers with limited preparation prior to becoming teachers of record, making it difficult for teachers to develop the necessary classroom management skills (Humphrey & Wechsler, 2008; Hammerness, 2011; Schonfield & Feinman, 2012).

While classroom management is important, particularly for new teachers in urban settings, the research on how beginning teachers learn to manage classrooms or how best to support them in doing so is limited. In order to address these issues, this study draws on qualitative and quantitative longitudinal data on beginning teachers who were enrolled in both an interim certification program (CERT) and an Alternative Certification Program (ACP) to explore what beginning urban teachers believe about classroom management, what classroom management actions teachers implement, and

who or what influences teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions. As such, the research questions that guide my study are:

1. What do CERT teachers believe about classroom management? How do their beliefs change over the course of their first year?

2. What classroom management actions do CERT teachers use? How do their actions change over the course of their first year?

3. What is the relationship between CERT teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions?

4. Do teachers who report different kinds of management beliefs and actions receive higher ratings of instructional quality?

5. What factors do CERT teachers' report influencing their classroom management beliefs and actions? Do the influences that CERT teachers report change over the course of their first year?

In order to address these research questions, I used a mixed methodological approach to allow for multiple theoretical frames and modes of data collection to investigate teachers' classroom management experience and development (Greene, 2007). I gathered information about the average classroom management beliefs, self-perceived actions, and reported influences of development across first year CERT teachers from two program-wide surveys (n=87). Complementing the survey data are field instructor observational evaluations, which provide a measure of quality of teaching for each CERT participant. In addition to the program-wide data, I selected five CERT teachers as case study participants (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983) to gather richer descriptions of beliefs, actions, and influences within teachers' social contexts, and how these beliefs, actions, and influences changed throughout their first year. For case participants, I collected additional data including interviews, journals, field observations, and video recordings to provide detailed evidence about how these teachers managed their classrooms and on factors that influenced them.

Findings from this study address several key areas in the research of classroom management. First, this study provides insight about beginning teachers and their classroom management experience. I was able to study 87 first year teachers and explore five case participants in depth to establish a foundation of first year in-service teachers' beliefs, actions, and influences from one program regarding classroom management. Second, I research how teachers develop as classroom managers over time. I explore whether teachers' beliefs, actions, and influences change over time, and how changes, if any, impact how teachers improve in their classroom management. Third, this study investigates the relationship between teachers' beliefs and actions to reveal whether how teachers conceptualize classroom management has an impact on how they actually manage the

classroom, as measured by self-reported and observed data on teacher actions. Fourth, I explore influences on teachers' beliefs and actions in classroom management, which has important implications for teacher educators to support in-service teachers to improve as classroom managers.

In the next chapter, I review existing literature to identify relevant research concerning teachers' classroom management beliefs, actions, and influences. The literature reveals that teachers' struggles with classroom management could be a result of solely focusing on behavior, but there have been recent shifts in the literature to suggest that effective beginning teachers also emphasize instruction and building relationships with students in order to manage classrooms. I conclude the chapter by presenting my conceptual framework to explain the impact that teacher preparation and in-service supports can have in developing different aspects of teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions. In Chapter 3, I describe the mixed methodological approaches that guide this study. I establish the sample being studied, the data sources, and analytic methods I use to answer my research questions. Then, I present two chapters on research findings. Chapter 4 focuses on classroom management beliefs and actions, and the presence of two types of classroom managers found within my sample: "more relational" classroom managers, who emphasize relational aspects of the classroom alongside behavior and academic aspects, and "less relational" classroom managers, who focus more on behavior and academics and less on the relational aspects. In this chapter, I also test whether certain kinds of beliefs and actions predict better instructional quality, as measured by observational evaluations, and find that characteristics resembling "more relational" classroom managers were associated with better quality teaching. Chapter 5 summarizes findings about central influences on teachers' development as classroom managers, emphasizing the importance of providing teachers with timely and specific feedback, alternative ways to manage the classroom, and opportunities to learn from mistakes. Finally in Chapter 6, I present a discussion of my findings, synthesizing how this study's findings can inform teacher preparation and classroom management research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

I begin this chapter with my review of the existing classroom management literature. I first explore the history of classroom management and teachers' conceptualizations of this pedagogical skill, which has shifted from a behavioral to a more comprehensive understanding of classroom management that includes academic and relational aspects. Then, I summarize the research on classroom management strategies and how teachers tend to manage the behavioral, academic, and relational aspects of the classroom. Afterwards, I describe the literature about the connections between teachers' beliefs about classroom management and the actions that they use to manage the classroom. Finally, I review literature about the impact teacher education and in-service teacher supports can have on developing teacher classroom management through practical, successful, and contextually relevant experiences.

Drawing on my review of the classroom management literature, I then present my conceptual framework for how teachers develop in classroom management. First, I define terms of interest used throughout my study. Second, I present how beginning teachers may show specific aspects of classroom management throughout their beliefs and actions. Third, I explain how influences can independently impact teacher beliefs and actions.

Classroom Management Beliefs

Throughout this section, I begin by describing an overview of how classroom management has changed over time and why researchers tended to focus on discipline and student misbehavior. This traditional understanding of classroom management was engrained in student behavior, but over time, researchers recognized two additional aspects important to how teachers think about managing the classroom: academics and relationships. I then discuss how teachers' beliefs also tended to focus on behavioral, academic, and relational aspects of classroom management. I conclude by discussing how teachers' focus solely on behavior may be an obstacle to effective classroom management.

The evolving construct of classroom management. The term "classroom management" originated from a strict, religious context that prioritized student compliance (Tavares, 1996). In the early 1900's, classroom management was about controlling students for moral and religious purposes with teachers demanding unwavering compliance from students. Classroom management at that time was synonymous with discipline, meaning teachers would frequently incorporate punishments to deal with student misbehavior. Over time, the religious overtones faded but there was still an implicit understanding that "students are potential social deviants that need to be managed" (p.197). This included a focus on controlling student behavior through discipline, which has remained at the forefront of how teachers managed a classroom full of students (Emmer & Stough, 2001).

There was little change in understanding how researchers conceptualized classroom management until the 1980s, when cognitive research on how teachers think about classroom management revealed that teachers had an understanding of classroom management that extended beyond behavioral control (Brophy, 2006; Carter, 1992; Emmer & Stough, 2001). This change in research methods had an impact on what was learned about classroom management. First, researchers began to consider classroom management beyond teachers' behavioral responses to student misbehavior and instead began to consider how educators cognitively process and intentionally decide how to manage the classroom; thus, researchers expanded their perspective of teachers as classroom managers. Second, teachers' descriptions provided better insight into how researchers could perceive classroom management, which included more factors than just student behavior. These beliefs and mental processes revealed areas of the classroom that were intentionally being managed by teachers more than what researchers had originally assumed. Therefore, a focus in the literature on *classroom* management replaced a traditional focus on *behavior* management. That is, rather than only conceptualizing classroom management as disciplining misbehaving students, researchers began seeing other aspects of the classroom that could be managed.

From this expansion in research, a more comprehensive, multi-dimensional perspective of classroom management emerged. This new baseline definition of classroom management shared by most researchers included the importance of establishing a learning environment and engaging students in learning activities for student cooperation (Brophy, 1988; Doyle, 1986). Jones and Jones (1986) went further than most scholars to define "comprehensive classroom management" as mitigating student misbehavior, using instructional methods, creating positive interactions, understanding of student psychology, and classroom organization. Like Jones and Jones (1986),

most other researchers still cast classroom management in terms of mitigating student misbehavior, but they began to consider aspects related to instruction and social interactions as well. Recently, Evertson and Weinstein (2006) released the first edition *Handbook of Classroom Management*, and provided their understanding of classroom management in the introduction of the book. These authors stated a definition of classroom management that I draw upon for this study and has since been widely accepted as the standard definition for researchers: classroom management is "the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning…[Classroom management] not only seeks to establish and sustain an orderly environment so students can engage in meaningful academic learning, it also aims to enhance students' social and moral growth" (p.4).

Emerging trends in research on teachers' classroom management beliefs. Even as researchers have developed a more multi-dimensional understanding of what managing classrooms entails, studies have revealed patterns in how teachers conceptualize uni-dimensional aspects of classroom management. In particular, three types of classroom management beliefs emerged in my review of the literature: beliefs about managing student behavior, beliefs about using academic content to engage students, and beliefs about building relationships and establishing a positive environment. Henceforth, I refer to these in shorthand as "behavioral," "academic," and "relational" beliefs. In the following section, I explain how the literature characterizes each type of belief; I end with a discussion of the literature specific to the classroom management beliefs of beginning teachers, who tend to express a more limited understanding of classroom management than experienced teachers.

Beliefs about managing student behavior. Several studies have characterized teachers' beliefs about classroom management as focusing solely on student behavior, regardless of whether teachers were pre-service or experienced in-service (Kaufman & Moss, 2010; Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Gotzens et al., 2010; Lane et al., 2006). In these studies, classroom management is often defined in terms of rules, disruptions, and student misbehavior. For instance, using open-ended surveys to capture beliefs of 42 pre-service teachers, Kaufman and Moss (2010) found that teachers defined classroom management as "maintaining discipline and controlling behavior" (p.127). In other words, the participants were fixated on establishing authority and organization in the classroom to control student behavior. In addition to defining classroom management in this limited fashion, the authors also found that teachers listed behavior as their top fear and concern as well as the first thing many teachers wanted to control upon entering the classroom. The study concludes

that this simple definition of classroom management is insufficient for pre-service teachers and that perspectives need to shift towards using control as a tool for student learning instead of solely modifying behavior. In another study, Arbuckle and Little (2004) found similar results from 96 primary and secondary school teachers. Using questionnaires, the authors found that these teachers were primarily concerned about student distractibility, off-task behavior, and adherence to rules.

While there is general agreement that teachers conceptualize classroom management in terms of behavioral aspects of the classroom, other studies found that teachers conceptualized classroom management in a multi-faceted fashion, with behavioral beliefs as one among several aspects of the classroom being described (Latz, 1991; Atici, 2007; Bear, 2014). For example, Latz (1991) distributed open-ended questionnaires to 16 pre-service teachers to investigate their understanding of classroom management and found that these teachers often defined classroom management in terms of "setting rules" and "controlling problem students." However, they also described classroom management in other ways such as having "positive student/teacher interactions," indicating other aspects of classroom management aside from student behavior. Despite similar samples and methods of data collection, these results contrast with Kaufman and Moss (2010) and draw into question the range of classroom management beliefs teachers can have.

Beliefs about using academic content to engage students. Aside from behavior, existing literature also casts teachers' beliefs about managing the classroom in terms of engaging students in content for academic learning (Atici, 2007; McCaslin & Good, 1992; Weinstein et al., 1994; Bear, 2014; Kounin, 1970). For instance, analyzing semi-structured interviews of nine pre-service teachers throughout their student teaching experience, Atici (2007) found the majority of the pre-service teachers included in their definition of classroom management "approaches and behaviors adopted by teachers in order to deliver the curriculum and conduct lessons effectively" (p.20). These teachers explained the importance of behavioral management and discipline; however, they also highlighted the need for teachers to establish classroom management in order to teach effectively and support student learning.

McCaslin and Good (1992) build on the importance of considering academics as a part of classroom management by discussing how teachers can consider instruction as a tool to manage student engagement. The authors describe how previous studies often list contradictory goals with regards to classroom management and instruction; for instance, students could receive mixed messages from "curriculum that urges problem solving and critical thinking and a management system that requires compliance and narrow obedience" (p. 12). McCaslin and Good (1992) believe

this issue can be exacerbated in inner city secondary schools, where students are often taught to cover a large range of topics through rote learning under classroom management systems based on rewards and punishments. The authors propose that teachers should shift their understanding of classroom management. Instead of focusing on control, teachers should consider using classroom management as an "instructional scaffold," meaning that behavioral systems should complement the instruction that teachers want to enact. For instance, teachers who want to offer learning activities to promote critical thinking and discussion amongst peers should encourage more behavioral freedom for students to accomplish these instructional goals. Through this understanding, teachers would have a more "academic" perspective of classroom management.

Beliefs about building relationships and establishing a positive environment. The literature has also begun to foreground relational aspects of managing classrooms. Teachers with relational beliefs usually describe classroom management as a supportive community and emphasize the importance of cooperative learning activities (Watson & Battistich, 2006; Emmer & Stough, 2001). They tend to take a collaborative approach to managing classrooms by incorporating student input while believing that their methods of behavioral control and instruction should be adapted to students' needs (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). For example, throughout Freiberg's (1999) description of "person-centered classroom management," the author discusses how some teachers conceptualize classroom management in terms of care, guidance, and cooperation in order to help students to develop socio-emotionally. He proposes that teachers who take this approach often want their students to grow as individuals by desiring an atmosphere with positive student interactions and an attention towards emotional development. This approach is consistent with many of the relational beliefs described throughout the literature.

Researchers are beginning to accept that relational beliefs are particularly important because teachers who conceptualize classroom management in this manner tend to encounter fewer instances of misbehavior and have students with higher academic achievement (Walker, 2008; Djigic & Stojiljkovic, 2011; Norris, 2003; Freiberg, 1999). By qualitatively conducting classroom observations and interviews, Walker (2008) found that three teachers who shared varying levels of relational beliefs impacted their students differently over the course of a semester. Those teachers who reported more beliefs about student autonomy, building relationships, and fostering nurture and care were associated with students who were more academically and socially efficacious and had higher academic achievement. In other words, teachers who expressed more relational beliefs often had more positive student outcomes. In a study using quantitative methods, academic achievement

9

was again indicated as a positive outcome in classrooms with teachers who expressed relational beliefs. Djigic and Stojiljkovic (2011) collected multiple surveys and student achievement scores from 273 elementary school teachers to explore whether classroom management beliefs correlate with student achievement and student/teacher satisfaction of classroom climate. From a series of analysis of variance tests, the authors found that teachers who reported more beliefs about cooperation and interaction with students had statistically higher student achievement than teachers who prioritized control. While these results indicate the importance of relational beliefs, a major concern with the study is that the authors used analyses that do not disentangle the contributions of teachers from the baseline characteristics and achievement of their students. For instance, higher achieving students could have sorted into classrooms with the cooperative-minded teachers, and the better achievement could be due to just having higher achieving students rather than the teachers' contributions. In fact, it is possible that being assigned to higher achieving students causes teachers to be able to manage classrooms and be more cooperative in their orientation. Thus, more research is needed to learn about the impact that relational beliefs can have on the classroom.

   Learning more about beginning teachers' beliefs. Although the literature characterizes experienced teachers as expressing behavioral, academic, and relational aspects of classroom management, it tends to portray beginning urban teachers as almost exclusively focused on behavioral beliefs (Sokal et al., 2003; Koehler et al., 2013; Latz, 1991; Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Martin & Shoho, 2000; Wolff et al., 2015). Indeed, a number of studies suggest beginning teachers are preoccupied with discipline and lack comprehensive views of classroom management. Martin and Shoho (2000), for example, surveyed 388 teachers and found that beginning teachers were more interventionist in behavior management than experienced teachers, meaning they concentrated on controlling student behavior. One issue with this study, though, was that the authors compared beginning alternatively certified teachers and experienced traditionally certified teachers, claiming that the more classroom experience teachers had, the more teachers tended to share beliefs about behavioral control. These results confound teacher certification with classroom experience, though, making it difficult to determine whether classroom experience—and not teacher certification or a combination of the two teacher characteristics—predicts teacher beliefs. Additionally, Martin and Shoho (2000) as well as other studies (e.g., Sokal et al., 2003) rely on the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control survey to measure teacher beliefs. This instrument has been criticized due to psychometric concerns and unreliable subscales used to differentiate classroom management beliefs, suggesting the need for a more refined instrument to measure teachers' classroom management

beliefs (Martin & Sass, 2010). Without a reliable instrument to measure beliefs, interviews and surveys could provide open-ended opportunities for beginning teachers to describe and expand on their thoughts (Bullough & Richardson, 2014). So, while some studies have suggested beginning teachers have a behavioral perspective on classroom management, more research is needed to determine if beginning teachers do indeed have this perspective and, if they do, what a behavioral perspective may look like for beginning teachers.

While the articles reviewed in this section suggest the importance of teachers' beliefs about classroom management, Latz (1991) finds that there can be a disconnection between a teacher's understanding of discipline and her/his ability to carry it out. This points to the importance of considering what teachers believe about classroom management as well as what teachers actually do to manage the classroom. Next, I discuss literature about the actions teachers use for classroom management.

Researching Teachers' Classroom Management Actions

I begin by describing the literature on different kinds of classroom management actions, which generally falls into three categories: actions that impact student behavior, academic achievement, and classroom relationships. I also explore why beginning teachers struggle with classroom management despite the available knowledge of researched strategies.

Types of classroom management strategies. Many studies investigate a breadth of effective classroom management strategies and tend to categorize strategies according to how the they impact the classroom (Sun, 2014; O'Neil & Stephenson, 2014; Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Froyen & Iverson, 1999; Simonsen et al., 2008; Oliver et al., 2011; Epstein et al., 2008; Greenberg et al., 2014). These studies suggest that strategies tend to fall into one of three categories: those that influence student behavior, managing through academic content, and managing student relationships. Similar to classroom management beliefs (described above), I also use the shorthand terminology of behavioral, academic, and relational actions.

In one study of teacher actions, Sun (2014) interviewed twelve secondary teachers in Hong Kong and found that teachers discussed using classroom management strategies for three primary reasons: 1) control student behavior 2) engage the students in learning and 3) forge a good relationship with the students. Other studies support these three categories of actions though the terminology may differ, such as Froyen and Iverson's (1999) alliterative recommendation of conduct, content, and covenant strategies, which ostensibly refer to behavioral, academic, and

relational strategies, respectively. Even the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS), which organizes the classroom environment across all grades and is not specific to classroom management, measures a similar set of three supports: classroom organization, general instructional supports, and emotional supports (Hamre & Pianta, 2003). In the following paragraphs, I review the literature on each type of action and the specific evidence-based strategies the research suggests that can help build a foundation of effective classroom management actions.

Managing student behavior. Behavioral classroom management actions are strategies that prevent misbehavior and promote positive behavior; misbehavior generally refers to disruptive behavior that undermines the lesson plan and obstructs the learning of the misbehaving student or her/his peers; positive behavior typically includes actions that are on-task and follows classroom rules and procedures. The recent research investigating behavioral strategies often separated actions into two types according to how they were implemented: preventative behavioral strategies and reactionary behavioral strategies.

Preventative strategies, used to prevent instances of potential misbehavior, have been associated with positive teacher and student outcomes such as increased student engagement and lower teacher stress (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Atici, 2007; Reupert & Woodcock, 2010; Banks, 2014; Balli, 2011). Examples of preventative strategies are rules (established guidelines for student conduct) and procedures (organized routines for consistent classroom activities), which can create a class climate conducive to learning and help class to run more efficiently by minimizing confusion amongst students (Balli, 2001; Kunter et al., 2007). In one study, Clunies-Ross et al. (2008) surveyed 97 Australian in-service teachers and observed a subset of those teachers to learn about how teachers talk about and enact classroom management. These authors found that teachers were often concerned about minor behavioral management issues, spent a considerable amount of in-class time on behavioral management, and frequently reported using preventative strategies more than using reactive strategies, described next.

Reactive strategies, sometimes termed "corrective strategies" in the literature, are used to stop misbehavior in the moment. When using reactive strategies, typically teachers deal with student misbehavior in one of two ways: saying verbal statements and using non-verbal actions. In their study of classroom management strategies used by 336 pre-service elementary teachers, Reupert and Woodcock (2010) administered a survey to identify the frequency, confidence, and success of various behavioral strategies. The authors found that teachers most frequently reported using reactive strategies, specifically the verbal actions of giving warnings, calling students' names, and

administering consequences to stop student disruptions. Interestingly, the authors added that teachers often used reactive strategies but did not consider them to be effective classroom management actions. Drawing upon pre- and post-student teaching interviews of nine pre-service teachers who were in their final year of certification, Atici (2007) found that tone was yet another strategy important in stopping misbehavior: teachers changed the tone of their voice when speaking to get students' attention.

In comparison to verbal strategies, existing literature suggested that teachers tend to prefer non-verbal strategies, such as eye contact, hand signals, physical proximity, and touch to reactively manage misbehavior (Atici, 2007; Kunter et al., 2007). Teachers use these strategies to gather student attention without needing to say a word; a benefit of this approach is it allowed teachers to preserve energy. One example of a non-verbal strategy is teacher monitoring,[1] or a teacher's ability to notice all aspects of the classroom, which is a particularly effective strategy when students are distracted. Using hierarchical linear modeling on information from 1900 student questionnaires about their teachers, Kunter et al. (2007) found that teacher monitoring predicted more favorable student ratings of teachers' classroom management. Students also rated whether they thought their teachers noticed distracted or off-task students; stronger rating of perceived monitoring predicted increased student attention to classroom activities.

Managing through academic content. The literature suggested that teachers also managed their classrooms by using content to engage students in academics, thus limiting opportunities for student misbehavior (Stitcher et al., 2009; Atici, 2007; Pianta et al., 2002; Parsons & Vaughn, 2013; Evertson & Harris, 1992). Using an observational protocol on teachers in four elementary schools over a two-year span, Stitcher et al. (2009) found that teachers who used "instructional talk" had better classroom management procedures and fewer instances of inappropriate student verbalizations, on average. Instructional talk included using prompts, positive feedback, and wait time to promote academic conversations and student responses during lectures, demonstration, and discussion. In essence, the more teachers engaged students in content, the better students behaved.

In order to use academics to successfully manage classrooms, however, the literature indicates that teachers need to connect academic material to students' interests. Based upon a qualitative analysis of 148 student teachers who wrote reflections about their teaching, Balli (2008)

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[1] This is also colloquially referred to as "the eyes in the back of the teacher's head" skill—the ability to see an entire room and all student action even with a teacher's back is facing to the class. In previous literature, it has also been termed "withitness" (Kounin, 1977).

found that students were more focused when activities stimulated their personal interests or they had classmates who could help them engage in the material. van Tartwijk et al. (2009) found that teachers of secondary students might leverage academic content to manage classrooms by highlighting how particular information in activities can impact their grades. The emphasis on academics—specifically grades—made students recognize the importance of the work and therefore, they tried harder to pay attention throughout the activity.

Managing through student relationships. Several other studies identified the importance of managing students through positive interactions within the classroom (Banks, 2014; de Jong et al., 2014). This literature consistently highlights the importance of relationship building as a classroom management strategy (Sun, 2014; Kayikci, 2009; Cornelius-White, 2007; Balli et al., 2011; Milner & Tenore, 2010; van Tartwijk et al., 2009; Bondy et al., 2007). Through qualitative analyses of a semi-structured interview from each of twelve secondary teachers with an average of over nine years teaching experience, Sun (2014) found that teachers felt that building positive relationships could take anywhere from a week to a year but these relationships had positive impacts on student behavior and attitudes, broadly speaking. These teachers felt that relationship building was a "long-term investment" that was beneficial towards effective classroom management compared to short-term fixes such as enforcing a rule or reactively quelling misbehavior in that moment.

Though there is not consensus about the best methods for building positive relationships in classrooms (van Tartwijk et al., 2009), studies have identified several promising strategies. The most straightforward way is by caring for students (Nie & Lau, 2009; Sun, 2014), or as one teacher described by Sun (2014) as getting to know their students more, listening to what they have to say, and helping them if they have difficulties. Additionally, Nie and Lau (2009) used factor analysis of a large-scale student survey to identify how students viewed care and control from their teachers. The authors found that characteristics defined as "care" included teachers showing warmth, concern, and acceptance of students, which was positively related to outcomes of student engagement and student satisfaction with school. Aside from students reporting of teacher actions, Ennis and McCauley (2002) identified additional strategies that appeared to promote relationship building. Through interviews of 18 teachers in one school and frequent observations of four of those teachers, the authors found that teachers would create opportunities for students to build self-esteem and to bolster themselves in front of their peers, provide genuine positive enforcement of effort, encourage student ownership of content, and create classroom communities based on trust. Even though

studies varied in how to build relationship, the literature identified a range of strategies for teachers to use.

Bondy et al. (2007) found that building relationships with students can lay the groundwork for another management strategy: "insistence" - respectfully holding students accountable to certain standards and to meet specific expectations. The authors video recorded and interviewed three novice teachers at urban elementary schools the first day of school and one common strategy among them was to not allow behavior that failed to meet expectations to continue while preserving a respectful relationship with the students. Bondy et al. (2007) found that knowing and caring for students individually gave teachers a better idea of when and how much to "insist" upon a student. The authors concluded that teachers who do not push hard enough risk relieving students of accountability while pushing too hard could force students to disengage; building positive relationships with students can help teachers to find the appropriate balance.

Beginning teachers' actions. In this section, I review the literature on classroom management actions specifically among beginning teachers, the focus of my study. I constrain my review to literature on pre-service teachers and teachers in their first few years of in-service teaching. I begin describing how the literature often points to beginning teachers using actions that are typically associated with ineffective classroom management. However, I then describe several studies that indicate, under certain conditions, beginning teachers can effectively manage classrooms. I conclude by discussing limitations of existing literature on beginning teachers' management actions, calling for additional research in this area.

The literature consistently indicates that beginning teachers are ineffective classroom managers that tend to focus too narrowly on behavioral issues (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Kagan, 1992; Fuller & Bown, 1975). These studies also indicate that beginning teachers tend to be more disorganized in enacting routines, provide more rigid teacher-centered lesson plans, and rely more on reactive strategies (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010; Berliner, 1988; Livingston & Borko, 1989). For example, Reupert and Woodcock (2010) surveyed 336 pre-service teachers to investigate the type of actions that they used to manage classrooms and how frequently they used them. The authors found that novice teachers primarily relied on reactive strategies—such as physical proximity—because they felt more confident employing those strategies than preventative strategies, even though teachers reported preventative strategies were more effective. These findings suggest that pre-service teachers tend towards short-term fixes for managing classrooms instead of investing in longer-term classroom management structures, such as establishing regular routines.

15

Other studies indicate that beginning teachers are capable of using preventative strategies to effectively manage classrooms and that they are not always narrowly focused on controlling student behavior. Atici (2007) interviewed nine pre-service teachers and, contrary to Reuport and Woodcock (2011), found that student teachers reported successfully using preventative, non-verbal actions to positively reinforce students towards instructional activities in order to manage their classrooms. Moreover, Atici (2007) found that beginning teachers went beyond managing behaviors and also implemented academic actions to effectively manage the classroom. In another study, Bondy et al. (2007) used video and interview data to identify how novice teachers were able to create learning environments for African American students. As a result, the authors selectively recruited three urban novice teachers who were previously observed as having classrooms characterized by "respectful interactions, a calm tone, and a clear focus on academics" (p. 332). The authors found that these teachers all insisted on respectful behavior, established an academic-centered community, and used culturally responsive modes of communication. This study demonstrated that beginning teachers are quite capable of effectively using behavioral, academic, and relational classroom management strategies.

There are a number of limitations, however, to the literature on beginning teachers' classroom management actions. First, beginning teachers' actions were often measured through surveys of pre-service teachers' actions (e.g., Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). Results from these studies suggest what actions beginning teachers implement in the classroom but the survey data are more indicative of what teachers *report* doing in the classroom; teachers can differ in the actions they report using and the actions they actually use. Second, most of the existing literature that uses observational data to investigate how teachers manage classrooms has focused on experienced teachers (e.g., van Tartwjik et al., 2009). This body of literature identifies effective classroom management actions that experienced teachers implement, but it is not necessarily the case that these strategies are appropriate for beginning teachers. Among studies that include observations of novice teachers, many compare this group with experienced teachers (e.g., Berliner, 1988), typically concluding that novice actions are less effective than experienced teachers. Given that other literature suggests beginning teachers can effectively manage classrooms (e.g., Bondy et al., 2007), more research is needed to understand what effective classroom management actions looks like among beginning teachers and how to support it. Third, literature on what beginning teachers actually do to manage the classroom is limited. To my knowledge, only one study, Bondy et al. (2007), actually observed beginning in-service teachers' classroom management actions. However, in

that study, the authors identified the three participants as effective novice teachers prior to the study, so the strategies used by novices in that study may not represent a typical beginning teacher's repertoire of actions. Therefore, more needs to be learned about the range of actions that beginning teachers, on average, use to manage classrooms.

Connections Between Classroom Management Beliefs and Actions

In this section, I describe literature about the connection between classroom management beliefs and actions. I begin by discussing research on how teacher actions tend to match the beliefs that they have but that this connection may not necessarily exist for beginning teachers. Afterwards, I review literature on the impact actions can have on beliefs, which suggests the importance of successful enactments of actions to promote a change in beliefs.

Alignment between actions and beliefs. A substantial body of literature indicates that teachers are more likely to implement classroom management actions that align with their own beliefs (Kochenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2008; Eveyik-Aydin et al., 2009; Richardson & Fallona, 1991; Boostrom, 1991; Woolfolk et al., 1990). Based upon a mixed methods case study of one teacher, Eveyik-Aydin et al. (2009) found that the teacher often shared interactionalist beliefs—believing classroom management is a shared responsibility between the teacher and student—and also tended to use actions that prioritized a cooperative environment. Kochenderfer-Ladd and Pelletier (2008) observed this phenomenon at a larger scale. They collected multiple surveys from over 30 teachers and found that teachers were more likely to intervene in instances of student bullying based on their beliefs of whether it was a normative behavior or not; again, teachers' beliefs often predicted their classroom management actions.

While most literature suggests that beliefs and actions can align, this may not be indicative of all teachers. In the one study looking at teachers' beliefs and actions, Jones and Vesilind (1995) found that 23 pre-service teachers changed classroom management beliefs over time from an initial concern about rules to a desire to develop student relationships; however, their actions remained fixated on establishing rules. Teachers' beliefs changed but their actions stayed the same, creating a conflict between what teachers believed about classroom management and how they managed the classroom. These findings suggest that, as beginning teachers gain more experience, their beliefs and actions may misalign.

Studies of teacher beliefs often have theoretical frameworks which assume that where management beliefs and actions are aligned, beliefs must be the driver for teacher actions (e.g.,

Martin & Sass, 2012); however, the research in this area provides little empirical evidence that beliefs directly cause actions. In the next section, I review some literature that suggests that how teachers manage classrooms may actually drive their beliefs.

   Successful enactments of actions change beliefs. Though some research suggests that beliefs have an impact on actions, other studies suggest the reverse to be true – that the implementation of successful actions could change beliefs. Rozelle and Wilson (2012) used ethnographic methods on six science pre-service teachers to document changing beliefs and practices throughout a yearlong internship. The authors found that one group of pre-service teachers, called "reproducers," successfully mimicked their mentor teachers' actions and received positive responses from their students, mentor teacher, and field instructor; these teachers developed similar beliefs as their mentor teachers, which corresponded to their actions. "Strugglers," on the other hand, also tried to emulate their mentor teachers' actions. However, they did not experience the same success and did not gain corresponding beliefs. Successful enactment, therefore, could be a precursor to a change in beliefs or a change in beliefs may be necessary to experience success. Putman (2009) similarly found that teachers' actions drove the beliefs that they had from surveys of 71 pre-service teachers where they reflected on a classroom management plan that they created earlier during a graduate semester. After using teacher-centered practices, teachers shifted from initially student-centered beliefs to teacher-centered beliefs, meaning they wanted to control more aspects of the classroom rather than incorporate student input. These findings suggest that the actions pre-service teachers used to manage the classroom influenced what they came to believe about classroom management.

   While beliefs and actions can impact one another, both are also impacted by external influences. Next, I review literature about how teacher preparation, in-service support personnel, and classroom experience can promote teachers to develop in their classroom management beliefs and actions.

Factors that Influence Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Actions

   In this section, I review studies about factors that influence classroom management beliefs and actions. The literature indicates two main categories of influences: teacher preparation and in-service supports. As part of teacher preparation, the literature suggests that both coursework and clinical experiences can influence how teachers think about and manage classrooms. Given the context of this study, my literature review also pays particular attention to research on alternative

certification programs. The in-service literature indicates that a wide range of teacher supports can impact classroom management development, including classroom management programs, mentoring, school context, and classroom experience; less is known, though, about their impacts specifically on beginning teachers. A common theme across these bodies of literature is pre-service and in-service factors that offered teachers practical knowledge and skills or opportunities to practice classroom management were most beneficial.

Teacher preparation. The literature suggests that teacher education can impact new teachers' classroom management beliefs, though there may be differences between alternative and traditional routes into the classroom (Sokal et al., 2003; Humphrey et al., 2008). For instance, Sokal et al. (2003) distributed surveys to 82 alternatively certified (AC) teachers at different stages of their preparation program and found that AC teachers changed beliefs over time, becoming less interventionist in behavior management; that is, teachers believed they were less responsible for controlling student behavior, often indicating a desire to collaborate with students to set up and enforce rules. These findings suggest that teacher preparation can impact the beliefs teachers have about classroom management.

Several studies compare alternative versus traditional preparation routes, and typically find AC teachers are more controlling in their instruction compared to traditionally certified (TC) teachers (Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Martin & Shoho, 1999). A mix of 228 AC and TC teachers were surveyed by Martin and Shoho (1999), who found AC teachers were more interventionist in instructional management than TC teachers; AC teachers wanted to incorporate more teacher-centered activities than student-centered activities. The literature suggests that a likely explanation is that AC programs, on average, tend to focus more on developing classroom management skills and typically place teachers in urban settings with higher proportions of students who have academic and behavioral needs and classroom management issues (Hammerness, 2011; Humphrey & Wechsler, 2008; Schonfield & Feinman, 2012).

Rather than compare routes of entry, next I focus on specific features of preparation that are common across both traditional and alternative programs that influence teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions. The pre-service literature indicates that two features of teacher preparation programs that impact classroom management are coursework and clinical experience.

Coursework. Teachers often feel unprepared in classroom management prior to full-time teaching because of insufficient preparation (Atici, 2007; Veenman, 1984). One reason preparation is insufficient is because classroom management courses are not offered in all teacher education

programs, leaving pre-service teachers with little opportunity to learn.[2] Hammerness (2011) used qualitative methods to analyze syllabi of 31 teacher education programs in New York—26 college certification recommending institutions and 5 alternative certification programs. The author found that only 11 of the 26 college recommending programs and three of the five alternative certification programs required a classroom management course to complete the program with the majority of teacher graduates having completed little to no coursework in classroom management.

Even when courses are available, another reason for insufficient preparation is that management courses are often too theoretical for students to apply information into their classrooms (Hammerness, 2011; Atici, 2007; Rozelle & Wilson, 2012). Across studies, teachers tend to report university coursework as being overly theoretical and of little value once they enter either the field placement or full-time classrooms. Based upon their qualitative participant observation study of 13 pre-service teachers, for example, Higgins and Moule (2009) found that they learned about classroom management theories at the university that were not transferable to student teaching because student teachers did not find it applicable to the setting. Specifically, student teachers adopted the authoritarian and verbal management style common in their field placement schools rather than employing the theoretical perspective of "subtle discipline" promoted in their university coursework.

While most previous literature indicates the limitation of coursework, several studies suggest that certain kinds of coursework can support novices in learning classroom management – specifically, those that prioritize practical information alongside theoretical knowledge (Gimbert, 2008; Akar & Yildirim, 2009; Choi & Lee, 2009; O'Neil & Stephenson, 2012; Humphrey et al., 2008). For instance, Gimbert (2008) found that university faculty and mentor teachers effectively taught declarative (i.e., facts) and procedural (i.e., skills) knowledge together through discussion, observation, and practice, which reduced the separation between theoretical and practical knowledge. Through regular collaborative meetings between faculty and mentor teachers, pre-service teachers were able to observe what was taught in the university setting being used directly in their field placement classroom and reflect on their field experiences back in their university courses. This coordination helped pre-service teachers to pair knowledge with action and be more likely to implement classroom management practices. Similarly, Akar and Yildirim (2009) studied a graduate education course that blended theory and practice by rotating between two hours of discussion and

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[2] Opportunity, in this case, solely refers to course offerings, and separates from other aspects of teacher education such as field experience.

reflection of new classroom management ideas, or "theoretical hours," with two hours of "practice hours," which ranged from watching videos to role-playing throughout one semester of a graduate seminar. Results indicated that teachers changed beliefs from a controlling to a cooperative classroom management approach when teachers had the opportunity to understand how theoretical classroom management ideas could be applied into practice. Finally, Choi and Lee (2009) suggested that real-world case studies, which contextualize information and engage pre-service teachers in practical and authentic classroom problems, made for promising coursework curriculum. The authors created realistic online-based classroom management situations[3] and demonstrated that engaging pre-service teacher with case studies helped them to critically think about reasonable solutions for classroom incidents.

Clinical experience. The literature suggests that clinical experiences are likely to be the most influential aspect of pre-service teacher preparation on beliefs (Atici, 2007; Rideout & Morton, 2010). For instance, Yilmaz and Cavas (2008) surveyed 185 Turkish pre-service science teachers using a one-group pre-/post-survey design throughout clinical experience and found that experiences during student teaching changed pre-service teacher attitudes about classroom management. These teachers had beliefs about wanting to collaborate with students more on instructional decisions related to classroom management but felt more responsible in building interpersonal relationships at the end of their clinical experience. Other studies indicate that clinical experiences help pre-service teachers gain a deeper understanding of authentic classroom management and an increased desire to focus on student relationships for learning (Jones & Vesilind, 1995; Atici, 2007). Student teachers' beliefs about managing classrooms shift from trying to control student behavior to wanting to facilitate how students could interact with one another for social and academic purposes.

The literature on fieldwork suggests that successful experiences managing classrooms are particularly influential in learning about classroom management actions (Atici, 2007; Rozelle & Wilson, 2012; Sokal et al., 2003; Tiene, 1987; Winitzky & Kauchak, 1995; Sueb, 2013). Atici (2007) interviewed nine pre-service teachers and found that they had more confidence when they successfully enacted classroom management strategies, which made them more likely to use those actions again in the future. Rozelle and Wilson (2012) similarly found that teachers who had success

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[3] One example used audio files of various educational stakeholders to challenge the pre-service teacher to consider the diversity of perspectives impacted from a behavioral decision. The student teacher would state the problem at hand and provide logical solutions, describing how it would impact the people involved.

with certain management strategies were more likely to reproduce similar management strategies in the future. In both studies, teachers used classroom management actions and experienced success, making them confident to use those actions again.

As part of clinical experience, the literature indicates that mentor teachers spend extended time with pre-service teachers and seem to have a strong impact on their classroom management beliefs and strategies (Higgins & Moule, 2009; Rozelle & Wilson, 2012; Hewson et al., 1999). Specifically, mentor teachers provide models of success through their in-class actions—teaching novices about the profession by performing the profession—and give feedback after pre-service teachers enact a lesson (Atici, 2007). Through observations and journals of 13 pre-service teachers, Higgins and Moule (2009) found that mentor teachers were more likely to impact novice teachers' actions and beliefs than university instructors. Pre-service teachers struggled to bridge what they learned from the university with the demands of their field placement and chose to imitate their mentor teachers' style of telling students what to do rather than present students with choices, which was taught by course instructors. Teachers were conflicted about which approach to use but chose to imitate what they observed their mentor teachers successfully implement.

In-service support. While teachers can receive adequate preparation prior to full-time employment, research suggests that school factors continue to influence how in-service teachers develop as classroom managers. In particular, the literature indicates four in-service influences on classroom management: classroom management programs, mentoring, school context, and learning from classroom experiences. In this section, I begin by reviewing the literature on how classroom management programs often provide professional development to improve teacher actions and student achievement. I then turn to the literature on teacher mentorship, which suggests this factor can promote a relational approach to classroom management issues. Next, I review research that suggests school contexts influence how teachers manage classrooms; given the context of my study, I focus specifically on the literature about urban school contexts. Finally, I review scholarship suggesting that classroom experiences with management provide opportunities for teachers to develop. After reviewing the literature in each of these areas, I discuss how more needs to be learned about the availability and quality of these influences specifically for beginning teachers.

Classroom management programs. There are numerous studies that have identified the impact of classroom management programs on teacher and student outcomes (Freiberg, 1999; Stough & Montague, 2014). Judicious Discipline, the Three Cs (Cooperative Community, Constructive Conflict Results, and Civic Values), Consistency Management & Cooperative

Discipline, and Classroom Organization and Management Program (COMP) are just some of the successful programs that studies have shown to improve teachers' classroom management and student achievement. Many of these programs require teachers to follow specific scripts, implement certain structures, or promote a different approach to manage the classroom with the aim of increasing student engagement (Freiberg et al., 1995; Freiberg et al., 2009). Evertson & Harris (1995), for example, studied one classroom management program (COMP), which intended to promote the planning, implementation, and maintenance of effective classroom management strategies through a two-day inquiry-based professional development workshop. The authors found that the intervention program helped teachers use effective classroom management practices more often, increase student achievement scores, and improve student time on-task.

Another example of a classroom management program relevant to my study is Assertive Discipline (Canter, 1976), which encourages teachers to modify student behavior in order to assert student compliance through a system entitled the Behavioral Management Cycle (BMC). The BMC promotes teachers to 1) clearly state expectations, 2) positively narrate student behavior, and 3) administer "swift and neutral" consequences, which refers to quick and "unemotional" administering of consequences as a result of student misbehavior. From these three steps, the program attends to classroom management by equipping teachers with strategies to prevent and stop misbehavior through consistent actions. Teachers often attend professional development where they learn, observe, and practice this three-step cycle. A 2ⁿᵈ edition of Assertive Discipline was released in 1992, and promoted a positive and relational approach towards classroom management; however, this additional perspective may not always be included or emphasized throughout professional development.

Mentoring. The literature on mentoring suggests that formal, frequent mentorship from school faculty or district liaisons can positively impact beginning teachers' classroom management practice (Stough & Montague, 2014; Wang et al., 2008; Humphrey et al., 2008; Rosenholtz, 1989; Jacob et al., 2012; Tricarico et al., 2015). Mentorship is also associated with positive student outcomes related to classroom management: better behavior, engagement, and achievement (Hough, 2011; Evertson & Smithey, 2000; Allen et al., 2011). Mentors, in particular, offer classroom management support through practical and relevant classroom management advice specific to the context that they work in (Humphrey et al., 2008; Stanulis & Floden, 2009). In one study that investigated mentorship through multiple data collections at the programmatic and participant level of seven alternative certification programs, Humphrey et al. (2008) found that teachers who

frequently met with mentors to work and practice lesson plans were more efficacious in their ability to manage a classroom. These teachers also reported classroom management only behind knowledge of instructional techniques as a skill they most improved on. Additionally, they reported feeling confident handling a range of disciplinary issues, in part, because they had school mentors who provided consistent feedback from observations and gave them practical directions on how to improve.

Literature on beginning teacher mentoring reveals that it can cause teachers to change from a behavioral towards a more relational approach to managing classrooms (Achinstein & Barrett, 2004; Athanases & Achinstein, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Grieve, 2009). Achinstein and Barrett (2004) collected qualitative data from 15 mentor/novice teacher pairs and found that beginning teachers had initial concerns about controlling misbehavior and dealing with cultural differences between students. As a result, mentors often "reframed" the novices' perspective by focusing on classroom management issues in a cultural and relational manner, which would force beginners to think of alternative solutions. For example, one beginning teacher encountered an issue with student cheating. Though the beginning teacher was inclined to focus only on how to create a class system where cheating would not occur in the future, the mentor first had the teacher think about how to help students deal with the pressures of test-taking and ways to support students that have historically struggled on tests. That is, the mentor presented the classroom management problem through a broader, relational, and systemic perspective to help the teacher reframe, or shift, her beliefs.

School Context. Another body of literature suggests that school context impacts teachers' classroom management (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006). In particular, compared to teachers in other kinds of school contexts, teachers in urban and high poverty classrooms tend to deal with higher rates of misbehavior, lower instances of positive interactions, and historically low-achieving students (Pianta et al., 2002; Jacob, 2007; Milner, 2006; Weiner, 2000). For instance, Pianta and colleagues (2002) studied 223 students from different public school kindergarten classrooms using observations, observational ratings, and demographic surveys. The authors found that schools with higher concentrations of poverty, lower family income, and less available school staff tended to have teachers associated with less positive teacher-student interactions and lower ratings of instructional climate and child-centered climate. These findings suggest that teaching in high-poverty schools could impact how teachers use strategies related to classroom management.

The impact of school context could also extend to teacher beliefs, though more evidence is

24

needed. Martin and Yin (1999) surveyed 145 teachers to learn whether teachers had different beliefs according to the type of school that they taught in. They found that urban teachers tended to hold more interventionist beliefs about people management than rural teachers, meaning they wanted to control how students interacted with one another. However, the authors described one limitation as whether the urban context impacted teachers' beliefs or whether certain teachers with these beliefs chose to teach in urban schools. With only one available study, to my knowledge, that investigated the impact of context on teachers' classroom management beliefs, further research is needed.

Experience. The last in-service factor that influences management is classroom experience. Literature about classroom management experience indicates that experienced teachers tend to have beliefs characteristic of effective classroom managers (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Pianta, 2006). Experienced teachers often share a more comprehensive understanding of classroom management—namely, beliefs that are more relational, collaborative, and instructional—compared to teachers with less experience (Martin & Baldwin, 1993; Sokal et al., 2003; Martin & Shoho, 2000). For example, Martin and Baldwin (1993) collected multiple surveys from 158 teachers and found that novice teachers consistently held more interventionist beliefs compared to experienced teachers, defined as having more than three years of teaching experience. That is, beginning teachers cared more about classroom management control whereas experienced teachers tended to have more beliefs that were more collaborative in regards to behavior, instruction, and student interactions.

Other than descriptions of experienced teachers, there is no classroom management literature regarding how teachers learn from their in-service experience. While clinical experience, mentioned earlier, is shown to impact classroom management beliefs and actions, there is no such literature regarding full-time experience and classroom management development.

Learning more about influences. While there are various factors throughout preparation and in-service that impact positive teacher and student outcomes, the availability and quality of these influences may be limited for beginning teachers. These teachers can develop as classroom managers if they happen to be enrolled in a program that emphasizes classroom management *and* teaches it in an applicable manner (e.g., Hammerness, 2011). Similarly, classroom management programs and mentoring have also shown to help teachers implement best practice and to incorporate a relational approach towards classroom management, respectively, but the availability and the quality of these supports for beginning teachers varies (Humphrey et al., 2007; Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999). Humphrey et al. (2007) noted how all seven alternative certification programs they studied incorporated mentoring but the frequency and quality varied, thus causing teachers within each

program to have an uneven impact in classroom management. Furthermore, teacher education literature suggests that there can be risks to learning from classroom experience, as beginning teachers may have "miseducative" experiences (Feimen-Nemser, 1985; Dewey, 1938; Buchman & Schwille, 1993) in regards to incorrectly learning how to manage the classroom.

Literature suggests that teachers can learn from any of these influences but all personnel that teachers interact with and experiences that teachers have do not necessarily help teachers to develop in classroom management (Grossman et al., 2012). Therefore, more needs to be learned about the specific practices of program/school personnel and features of learning from experience that best support beginning teachers in developing as classroom managers (Bullough & Richardson, 2014; Wang et al., 2008). My study contributes to this literature by investigating various influences on teachers' classroom management.

Literature Review Summary

The existing literature suggests that teachers tend to have beliefs about classroom management in terms of managing student behavior, managing student engagement through instruction and academic content, and managing student relationships through a positive environment. Additionally, studies about classroom management actions indicate similar categories about how teachers manage the classroom: by attending to student behavior, academic content, and student relationships. Concerning the relationship between classroom management beliefs and actions, teachers often use actions corresponding to their beliefs, though literature also suggests that successful enactments of classroom management actions could be the mechanism by which teachers' beliefs develop over time. Finally, the literature suggests a number of factors that can influence how teachers develop as classroom managers. Teacher preparation is one such factor, particularly when it offers practical advice and opportunities for successful enactment of management practices. In-service school factors, such as learning from school mentors and being required to implement a classroom management program, also can impact how teachers develop.

Though the literature reviewed above describes the kinds of approaches to managing classrooms that teachers tend to embrace, as well as some key influences, less clear is the process by which beginning teachers develop as classroom managers. In the next section, I propose my conceptual framework for the process by which beginning teachers develop as classroom managers.

Conceptual Framework

In this section, I discuss my conceptual framework explaining how beginning urban teachers develop in classroom management. First, I explain the foundational constructs that guide my conceptual framework. Then, I draw on the literature to present a framework for how beginning urban teachers develop as classroom managers, attending specifically to areas that teachers focus their beliefs and actions. I propose that beginning teachers can manage classrooms in ways that focus on student behavioral issues but they can also learn to attend to academic and relational aspects of the classroom. I conclude by presenting a framework describing how various factors can influence teacher beliefs or actions.

Defining Classroom Management Constructs

My conceptual framework for this study, illustrated in Figure 2.1, represents beginning urban teachers' development in classroom management. Before elaborating on the details of this framework, I begin by defining central constructs.

Figure 2.1: Beginning Urban Teacher Classroom Management Development Framework
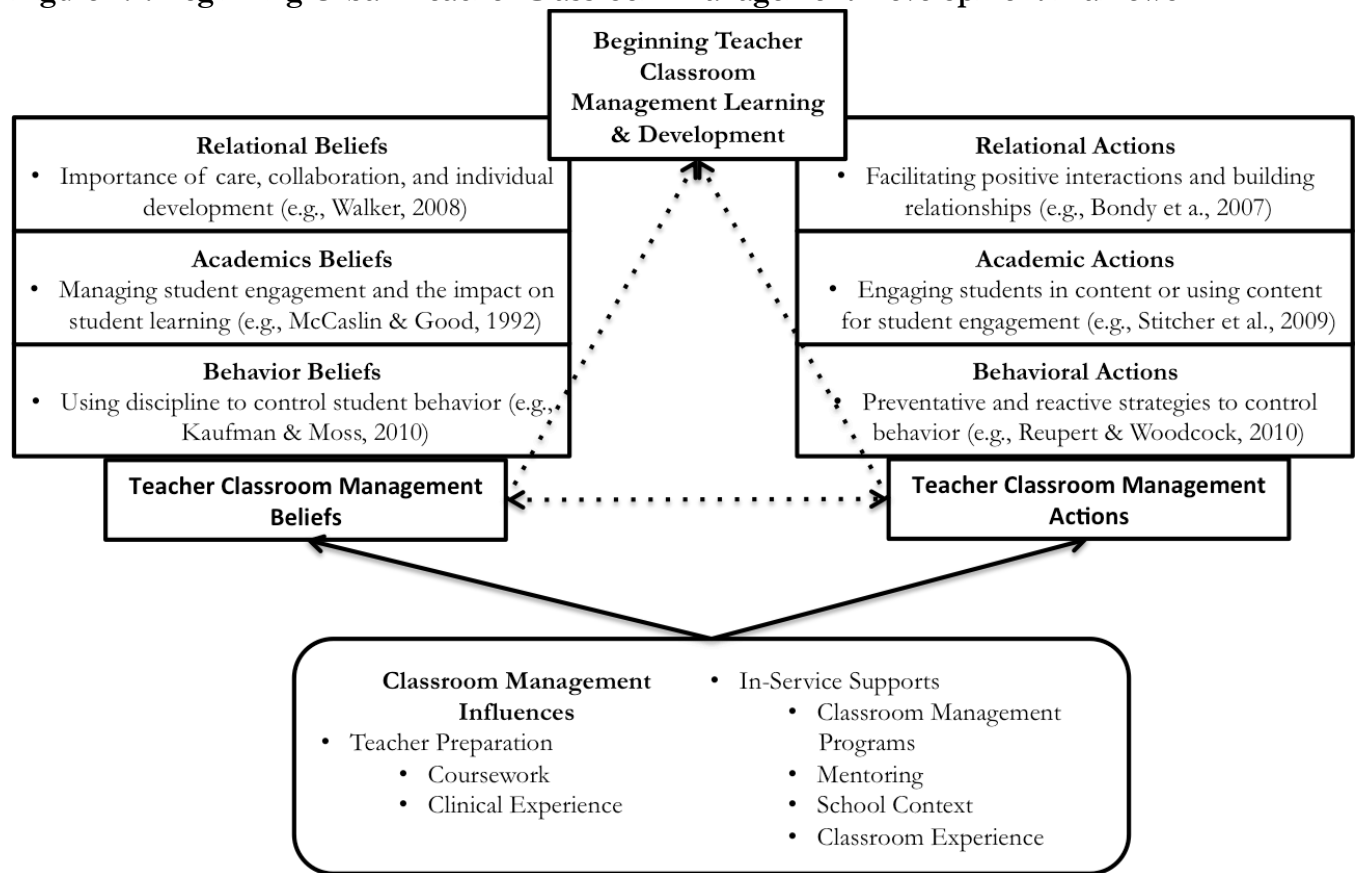
Classroom management. My definition of classroom management is informed by the definition that Evertson and Weinstein (2006) proposed as well as my review of the literature. I define classroom management as the pedagogical skill of creating a classroom environment that is conducive to positive student behavioral, academic, and socio-emotional growth. This definition states that teachers manage the classroom to maintain order with a large group of students while attending to student behavior, engagement with academic subject matter, and sense of belonging and comfort.

Beginning urban teachers. This study focuses on beginning urban teachers. Specifically, I study first year in-service teachers to learn about their initial transition into the profession, which has been identified as a crucial time for teacher development and a period where more research is needed related to classroom management (Koehler et al., 2013). I consider first year teachers to be beginners only in terms of time spent in the classroom because evidence suggests that beginning teachers can be effective classroom managers (Bondy et al., 2007); in other words, there is variation in how effectively beginning teachers manage classrooms. I intentionally avoid using the term "novice" because some may take the term to suggest a lack of expertise in various pedagogical areas. First year teachers may have limited full-time experience and may typically be less skilled than a teacher who has taught for many years, but I do not assume first year teachers are ineffective classroom managers.

For this study, "urban" refers to the school and community environments in which teachers do their work rather than a specific geographic location or school size. I draw from Milner's (2014) notion of "urban characteristic" schools, which complicates the term "urban" by suggesting schools can be similarly characterized by high-poverty, low-achieving, and racially diverse student demographics without being in or near a large metropolitan city. Though urban characteristic schools tend to be in large, metropolitan cities, the author suggests that they can also be found in suburban cities or areas of large increases of immigrant populations. Milner (2014) adds that these schools tend to also lack resources, including school supplies and personnel, compared non-urban schools.

Classroom Management Beliefs, Actions, and Influences

In this section, I discuss my conceptual framework for how teacher beliefs, actions, and the factors that influence beliefs and actions, interact to help beginning teachers develop as classroom managers. Figure 2.1 serves as a template for my conceptualization of classroom management based

on my review of the literature. Although I adopt this framework, individual variations can and do exist in terms of how each teacher realizes the beliefs and actions ascribed to him or her. I begin by exploring the top half of Figure 2.1 to propose that teachers can conceptualize and implement actions around behavioral, academic, and relational aspects of the classroom. I also critically analyze how each of these aspects relate to one another and offer insight into how teachers develop over time. Following this explanation, I explore in detail the bottom half of my conceptual framework to propose how teacher educators and professional experiences may positively impact teacher beliefs and actions.

Beginning teachers' classroom management beliefs. Drawing from the previous literature, described above, I propose that beginning teachers have sets of behavioral, academic, and relational beliefs when conceptualizing classroom management, as shown on the left side of Figure 2.1. Below, I describe each type of belief and how teachers possess varying degrees of each when explaining their conceptualization of classroom management.

Behavioral beliefs are teachers' thoughts about the importance of managing student behavior. Teachers who share these beliefs describe the need for rules and procedures to dictate how students should behave and the corresponding consequences to punish, or give consequences to, students when they misbehave. Behavioral beliefs generally center around ideas about control and discipline. Moreover, there is evidence that these kinds of beliefs are common among beginning teachers, who tend to have shared concerns about controlling student misbehavior (e.g., Fuller, 1969) and emphasize discipline when defining classroom management (e.g., Kaufman & Moss, 2010; Latz, 1991).

In this study, I conceptualize academic beliefs, regarding classroom management, as beliefs directed at managing student engagement as well as beliefs about understanding the impact classroom management can have on student learning. These beliefs highlight how various aspects of instruction (e.g., lesson planning, instructional activities) could be used to manage student engagement and prevent misbehavior (e.g., Atici, 2007). Instead of a focus on compliance and establishing authority in the classroom (as is characteristic of behavioral beliefs), there is a greater emphasis on the importance of guiding students to pay attention to learning material. Academic beliefs could also include the impact that classroom management has on student learning. Teachers who prioritize academic beliefs tend to emphasize how getting students to behave responsibly or engage with content can promote learning and academic achievement (e.g., McCaslin & Good, 1992).

My conceptual framework also includes relational beliefs, which are beliefs about the importance of managing through care, collaboration, and a focus on the needs of individual students. These beliefs focus on building relationships with students and adjusting classroom management to student needs (e.g., Freiberg, 1999). Additionally, relational beliefs are often concerned with creating a safe, comfortable environment, characterized by respect and positive interactions. Teachers with these beliefs generally think that, through cultivating a caring environment, they can address their students' socio-emotional needs (e.g., Freiberg, 1999).

Multi-dimensionality of beliefs. My framework proposes that teachers likely conceptualize classroom management in a multi-dimensional manner. Teachers understand that there are behavioral, academic, and relational aspects to managing a classroom, though they prioritize each aspect to varying degrees. For instance, some teachers may emphasize behavioral aspects over academic and relational aspects in their descriptions of classroom management; though they conceptualize classroom management according to all three types of beliefs, one aspect is more central to their beliefs. Prior literature, for example, suggests that beginning teachers may tend to prioritize behavior management in their definitions of classroom management (e.g., Kaufman & Moss, 2010), though their conceptualizations may incorporate other types of beliefs as well (i.e., academic, relational).

Beginning teachers' classroom management actions. Building on the existing literature, I also propose that beginning teachers manage classrooms through actions that impact student behavior, academics, and relationships, as shown on the right side of Figure 2.1. Below, I describe each type of action separately and then emphasize the importance of prioritizing relational actions in the classroom.

Behavioral actions are preventative and reactive techniques to control student actions by promoting appropriate classroom behavior while discouraging misbehavior. These strategies range from establishing classroom rules at the beginning of the year to getting students to remain quiet during class time (e.g., Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). Academic actions are management strategies or practices that teachers use to engage students directly with content or ways of using academic content to manage student classroom engagement. This can include using content to draw student attention (e.g., asking a distracted student a content-related question) or drawing student attention to content (e.g., telling a student to get back to work). These actions differ from behavioral actions because they directly leverage academic content in some fashion, whereas behavioral actions generally focus on establishing control devoid of content (e.g., saying, "be quiet"). Relational actions

include facilitating positive interactions in the classroom by building relationships. Teachers, for instance, can promote group work and opportunities for peers to work with one another as well as bring in personal information into the classroom so that teachers and students can learn about one another. These actions can help to establish a safe and comfortable environment in the classroom where students can have positive socio-emotional experiences.

Multi-dimensionality of actions. Similar to the multi-dimensionality of beliefs, my framework highlights that teachers likely implement a diverse range of actions to manage the classroom. In order for teachers to manage the classroom, they may incorporate actions that manage student behavior, academic content, and classroom interactions (e.g., Sun, 2014; O'Neil & Stephenson, 2014). Though my framework proposes that teachers likely manage classrooms using a range of types of actions, it is quite possible that teachers tend to prioritize one type of action over others. For example, some literature suggests that beginning teachers tend to rely most frequently on behavioral actions, though their actions may attend, to a lesser degree, to all aspects of the classroom (e.g., Reupert & Woodcock, 2010).

Belief-action relationship. While beginning teachers tend to foreground student behavior in both their management beliefs and actions, the relationship between their beliefs and actions remains under-conceptualized. My framework proposes a tentative connection between teacher beliefs and actions, represented in Figure 2.1 as a dashed line between beliefs and actions. Drawing from existing literature about the connection between classroom management beliefs and actions (e.g., Richardson & Fallona, 1991), I anticipate that teachers will tend to have beliefs and use actions that are consistent with one another. However, the findings of Jones and Vesilind (1995) suggest that a lack of agreement between beliefs and actions can exist, leaving some doubt about whether beginning teachers' beliefs align with their actions. The authors found that initially beliefs and actions converged - teachers had mostly behavioral beliefs and employed mostly behavioral actions. Over time, though, these beliefs and actions diverged - pre-service teachers' beliefs shifted after their student teaching experience to focus more on managing student relationships, while their actions remained focused on behavior. As Jones and Vesilind (1995) is the only prior research, to my knowledge, that investigates the connection between management beliefs and actions among novice teachers, more research is needed. The present study extends this line of research.

Development over time. Previous literature presents mixed results about whether management beliefs change and, if they do, how. Several studies conclude that classroom management beliefs tend to stay consistent over time (e.g., Bullough & Baughman, 1997; Chambers

& Hardy, 2005). Other studies indicate that beliefs may shift to become more relational (e.g., Jones & Vesilind, 1995) or more controlling of student behavior (e.g., Sokal et al., 2003). Given these divergent findings, I am hesitant to propose a specific developmental trajectory or direction. Rather than propose such a common trajectory, Figure 2.1 includes a dashed line from "beliefs" to "development" to indicate that a developmental trajectory may exist but also may not. My study explores what teachers believe about classroom management at different time points throughout their first year of teaching.

This study also examines how beginning teachers' actions may change over time, as shown by the dashed line from actions to development in Figure 2.1. As with beliefs, my conceptual framework includes a dashed line between "actions" and "development" to indicate the possibility that a developmental trajectory exists. However, there is no prior empirical evidence, to my knowledge, about how in-service teachers' classroom management actions develop (or not) over time to support my assumption. Jones and Vesilind (1995) studied pre-service teachers and found their classroom management actions did not change throughout the course of student teaching. Even if actions do not change during student teaching, it is still possible that in-service teachers can develop their management skills while on the job (Feiman-Nemser, 1983). Thus, my study investigates how first year teachers manage the classroom at different time points throughout their first year of teaching to learn more about whether and how actions develop.

My framework does not propose a definitive mode of development, recognizing that individual teachers could vary in how their classroom management develops. Even so, it recognizes the possibility that there may be some average tendencies amongst teachers. Fuller and Bown's (1975) stage model of development, at one extreme, proposes that new teachers move through predictable stages of concerns about survival, then about instruction, and finally about their students. Other researchers have used Fuller and Bown's framework to connect classroom management to aspects of behavior, academics, and relationships, respectively (e.g., Kagan, 1991; Jones & Vesilind, 1995). However, Grossman (1985) has critiqued this stage model because it does not account for individual experiences that teachers encounter throughout development and does not represent the complexity of teachers having any set of multiple beliefs at any given time.

External factors that influence teachers' beliefs and actions. Teachers can shift how they think about and enact classroom management, and my framework indicates that external factors can impact this process of development. I begin this section by explaining various external factors likely to influence classroom management beliefs and actions, as shown at the bottom of

Figure 2.1. I then describe connections between influences and teacher actions, and between influences and teacher beliefs. I conclude by explaining how my framework compares and contrasts with other frameworks concerning classroom management development.

My framework proposes a number of factors that influence the developmental progressions of classroom managers (see bottom of Figure 2.1). These factors or "influences" include learning from others and from experiences throughout pre-service teacher preparation. They also include various in-service supports, such as teacher induction programs within schools, formal and informal mentoring or development opportunities from school or district personnel, and learning within the context and from classroom experiences. As described in my literature review, these influences have been shown to have positive impacts on classroom management development (Wang et al., 2008; Stough & Montague, 2014).

I include classroom experience as an influence, even though I am unaware of any literature on in-service teachers that directly addresses the role of classroom experiences in learning how to manage the classroom. Instead, my framework is informed by studies indicating that pre-service clinical experience impacts classroom management development (e.g., Atici, 2007) and teacher education literature (e.g., Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Dewey, 1938); these studies suggest that learning from experience plays an important role in learning how to manage a classroom. In her review of in-service teacher development literature, Feiman-Nemser (1983) argues that teachers often utilize their first year as a time to problem-solve issues on their own; they take the opportunity to see what strategies and skills do and do not work throughout their experience in order to refine their practice. Though the author does not refer specifically to classroom management, her argument can be extended to this pedagogical domain. In addition, existing literature on teacher socialization suggests that teachers become more custodial (controlling) in their orientation when they begin in-service teaching, but less is known about the mechanisms by which school and classroom experiences impact teachers and their teaching (Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

My framework also proposes that influences can positively impact teachers' actions without impacting teachers' beliefs, as represented by the arrow from "influences" to "actions" in Figure 2.1. Teachers can learn from other teachers about how to do the work of managing the classroom, in ways ranging from informal advice on how to respond to certain students to formal experiences with strategies that they should incorporate. This claim is supported by Humphrey et al. (2008), who found that in-service teacher mentoring led beginning teachers to manage classrooms through instructionally engaging students, smoothing transitions between activities, and dealing with noise

level during small group activities. These teachers improved in actions related to managing the classroom but their beliefs held constant in how they conceptualized classroom management. Additionally, other studies have indicated that even teachers themselves reported that during their teacher preparation program they wanted to learn about practical information or practices that they could implement in their classroom (e.g., Gimbert, 2008; Akar & Yildirim, 2009; O'Neil & Stephenson, 2012); they were unsatisfied with only learning theoretical information and sought direction in terms of actions.

My framework suggests that influences, such as teacher preparation, can impact beliefs separate from action, as illustrated by the arrow from "influences" to "beliefs" in Figure 2.1. For example, Ritter and Hancock (2007) indicate that teachers who went through a traditional certification program were more likely to have beliefs that were less controlling than teachers who went through an alternative certification program. Additionally, Jones and Vesilind (1995) researched pre-service teacher beliefs and found that these teachers shifted their initial beliefs from student control towards wanting to manage through relationships over the course of clinical experience. This study also showed that these pre-service teachers continued to use actions focused on controlling student behavior despite changing their beliefs, indicating that teacher preparation can impact teachers' conceptualization of classroom management independently of their actions. Consistent with these findings, my framework indicates that influences can act independently and directly on beliefs apart from actions, and vice-versa. This is represented by the separate arrows in Figure 2.1 leading from influences to beliefs and from influences to actions.

My framework contrasts with several previous frameworks investigating the different mechanisms by which teacher education may change management beliefs or actions. Whereas these other frameworks generally propose either changing beliefs or actions as a mechanism to help teachers to develop, my framework extends prior work by proposing that beliefs and actions can be influenced independently. For instance, Rozelle and Wilson (2012) used ethnographic methods in their investigation of six science pre-service teachers and found that changing teacher actions led to a change in teacher beliefs. The authors describe one pre-service teacher, Tammy, who mimicked her mentor teacher's relationally-oriented management practices to get students on task after first socializing with them through personal talk. While her initial beliefs focused on the importance of more behaviorally-focused issues such as rules and consequences in managing classrooms, her beliefs shifted towards the importance of building relationships to manage the classroom after she

had incorporated these actions over time. These results suggest that teacher educators could focus on changing teacher actions first in order to promote changes in teacher beliefs.

Korthagen (2004), on the other hand, argues that teacher educators should focus on changing teacher beliefs in order to change teacher actions. The author proposes a model for how teachers may have pedagogical concerns at various "levels" (e.g., beliefs, identity) that are influenced by the environment. Based upon this model, the author recommends that to best help teachers to develop and change, teacher educators address teachers' issues at the "level" associated with their concern. For example, a teacher educator might support a teacher to reflect on his/her underlying beliefs that will likely lead to certain desired actions. Rather than assuming the teacher needs to use a different action for the future, which Korthagen (2004) suggests often occurs throughout teacher preparation, the teacher educator can tailor the support to the individual teacher's needs by having them reflect on the core issues that may contribute to their underlying beliefs about classroom management. With this individual support, the teacher is more likely to make corresponding changes in actions.

My framework differs from these two previous models (i.e., Rozelle & Wilson, 2012; Korthagen, 2004) by taking a broader perspective on teacher development. My study is less concerned with how (i.e., the mechanisms by which) various factors influence management beliefs and actions, and is concerned more with identifying those key influences. That is, I want to first establish *who/what* influences teachers in their beliefs and actions prior to determining *how* those factors may influence teachers. As a result, my conceptual framework focuses on which teacher preparation and in-service supports influence teachers' development as classroom managers, regardless of the mechanism (e.g., whether through changing teacher beliefs or actions first). This focus addresses the call by Wang and associates (2008) to identify specific features of teacher preparation and in-service experiences that best support teachers to develop as classroom managers. Addressing this call is especially pertinent for helping beginning teachers, who can come in contact with over ten support personnel throughout their first year (Hasiotis et al., 2015), not all of whom may be helpful to teachers in regards to classroom management. Once the factors that have a powerful influence on classroom management are identified, research can then investigate how they impact development.

Conceptual Framework Summary

Throughout this section, I elaborated the conceptual framework, which is informed by my review of the literature, that guides my study. This framework proposes that beginning teachers have a set of behavioral, academic, and relational beliefs and actions related to managing the classroom. I question whether these beliefs and actions align for beginning teachers, change over time, or can be influenced by external factors. To fully understand whether these connections exist for beginning teachers, more research is needed. Also needed are investigations of pre-service and in-service influences—ranging from coursework to mentoring—that impact teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions. In the next chapter I present my methodology, guided by my conceptual framework, to explore beginning teachers' classroom management experience.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter reviews the methods used to collect data for this study and the processes of analysis used to understand the data to answer my research questions. I begin by describing the setting and sample, including the sample of all first year teachers in the program that were surveyed and the five case participants that I studied in greater detail. Then, I discuss each data source and how it was collected. Finally, I describe my process of data coding and how I performed different analyses on the survey and case participant samples in order to answer my research questions.

Setting

This study took place in the 2013-2014 academic year and included teachers from CERT, a two-year teacher preparation program within a large public University in the Midwest. 258 enrolled first and second year teachers were concurrently participating in an alternative certification program (ACP[4]), which required teachers to work full-time in an urban K-12 school contingent on making satisfactory progress in a certification program. Teachers were placed in schools that were part of the local public school system or a charter school network, and contained high percentages of students who qualified for free and reduced-price lunches, and historically low-achieving students of color. Not all teachers from ACP enrolled in CERT as they could choose from other local certification programs. This study was conducted and teachers were recruited through CERT; therefore, teachers throughout this study are referred to as CERT teachers.

CERT required teachers to attend bi-monthly content-specific seminars and be observed approximately once a month by a content field instructor. In their teaching placements, field instructors evaluated their teacher pedagogy based on a program observation rubric and a summative electronic portfolio composed of teaching artifacts throughout the year. CERT focused

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4 Though generally categorized as an alternative certification program, ACP could be more accurately considered a recruitment program for high-achieving individuals because teachers were required to enroll in a separate certification program. However, ACP develops teachers through the summer training and supports teachers throughout their first two years of training, which tends to sufficiently prepare participants to receive certification by another program.

its evaluation of teachers on subject-specific knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and classroom management.

Teachers also had similar responsibilities and support from ACP. Regardless of which certification program teachers enrolled in, ACP required teachers to attend programmatic bi-monthly pedagogical seminars and be observed by an ACP content field supervisor throughout the year. ACP also offered skill-specific professional workshops on certain weekends and access to their programmatic building to get additional teaching materials (e.g., copies, writing utensils) for their classrooms as needed.

ACP offered one additional support through a pre-service teacher preparation experience. Teachers were required to attend a six-week summer training including an accelerated clinical teaching experience prior to enrolling in a certification program. Throughout this training, ACP teacher preparation had an explicit focus on classroom management by teaching assertive discipline (Canter, 1976) through the Behavioral Management Cycle (BMC). This classroom management program (described in the Literature Review) was the foundation of preparation as teachers learned, observed, and practiced this system throughout coursework and clinical practice.

Sample

First year CERT teachers. The analytic sample included 87 first year CERT teachers who completed the required CERT program surveys (described in Data Sources below). CERT enrolled teachers within their first three years, but second and third year teachers were excluded because this study intended to investigate the development of teachers initially entering the profession. Though 131 first year teachers were enrolled in CERT (shown in Table 3.1, Full Sample), teachers in my analyses needed to have completed both the beginning and end of year surveys. Of the 131 first year teachers in CERT, 87 completed both surveys (shown in Table 3.1, Analytic Sample). To check whether the analytic sample was representative of the full sample of 1st year CERT teachers, Table 3.1 also includes the t-tests for mean comparisons of the teacher characteristics between the analytic sample and the larger sample of all survey respondents. These tests indicate there were no statistically significant differences between the full sample and the analytic sample, suggesting that the analytic sample was representative of all first year CERT teachers.

Table 3.1: One-Way T-Tests of Analytic Sample of First Year CERT Teachers (n=87) and Full Sample (n=131)

Variable	Analytic Sample (n=87)	Full Sample (n=131)	t-statistic (p-value)
Elementary Teachers	0.51 (0.50)	0.56 (0.50)	-1.12 (0.26)
Previous Teaching Experience	0.56 (0.50)	0.59 (0.49)	-0.53 (0.60)
Paid Experience Working With Children	0.66 (0.48)	0.65 (0.48)	0.32 (0.75)
Teachers in Charter School	0.76 (0.43)	0.71 (0.46)	-1.28 (0.21)
Teaches in Public School	0.06 (0.24)	0.09 (0.29)	1.18 (0.24)
Teachers in State Operated School	0.18 (0.38)	0.20 (0.40)	-0.53 (0.60)

Note: * $\rho<0.05$. ** $\rho< .01$. *** $\rho < .001$ of values. 87 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys.

Within the analytic sample, first year CERT teachers came into the program with some experience working with students, which is typical for alternatively certified teachers (Shen, 1997; Humphrey & Weschler, 2005; Zumwalt, 1996). 56 percent of the teachers had some sort of prior teaching experience ranging from tutoring to substitute teaching, while 66 percent of first year teachers had a previous paid position working with children, such as babysitting or coaching. Approximately half of the analytic sample was split between elementary and secondary teachers. 76 percent of first year teachers were in charter schools, six percent were in public schools, and 18 percent were in state-operated public schools.

Case participants. I also sampled five CERT teachers from within this overall analytic sample to select as case participants for more in-depth qualitative research. To do so, I sent recruitment emails to CERT teachers who had indicated on their beginning of the year survey (described below) that they were willing to be contacted for research opportunities. Of the ten volunteers who conveyed interest, five teachers agreed to additional classroom observations and interviewing throughout the year: two secondary math teachers, one secondary science and math teacher, and two elementary teachers.

The variation in classroom subject and grade level provided a range to view how first year teachers experienced classroom management. However, this variation could also be construed as a limitation in the study sample, as both subject area and grade level could impact how teachers think about and manage the classroom (e.g., Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Yilmaz, 2009). As a result, I am unable to say whether differences in classroom management that I observed were actually due to these teacher characteristics. To account for teacher differences, I included teacher characteristics as control variables throughout quantitative analyses and performed additional qualitative analyses to

make sure teacher differences were not on account of these characteristics, described later in this chapter.

Table 3.2 shows an overview of each case participant[5] and a brief description of his/her school. All teachers taught in high-poverty contexts as evidenced by the high percentage of students who qualified for free and reduced-priced lunch. Each case participant and his/her specific school context are described further below.

Table 3.2: Case Participants' School Characteristics

Name	Grade (Subject)	School Grades	School Demographic	School Population (Grade Population)
Ms. Babkin	1st Grade	K-12 Public Charter Elementary School	98% African American; 68% FRPL	1330 total (120-1st graders)
Ms. Chatman	2nd Grade, (Social Studies & English)	K-5 Public Charter Elementary School	100% African American; 86% FRPL	668 total (35-2nd graders)
Mr. Sand	8th, 9th Grade (Math)	K-10 Public Charter School	88% Arab American, 9% African American; 83% FRPL	638 total (77-8th & 9th graders)
Mr. Frank	8th Grade (Science & Math)	6-8 Religious-affiliated Charter School	100% African American; 86% FRPL	250 total (87-8th graders)
Mr. Vante	8th Grade (Math)			

Note: K = Kindergarten; FRPL = Free and Reduced Priced Lunch

Ms. Babkin. Ms. Babkin was a recent college graduate who studied Global Development and Social Justice with minors in Russian and Soviet Studies, and Environmental Science. She did not have any previous educational experiences or paid positions working with children prior to teaching. She was of Russian immigrant descent, which she often shared with the students through stories of her family and her childhood.

Ms. Babkin taught 20 first grade students in a charter elementary school that was awarded a "[State Recognized] Achievement Award." This prestigious award was given by the state to schools with high performing student achievement with at least 40 percent of their student demographic as

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[5] Pseudonyms are used for all people in this study.

racial minorities. Most teachers had taught at the school for several years; Ms. Babkin was one of a handful of new teachers.

Ms. Chatman. Ms. Chatman was Caucasian American and a recent college graduate who studied Political Science and minored in Psychology. She had prior experience as a tutor and childcare provider. Ms. Chatman worked in a 90/90/90 charter school in its first year of inception. To qualify as a 90/90/90 school, 90 percent of the school's students must qualify for free and reduced-priced lunch, 90 percent of the students must be high-risk minorities, and the school must aim for 90 percent of the students to meet the high academic standards. Nearly all of the teachers were first year teachers.

Ms. Chatman co-taught 2nd grade with Ms. Vance, another first year teacher who went through a traditional certification program that emphasized teaching in urban settings. Prior to the school year beginning, Ms. Chatman and Ms. Vance established their classroom norms and divided responsibilities of content teaching. Ms. Chatman was in charge of reading, writing, and history, making her the only case participant who did not teach any math to students. Ms. Chatman and Ms. Vance switched off leading morning meetings, which was a classroom culture-setting piece required from the school to teach students about positive character traits exemplified throughout history or contemporary society. Each teacher generally stayed and participated during their co-teacher's lesson; however, there were times when the co-teacher chose to use that time to run errands, plan instruction, have individual conversations with students, or remediate content for individual students.

Mr. Sand. Mr. Sand was Caucasian American and a recent college graduate who studied English Literature and minored in Psychology. During one summer while he was in college, he worked as a paid camp counselor teaching high school students. Mr. Sand took several Arabic language courses during college, which provided him with an elementary to low-level language proficiency. He believed this language skillset factored into why he was hired at his school, which had a predominantly Arab-American student and faculty demographic.

Mr. Sand taught 8th and 9th grade math at a K-9 charter school with the 2013-2014 academic year being the first year of 9th grade classes for the expanding high school. Though the school had different racial demographics than the other case participant schools, the economic demographics of this school were similar to other the case participant schools with over 80 percent of the students qualifying for free and reduced-price lunch.

Mr. Vante. Mr. Vante was a Caucasian American who had just completed his first year in law school before deciding to switch careers and apply to ACP. He previously studied political science as an undergraduate and had experience with children working as a tutor and a sports coach.

Mr. Vante taught 8th grade math in a religious-affiliated charter school, where students were exclusively African American with over 80 percent of the students qualified for free or reduced-priced lunch. This was the smallest of the four schools with 250 students, which allowed teachers to know most of the students in the middle school setting.

Mr. Frank. Mr. Frank was Caucasian American and a recent college graduate who studied Political Science with a minor in Legal Studies. He had previous teaching experience as a tutor and debate instructor.

Mr. Frank taught integrated science and one math elective class at the same charter school as Mr. Vante, where they were in the same grade level teaching team. Mr. Frank and Mr. Vante conversed daily with one another but rarely for planning or academic purposes.

Data Sources

I organized my data sources into two categories: CERT programmatic data and case participant data. CERT administered programmatic surveys to all CERT program participants, who were also evaluated by field instructors twice throughout the year.[6] I collected additional qualitative data on the five CERT case participants. Table 3.3 provides an overview of the data sources used in this study, which are described in more detail below.

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6 CERT granted me access to use these data for purposes of this study.

Table 3.3: Descriptions of Data Sources and Times of Collection

Data Type	Data Source	Brief Description	Time Collected (Month)	Purpose
CERT Programmatic Data (N=87)	CERT Programmatic Surveys	2- 45 minute surveys	Beginning of the year survey (September) End of the year survey (May)	Identify teachers' classroom management beliefs, actions, and influences
	Field Instructor Observation Scores	Evaluation scores for each CERT teacher given by field instructor	Score 1 (December) Score 2 (May)	Evaluate teaching quality throughout one semester according to CERT program rubric
Case Participant Data (n=5)	Semi-Structured and Observation-Linked Interviews	2- 45 minutes interviews; Time 2 interview included a video recall protocol

2- 30 minute informal observation-linked interviews | Interview 1 (November) Interview 2 (June)

Field Visit 1 (March) Field Visit 2 (May) | Explore teachers' thoughts and opinions about classroom management; learn about self-reported actions |
	Researcher Field Visits	2- 8 hour classroom visits; observational field notes	Field Visit 1 (March) Field Visit 2 (May)	Observe teachers' actions in their context throughout a whole school day
	Teacher Video Self-Recordings	5 consecutive days of 1-hour recordings (Waves)	Wave 1 (February) Wave 2 (April) Wave 3 (June)	Observe teachers' classroom management actions over time
	Classroom Management Journals	1 online entry after each day of self-recording	Wave 1 (February) Wave 2 (April) Wave 3 (June)	Allow teachers to self-report their classroom management actions

CERT programmatic data. *The Survey of Demographics and Teacher Practices.* The CERT design team created the Survey of Demographics and Teacher Practices (SDTP) as an instrument to study the change in teachers' pedagogical beliefs through a beginning of the year and end of the year programmatic survey. CERT administered surveys the first day of certification classes (September 2013) and at the conclusion of the certification year (May 2014) to all teachers. CERT electronically administered surveys through Chalk & Wire, a technological interface that CERT students regularly used to complete assignments.

The design team consisted of all administrative leaders, including the program director, field instructor leaders, seminar instructor leaders, and teacher assessment leaders, who collectively constructed programmatic curriculum for teachers, professional development for instructors, and

oversaw the growth and development of the overall program. I served on the design team as a technology consultant that year and the year prior as the program gradually transitioned to an online teacher assessment program. This allowed me to contribute to the design of the survey, including three questions at the heart of this study, which are described in greater detail below.

CERT created the SDTP in the summer of 2013 to gather information on teachers' beliefs in four primary areas: classroom management, urban teaching, teacher stress, and content area literacy. The overarching objective of SDTP was to investigate relationships between teachers' beliefs and future educational outcomes such as their students' academic achievement and teachers' willingness to learn. Refer to Appendix A and Appendix B for the whole beginning of the year survey and end of the year survey, respectively. The surveys included pre-existing multiple-choice questions from three sources: classroom management dispositions (Martin et al., 1998), urban education beliefs (Ronfeldt & Reininger, 2012), and beliefs about the importance of content area literacy (Moje et al., 2008). The CERT program design team also created several questions about teachers' preferences to work with urban students and approaches to classroom management.

My analyses focused on three open-ended questions about teachers' classroom management beliefs, actions, and influences that were included on both programmatic surveys. These questions were identical on both surveys, allowing me to investigate changes in teachers' classroom management experience from the beginning to the end of the school year, while the open-ended format allowed teachers to expand on their thoughts. The first question solicited teachers' beliefs about classroom management: "What is classroom management? Why is it/is it not important?" The second question asked teachers to report on classroom management actions they have used successfully: "Describe (or imagine) a time when you used an effective classroom management skill and how that impacted the classroom." This question required teachers to identify what they thought was a classroom management skill and explain why they thought it was effective. I designed the last question so that respondents would identify factors that influenced their approaches to classroom management: "From where/whom did you learn your most effective classroom management strategies?"

Once I collected surveys, I transformed them into STATA format for quantitative analyses. Out of a total of 124 first year teachers that completed the certification program, 87 teachers completed both programmatic surveys for a 70 percent response rate.

Field instructor evaluation scores. I used CERT field instructor evaluation scores to measure quality of teaching. Scores were based on a set of program outcomes that represented

essential knowledge and skills that teachers should embody at the completion of the CERT program. These program outcomes, shown in Table 3.4, were aligned with state standards for teacher credentialing and initially designed in 2013 by university faculty, doctoral students, practitioners, and school administrators. Within each program outcome were "indicators," or sub-criteria for the larger outcome, which helped to guide teacher educators in preparing their curricula.

CERT included five of the nine program outcomes for field instruction, highlighted in Table 3.4.[7] CERT identified these five outcomes as observable aspects of teacher pedagogy to create an observational rubric. This rubric was used by field instructors to evaluate teachers on a 4-point (0-3) scale based on how they facilitate an environment, build relationships, deliver instruction, make instructional decisions, and engage students in content-area literacy. As part of this rubric, brief descriptors were included to exemplify what a certain score on a specific program outcome would look like in the classroom. For example, the rubric stated that a score of 1 on the program outcome, "Facilitate an environment that supports student learning," would indicate a teacher who spent most of his/her time on management instead of instruction, used ineffective routines and procedures, and whose classroom wall space was cluttered and not displaying student work.

The field instructor rubric served two purposes. First, this rubric was used as an instructional tool to guide field instructors' feedback on how to improve teacher pedagogy. From this feedback, teachers would learn which aspects of their practice were strengths and which aspects needed improvement according to CERT standards. Second, the rubric was used to evaluate teachers, as field instructors were required to formally complete the rubric for each of their teachers at the end of each semester. This evaluation was a summative assessment of teacher pedagogy over multiple field visits; that is, field instructors evaluated teachers based on the totality of their visits rather than only the most recent visit. The field instructor would score the teacher on each program outcome and provide additional qualitative comments to explain or justify the scores that they provided, particularly because the scores and comments were made available to the teacher.

At the end of semester, all of the scores were then used to calculate mean scores for each teacher across program outcomes. This mean score, called the CERT score, represented the quality of teaching for that teacher according to CERT standards. CERT also used these scores to identify teachers who may need additional support to meet state standards for teacher credentialing. In practice, CERT identified teachers who had a CERT score of a "2" or below to receive extra field instructor visits or assistance from CERT personnel specific to the area of teacher need.

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[7] The remaining program outcomes, shown in Appendix C, were not formally evaluated.

Table 3.4: CERT Program Outcomes and Indicators

Field Instruction Rubric

1. Facilitate an environment that supports student learning
   a. Classroom management
   b. Physical space
   c. Norms, routines, and procedures

2. Build positive rapport and relationships with students to support learning
   a. Positive interpersonal relationships
   b. Student investment, interest, and autonomy

3. Deliver effective instruction that results in student learning
   a. Teacher preparation
   b. Active facilitation
   c. Checks for understanding
   d. Instructional format
   e. Student engagement

4. Make effective instructional decisions
   a. Modifies instruction
   b. Scaffolded instruction

5. Engage literacies as a way of learning discipline/content
   a. Effective reading strategies
   b. Vocabulary instruction and academic language
   c. Discipline specific resources

The CERT scores for each teacher are the focus of my analyses measuring teaching quality. I merged these observational evaluation scores with the programmatic surveys by teacher and imported the data into STATA for quantitative analysis.

While CERT scores offered insight into the quality of teaching, there were several limitations to these measures, described in more detail in Chapter 6. One limitation was that CERT did not test for reliability between field instructors, meaning there was no evidence that the field instructor rubric produced stable and consistent results. In an attempt to maintain reliability across field instructors, CERT required all field instructors to attend training sessions prior to using the rubric for evaluations. In my own analyses, I used data analytic techniques (to be explained later in this chapter) that account for potential differences in field instructor scoring.

Case participant data. I collected a rich set of qualitative data from each of the five CERT participants to better understand how and why classroom management beliefs and actions developed over time. Collecting ongoing data through field visits, video recordings, journals, and interviews throughout the year allowed me to gather more detailed and contextual information about classroom management experiences than surveys alone could provide (Bullough & Richardson, 2014). For each case participant, on average, I observed his/her classroom twice, conducted two interviews, collected five journal entries, and gathered ten classroom video recordings. Please refer

to Appendix D for a full list of data collected and corresponding dates of collection for all case participants.

Teacher interviews. I conducted two semi-structured interviews with each focal teacher to gather general impressions about classroom management at two different time points – at the beginning and end of the year. The first interview occurred in November 2013, which was the earliest available date to meet with beginning teachers based on their teaching schedules and responsibilities. The second interview was conducted in June 2014 after school was completed to learn about teachers' beliefs at the end of the school year.

I used a semi-structured interview protocol to learn more about what teachers believed classroom management was, how they managed their classrooms, and how they learned about classroom management. I chose a semi-structured format to ensure that all interviews focused on these common domains but also to allow for more open discussion about other topics that may emerge. I repeated ten questions in both interviews so I could examine growth over time, but I also designed several questions specific to each participant's unique experiences. On the first interview protocol, this included questions about participants' prior pedagogical experiences and beginning of the year survey responses. On the second protocol, I added questions about specific teaching experiences observed during the school year and about their growth in classroom management across the year. An example interview protocol is included as Appendix E.

As part of the second interview, I had participants observe and react to video recordings of themselves managing their classrooms as a way to explore teachers' thoughts about their own classroom management. Specifically, I created a video compilation from each teacher's set of video recordings, which was approximately five minutes long. Video clips captured teachers performing a variety of actions, including quieting a whole class, becoming frustrated with a particular student, administering a consequence, engaging students through instruction, and instituting a new management system. I chose these clips to represent a range of classroom management strategies or situations when they could have used a classroom management strategy common across case participants. I showed teachers their own video compilation, often pausing the video at the end of each video clip to allow teachers to remember and describe their thought processes at that time. Video recall allowed teachers to discuss their observations in context, what they had intended to do, and if there was anything they wish they had done differently (Jacobs et al., 1999; Kersting, 2008). This process also permitted the teacher to member-check a portion of the video data and provided another perspective on teachers' classroom management actions.

I collected two interviews from all teachers, ranging in length from 10 minutes to 120 minutes. The average length of the first interview was approximately 20 minutes and the second interview was about 90 minutes. Teachers were much more at ease speaking with me at the year-end interview and there was the additional video observation task, accounting for the dramatic increase in time. Because of difficulty in confirming his participation for this study, I conducted Mr. Frank's first interview three months later than the other case participants, limiting how much change I could report regarding his beliefs over time. All interviews were transcribed verbatim.

Field visits. I visited each case participant's classroom on two separate occasions for an entire school day – once in March and once in May. During these visits, I took extensive field notes as a non-participant observer, meaning I limited my interactions with the teacher and students particularly while class was in session. I focused my observation and field notes on the teacher's actions, attending to both verbal and non-verbal actions. This included how teachers interacted with their students and colleagues as well as how teachers utilized time when they were not teaching. As I took notes, I also made analytic comments when I wondered why teachers implemented certain strategies or how they learned to manage a specific way. I used these comments as the basis of informal interviews (described next) to learn about how teachers cognitively processed actions in order to supplement my observations and other observational data that I would capture.

Due to administrator non-response, I was unable to visit the classrooms of Mr. Sand and Ms. Babkin, preventing me from having the opportunity to observe and converse with the teachers while in their classrooms. Instead, I asked these two participants to videotape their classroom for an entire day in order for me to observe their practice for a similar duration of time as if I visited their classroom. Shortly after teachers completed their recording, I collected the video, viewed it, and took field notes as if I were conducting a live observation of their classroom. One limitation to this approach was that being present in their classrooms likely would have provided me with a clearer perspective on how teachers interacted with students and personnel outside of their classrooms (e.g., in hallways, lounges, yard). Mr. Sand, for example, stood by his door at the beginning of every class period and the recording was unable to pick up conversations he had with students.

Additionally, Mr. Sand and Ms. Babkin both had abbreviated second field visit recordings on account of a shortened school day and video technical difficulties, respectively. This prevented observation of what occurred towards the end of the field visit day. For Mr. Sand, he mentioned that this was not particularly problematic because he had one class that was unrelated to his subject-area content (a college preparation course) but video of this class could have provided some insight

into how he related to students in a more informal instructional setting. For Ms. Babkin, she mentioned students were a little more disruptive in the afternoon, on average, so not having the end of day recording prevented me from seeing how she managed students during difficult times. Despite these limitations, I was able to capture how these two teachers managed the classroom throughout the majority of two full school days.

Immediately following each field visit or viewing of full day video, I wrote formal observation memos based upon my field notes. I converted my notes into a descriptive narrative of the teacher's management experience throughout the day, emphasizing central themes and occurrences.

Observation-linked interviews. I also informally interviewed teachers throughout field visits to learn more about their context, the intent and reported frequency of certain classroom management strategies that they used, and how they learned to implement those strategies. I would ask these questions to the teacher throughout the day as their schedules permitted (Horvat, 2013; Hatch, 2002). Examples of questions included, "Why did you implement that strategy?" and "How did you feel like you managed the classroom today?" Often, I was only able to interview the teacher for a couple of minutes at a time, though, several teachers provided an extended amount of time for an informal interview—approximately 20 minutes—during lunch or at the end of the day. I would take notes to summarize the main contents of the conversation immediately after interviewing the teacher. I then integrated information from these interview notes into my field observation memos (see prior section).

For Mr. Sand and Ms. Babkin, I wrote questions to ask the teacher based on my observation of their recording, and within a week of each field visit self-recording, I conducted an hour-long, in-person, semi-structured interview. While I was unable to talk to teachers in their context and immediately following their teaching, these interviews allowed for in depth conversations about classroom management, linked to observations of their classroom management. This difference in collected data may have influenced the teacher's precise recollection of actions but I tried to account for this limitation through the extended amount of time and interview prompting devoted to solely discussing their classroom management. Nonetheless, there could be differences between case participants in how they discussed classroom management actions based on this data source.

Video recordings of teaching practice. Case participants video recorded themselves teaching during three different waves: one week each in February, in April, and in June. For each "wave" of video recording, teachers self-recorded the same class period, approximately one hour

long, every day for a week. Teachers set up a recording device (i.e., phone, laptop, video recorder) in the back of the room to obtain a student perspective of the teacher (Derry et al., 2007). Recordings focused on teachers' actions to capture what they said and did to manage the classroom and provided observational data to triangulate with self-reported data from interviews and surveys.

The two secondary math teachers chose their most challenging classes because these classes required more frequent use of classroom management. I asked the third secondary teacher, Mr. Frank, to record his only math class, and Ms. Babkin to capture her math instruction for her elementary students, thus holding subject area constant as much as possible. Ms. Chatman was the only teacher who did not teach math so she focused on writing and reading instruction for every recording, one content area she consistently taught in a whole group setting (as compared to a small group setting). While subject area (in regards to classroom management) is not a focus of this study, I recognize that subject area could result in differences in how teachers manage the classroom, as described earlier.

In order to reduce the amount of transcription for all video recordings, I focused on data pertinent to this study and transcribed only segments of video that I considered to be instances of classroom management (Derry et al., 2007). Because there was no definitive rubric for categorizing classroom management actions in the existing literature, my process of identifying classroom management instances was informed by my review of the literature, definition of classroom management, and conceptual framework. That is, I created criteria to identify observed actions that appeared to maintain classroom order, facilitate student engagement, and/or promote socio-emotional development. This process of transcription could impact the reliability of an observed classroom management action by including teacher actions that traditionally may not be considered, such as actions that facilitate student engagement and/or promote socio-emotional development. However, I used a low level of inference to determine why teachers used an action and coded all management actions, whether they were "successful" or not, to identify the range of actions that beginning teachers used to manage the classroom instead of solely focusing on successfully implemented strategies.

Criteria for maintaining classroom order included when a teacher tried to control student (mis)behavior or the noise level of the classroom to meet the teacher's expectation of appropriate behavior. For instance, teachers could use any number of phrases to tell students to be quiet or use gestures to get students sit down in their seat. Criteria for facilitating student engagement included actions to get students to do their work, pay attention to the lesson, and interact positively with the

content and with one another. These actions were generally directed at a misbehaving student, a seemingly unengaged student, or the whole classroom. For instance, a teacher could tell a student to get back to work or call on a distracted student to answer a question. Actions to facilitate student engagement were often reactive, which were separate from prepared strategies that teachers may have used to create their lesson (e.g., designing an activity). Finally, promoting socio-emotional development often included teachers bringing personal information into the classroom, whether from the teacher sharing personal stories or finding opportunities to learn about their students. Additionally, it included signs of affection or bonding with students, such as telling jokes or giving hugs, as well as finding ways for students to positive interact with one another.

These descriptions guided how I identified instances of classroom management in the videos, which I systematically reviewed twice. In my initial review of all videos, I transcribed verbatim teachers' verbal classroom management statements, including contextual information as necessary. For example, I transcribed the statement from Mr. Sand when he said to a student who was standing, "Alright, [student name] have a seat. [Student name] have a seat, now" (Video Recording, February 10, 2014). Generally, I focused on the content of what teachers said rather than how they said the statement unless their tone was obviously manipulated to get student attention (e.g., they yelled at students to get them quiet). In my second systematic data review, I focused on non-verbal behaviors and used a low level of inference to verify whether teachers intentionally implemented these actions for classroom management purposes, again informed by my definition of classroom management. One example of a non-verbal action that I identified: "Ms. Chatman is in front of the room modeling appropriate student behavior with her back straight and hands crossed" (Video Recording, March 6, 2014). Ms. Chatman did not say anything but her actions suggested that she non-verbally managed student behavior by showing them the appropriate student body posture that they should mimic.

After I completed preliminary analyses and transcribed these classroom management segments, I organized the information from the first two passes of data into narrative memos that described how the class progressed. These textual memos were similar to the field visit memos. This allowed observational memos (from both field visits and video recordings) to have a standard form whether I was able to physically visit their classrooms or viewed their classroom practice through video.

Though I encouraged case participants to record five times for each wave, I received an average of three video recordings per participant in each wave. The one exception was Mr. Frank,

who was unable to record any of his classes during the final wave due to end of the year school-wide activities. This meant I was unable to see how he managed his classroom near the completion of the school year, potentially limiting the amount of change in his classroom management over time.

Classroom management journal. As an alternative to researcher-generated ideas, I asked teachers to maintain a classroom management journal as a source of teacher-generated ideas (Johnstone, 1994). At the end of each day that teachers video recorded their classrooms, they filled out an online survey, shown in Appendix F.

I asked teachers to report strategies that they used throughout that day, providing some indication of how they viewed classroom management strategies. For each strategy they described, they were asked to describe why it was used, whether they believed it worked, and how they knew if it worked or not. I also included an open-ended section for teachers to submit reflections from that day about their classroom and students to provide additional contextual information as necessary. I used each entry to complement observational data with self-reported reflections. Journal entries were stored on Qualtrics by date of submission. I transferred these entries onto one combined Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to create a journal dataset.

Unfortunately, teachers often had difficulty remembering to journal every day throughout a wave, despite me reminding them at least twice prior to each wave about completing journals, making overall participant completion of journals low. Teachers had so many after-school responsibilities, including lesson planning for the following day, that they often forgot to complete the journal at the end of the day despite multiple requests from me. The limited number of journals resulted in less data on teachers' self-reported actions. However, from the journals I did receive, I was able to gather some insight into teachers' thoughts about their classroom management actions.

Data Analysis

In this section, I discuss the methods I used to analyze the data; Figure 3.1 details the analytical processes that I engaged in to explore the collected programmatic and case participant data in order to answer my research questions (dashed outlining). I begin by explaining how most data sources (solid outlining) were categorized into classroom management idea units to start my analysis (dotted outlining). Then, I detail my process of creating a coding rubric and applied these codes in order to find patterns from the data. Afterwards, I discuss how I analyzed the coded survey data to identify relationships and changes in patterns of data. Finally, I explain how I used analytic memos

to explore the coded case participant data and provide representations of teachers' classroom management experiences.

Figure 3.1: Flow Chart Connecting Data Sources with the Type of Analyses and Research Questions
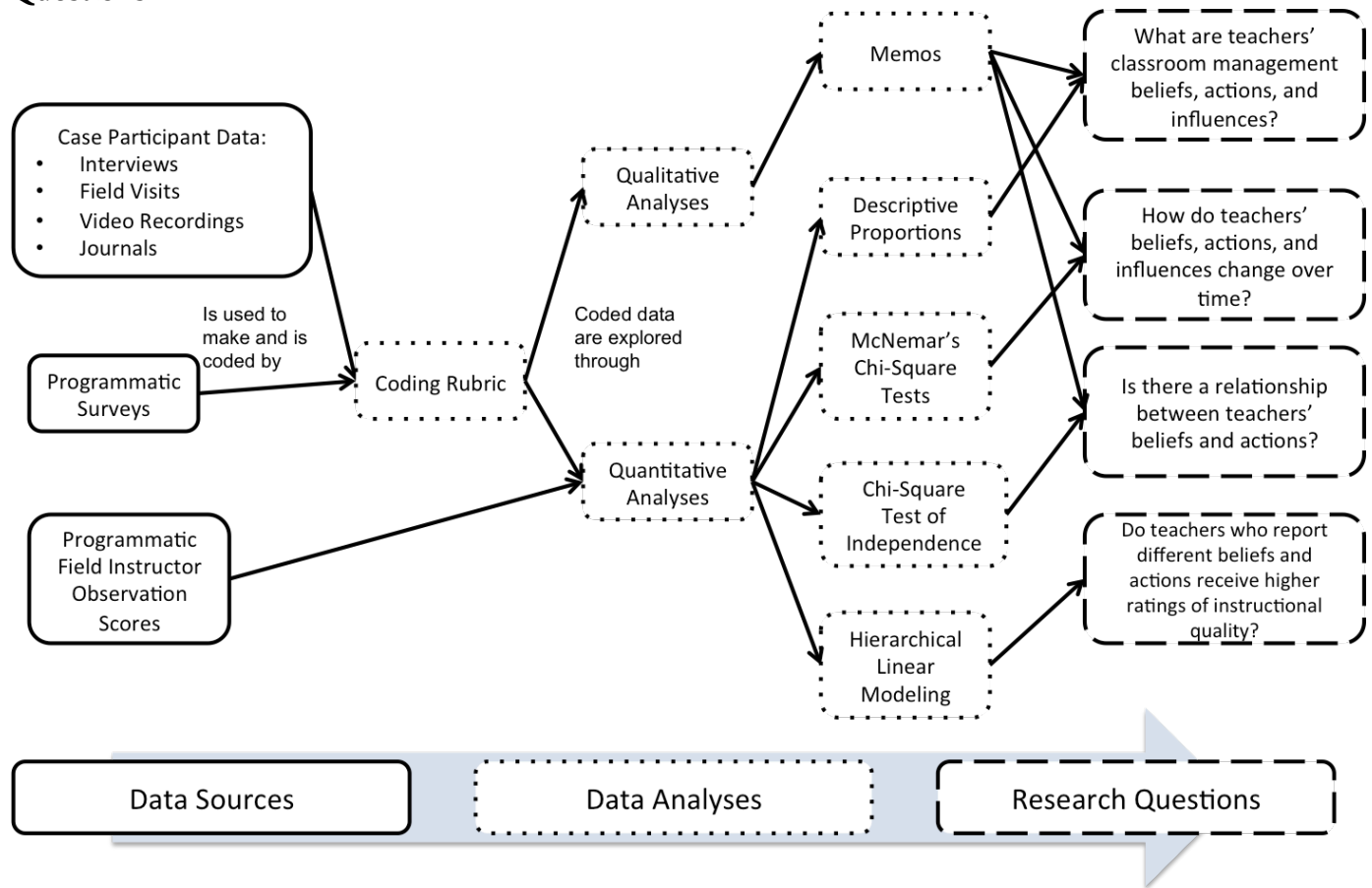
Categorizing classroom management idea units. Differences between classroom management beliefs, actions, and influence required that I analyze each construct separately. I created three separate units of analysis—belief units, action units, and influence units—and coded/analyzed each separately.

Classroom management belief units. I defined a belief as a teacher's idea about what he/she thought classroom management was, the impact it had on the classroom, or how they approached classroom management in their classes. Belief units were only taken from data sources where teachers could express their beliefs, such as interviews and surveys. I bounded belief units by the distinct ideas about classroom management, which could range in size from a portion of a sentence to several paragraphs of transcript, though I generally held belief units in the context of the

53

interview and survey question. For example, if teachers talked about one belief, changed subjects briefly, and returned to the same belief within one response, I categorized that response as one belief unit. However, if teachers changed the topic of their belief within their interview response, I categorized separate belief units for each idea. Segmenting the data in this manner allowed me to capture the complete idea of what the teacher discussed. However, as I describe later, I also allowed for multiple coding of belief units to capture some of the nuance lost in coding belief units from a larger grain size.

Classroom management action units. I identified action units as observable or self-reported behaviors that teachers used in the classroom, including verbal and non-verbal behaviors that the teacher used to manage an individual student or the whole classroom. Although my study does not focus on the differences between teachers' observed and self-reported actions, I decided to draw this distinction in my coding because some actions that teachers reported using in their interviews were not always seen in the classroom. To consider these distinctions, I took into account the data source from which the action data came from: observed action units of teachers' classroom practice came from field visit notes and video recording field notes. For video recordings, I bounded action units by classroom management instance, described earlier in that data source. Self-reported action data came from surveys, interviews, and journals in which teachers reported the classroom management actions that they implemented. Teachers were asked to list one action on surveys but several teachers provided multiple actions in which case I counted each action as a separate unit.

Classroom management influences units. I defined "classroom management influences" as factors (i.e. people, programs, and experiences) that teachers attributed to making a change in their own classroom management. The influence could have led to an improvement in the teacher's classroom management, a negative change as perceived by the teacher, or validated the teacher's practices to continue managing in a similar fashion. I segmented the data into separate units for each such factor that teachers identified. I primarily identified information about influences from surveys, which frequently only listed the source of the influence, and interviews, in which teachers expanded on how the influence impacted their beliefs and actions. Teachers rarely described influences on their management in journals; likewise, observational data rarely captured teachers making a change in response to external factors from my perspective.[8] I mostly had to depend upon self-reported

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[8] The one example of observing a classroom management influence was when I had the opportunity to sit in a meeting between Mr. Vante and his ACP field instructor during my field visit. I observed them talk about actions that Mr. Vante has changed since the field instructor's last observation (Field Note, March 18, 2014).

data to identify influences. For surveys, teachers were asked to list one influence but several teachers provided multiple influences. I counted each influence listed as a separate unit.

   Designating Time Periods. I assigned data into one of two time periods to measure how classroom management changed over time. I collected interviews, surveys, and field notes at two time points throughout the year so I created two time periods separating when those data were collected, shown in Table 3.5. This ensured that each time period included at least one set of data from each data source.

Table 3.5: Separation of Data By Time Period

Time Period	Month	Survey	Interview	Field Note	Recording	Journal
Time Period 1	September	Survey 1				
	October					
	November		Interview 1			
	December					
	January					
	February				Recording 1	Journal 1
	March			Field Note 1		
Time Period 2	April	Survey 2			Recording 2	Journal 2
	May			Field Note 2		
	June		Interview 2		Recording 3	Journal 3

   Due to teachers' time constraints, I collected the first wave of video recordings in February. Though later than I had initially hoped, I included these video recordings within the first time period because these data were the earliest record of instruction on video. This also ensured that each time period included at least one instance of data from each data source. Recording waves 2 and 3 were closer in time to the end of the academic year so these data were labeled as part of Time Period 2. I labeled journals that corresponded with these periods of recording with the same time period.

   One limitation to separating the data into two time periods is the limited amount of change that I may have seen from teacher actions over time. The collection of field notes and video recordings were not evenly spread out throughout the year as originally planned; rather, they were collected over the course of one semester. Because some of the data collected were relatively close together in time (e.g., Field Note 1 and Recording 2) yet separated in different time periods, the change in teacher actions, specifically, may not be as precisely represented as compared to beliefs and actions, which primarily came from surveys and interviews.

   Coding rubric. Once I processed all of the data into classroom management units—belief, action, or influence—I began creating a coding rubric. I started with a subset of data by selecting

two of each data source (i.e., interview, survey, field visit, video recording, journal), representing all case participants and both time periods. I then investigated each classroom management unit type (i.e., beliefs, actions, and influences) separately to identify codes within that unit type (Charmaz, 2014).

Creating codes. I started with beliefs, assuming it would be the most complex of the three data units and would inform the other codes. I used descriptive, or first-level, coding to create summarizing segments for each unit of data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This consolidated large pieces of data into more accessible information. Summaries were descriptive and required low amounts of inference. For example, take Mr. Vante's definition: "Classroom management is the way the classroom runs, its routines, the culture in the classroom, the interactions between the teacher and student, and students and students. Overall, I would say it's the way a classroom functions, the culture. With that culture comes discipline, rewards, and various interactions" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). From that belief unit, I created a summary code of "routines, culture, and interactions." I then looked across first-level codes for common themes to establish final codes. This required a higher level of inference, requiring me to discern common themes that cut across first-level codes and determine which codes were most conceptually relevant to my research questions (Charmaz, 2014). While I did not have a priori codes in mind throughout this stage of analysis, I cannot discount my understanding of the previous literature and how that could have informed the patterns I saw in the data. In fact, my review of the literature likely influenced how I interpreted the data and organized the codes as the final belief and action codes aligned with the main categories identified in my literature review and conceptual framework. For each final code, I created a title, definition, and found relevant exemplars. I compiled this information with the final codes to form an initial draft of the coding rubric. I repeated this process with action and influence units.

Checking for reliability and further revisions. I checked for inter-rater reliability at two points when creating my coding rubric to test if my analyses were producing consistent results and to identify any needed revisions to my codebook before applying codes to all data. An outside researcher and I checked for agreement on how we identified units of analysis and how we applied codes to these units.

I chose two pieces of data to code with the other researcher. We coded an entire interview first, representing the longest average data source in terms of document length, and a field visit memo, which represented an observational data source. For each piece of data, we independently

segmented the raw data into units of analyses, identifying beliefs, actions, and influences throughout the data sources (criteria used is shown in Appendix G). Throughout training, we compared our responses and discussed discrepancies that occasionally occurred in identifying beliefs (primarily from interviews). For example, the other researcher often separated units in the context of the entire interview question rather than separating units by idea, resulting in fewer, larger units. After discussion, we resolved to capture units by an idea regardless of the length of the interview response.[9] From our testing, we established a Cohen's kappa value of $\kappa=0.88$, which according to Landis and Koch (1977), is considered "almost perfect" in magnitude.

There were several limitations to this process for testing unit agreement. One limitation was that we were only able to test one field visit memo and one interview transcript. It is possible that we might have encountered more/different discrepancies testing the same data sources from other case participants but because of time constraints and strong levels of initial agreement, we did not review other data. Another limitation was that we did not test for unit agreement across all types of data sources, also due to time constraints. I anticipate journals and surveys would have few discrepancies because teacher responses tended to be short and ideas often were framed within a response. However, in retrospect, it probably would have been wise to test for unit agreement on video data, as this could have offered additional clarity in defining an action unit of analysis.

The other researcher and I then used check-coding to edit the clarity of the coding categories, titles, and definitions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I initially spent time training the other researcher on how to use the instrument, practicing on data units to get familiar with using the rubric. We experienced little difficulty reaching agreement when coding journals, surveys, and interviews, indicating the ease of applying codes to belief and influence units. However, there were some discrepancies while coding field visits and video recordings, suggesting the difficulty of applying action codes. For example, the other researcher and I did not always agree on the difference between behavioral and academic actions, specifically whether teachers used an action to get students quiet to uphold rules (e.g., "be quiet") or to reengage student in content (e.g., "get back to work"). We discussed disagreements and made clarifications to these two codes, revising the codebook and code application method before testing for inter-rater reliability. Once training was

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[9] For instance, Ms. Babkin provided the interview response, "I think a lot of it comes down to the teacher to be honest. The teacher not knowing them well enough to know how to manage them. Or students that have severe issues can project their need for attention to the teacher or onto their classmates" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). I separated this response into two units of analysis (the first two sentences separate from the third sentence) whereas the other researcher originally considered this as one unit of analysis.

completed, we tested the rubric on one piece of each data source, establishing a Cohen's kappa value of κ=0.67, which is considered "substantial" in magnitude (Landis & Koch, 1977).

The final coding rubric is summarized in Table 3.6; an expanded version of the coding rubric including the first-level codes used to make up the final codes is shown in Appendix H. The final coding rubric includes nine codes across three categories. There were three codes about classroom management beliefs: beliefs about managing for student learning of content (academic), beliefs about managing a safe environment through relationships (relational), and beliefs about setting up classrooms systems for student behavior (behavioral). These were the three most prominent beliefs that were relevant to how teachers conceptualized classroom management and its impact on the classroom. Within actions, there were three codes about how teachers managed the classroom: managing students through academic content (academic), managing student behavior (behavioral), and relationship building practices (relational). Rather than write out these lengthy descriptors, for brevity's sake I henceforth refer to these simply as "behavioral," "academic," and "relational" beliefs and actions. Given that these shorthand labels are quite general, it is important for the reader to bear in mind that all refer to beliefs and actions specific to classroom management. A "behavioral belief," for example, refers to a belief about setting up classroom systems to monitor student behavior in the context of classroom management and should not be confused with a belief about behavior, broadly speaking, or a behaviorist belief.

The final section of the coding rubric about influences on classroom management included codes for programmatic supports, school personnel, and classroom experiences. Programmatic support included ACP and CERT field and seminar instructors as well as the ACP summer training. School personnel were people within the school that assisted teachers to develop in classroom management (e.g., administration) while classroom experience meant learning about how to manage the classroom from students.

Table 3.6: Simplified Final Coding Rubric

Code	Simplified Definition	Example
Classroom Management Beliefs		
1) Beliefs About Managing for Student Learning of Content	The importance of classroom management in helping students to learn about content and/or using academic content to manage student behavior.	"Classroom management is the ability to manage student behavior toward productive, curricular tasks."
2) Beliefs About Managing a Safe Classroom Environment Through Relationships	Creating a safe, orderly, and organized classroom environment is important for building relationships in the classroom.	"I think it's crucial to have a safe environment, a well-run classroom…. If you have good classroom management, you have a welcoming environment, a safe room for all kids."
3) Belief About Setting Up Classroom Systems to Monitor Student Behavior	Setting up and enforcing different types systems, or more specifically the types of consequences, procedures, incentives, and rules.	"What it takes to get there, maybe it's the aspect of that the beginning of the year tightening things up. Not ever standing for that, if I'm talking and your talking then there is no place for you in this classroom."
Classroom Management Actions		
4) Managing Students Through Academic Content	Prepared activities or individual actions that teachers use to facilitate student learning of content.	"[Student name] since you're talking, you volunteered. What does the y-intercept mean?"
5) Managing Student Behavior	Actions that gain the class or student's attention and how they should act in the classroom	"You just need to be quiet and on task."
6) Relationship Building Practices	Practices that teachers use to help to get to know students more or ways to individually work with and relate to students.	"I spent time getting to know my kids personally, having lunch with them, visiting their houses, [and] writing them letters."
Classroom Management Influences		
7) Programmatic Training and Support	Support and specific advice given from ACP or CERT personnel, ACP institute, or ACP-FI.	"I must've seen it somewhere at one of the ACP teacher trainings. Thought it would be a good way for classroom control at the beginning of the year."
8) School Personnel	Administration, instructional coaches, and colleagues.	"My curriculum coordinator did a lot. She helped me to build up positive feedback and stuff. Positive rewards, systems."
9) Classroom Experiences	Learning from and adjusting practices from students or classes.	"[This student] is one where we did a lot of different things. When I think about him I think about needing to give something more time when I'm trying it out. We tried a lot of different behavior plans with him."

After finalizing the rubric, I then applied codes to all of the data. I started by coding belief units, then action units and finally, influence units. For each unit, I allowed multiple codes to be applied when necessary. Allowing for multiple coding was particularly important when coding belief units, as teachers often gave long and complex explanations about how they understood classroom management. Multiple coding allowed for the different aspects of classroom management within each unit to be captured while maintaining contextual information within each unit.

After I coded all of the data, I was ready to further analyze the coded data in order to address my research questions. In the following section, I explain how I quantitatively analyzed the programmatic data (i.e. programmatic surveys and field instructor scores) and then how I used the process of memoing to qualitatively analyze the case participant data (i.e. interviews, field notes, video recordings, and journals).

Programmatic data analyses. I used a variety of quantitative techniques to further analyze the survey data. I first analyzed survey responses to describe the proportion of each belief, action, and influence code across and within teachers. I also investigated whether or not these proportions changed over time. I then tested whether or not there is any statistical dependence between teachers' beliefs and actions. After these descriptive analyses, I used hierarchical linear modeling to determine whether or not classroom management beliefs and actions were predictive of teaching quality, as measured by observational evaluations. Together, these quantitative techniques shed light on any trends of teachers' classroom management experience throughout CERT. I describe each technique in detail below.

Proportions of belief, action, and influence codes. I calculated the proportions of belief, action, and influence codes in two ways: across all teachers and within each teacher. First, using survey responses across all teachers, I created dummy variables indicating the presence (1) or absence (0) of each belief, action, and influence code from the rubric. I calculated the proportion of responses for each code relative to all other codes of the same type. For example, I calculated the proportion of behavioral belief codes for all participants relative to the total number of belief codes reported on the survey. I performed the same analysis for the action and influence codes. Taken together, these proportions describe how commonly this group of teachers reported different kinds of beliefs, actions, and influences throughout the year.

I also calculated the proportions of teachers across both of their survey responses to determine whether teachers conceptualized classroom management using multiple beliefs or not, and if so, what beliefs did teachers express. I first created a variable representing a teacher and his/her composite beliefs across both surveys. This nominal variable indicated whether or not a teacher responded on either of his/her surveys the presence or absence of each belief. For instance, a teacher who reported a behavioral belief in the first survey and an academic belief in the second survey had a behavioral and academic belief profile. This represented the collective beliefs that a teacher shared throughout the year. I then calculated the proportion of teachers with similar belief profiles over the total number of teachers. For example, I calculated the proportion of teachers who

reported a behavioral and academic belief on any of their survey responses relative to the total number of teachers. I conducted similar analyses with teacher actions and influences.

Although every teacher within the analytic sample completed the survey, several teachers did not complete each open-ended question. As a result, I limited the analytical sample only to teachers that completed these questions in both beginning and end of the year surveys. Of the 87 respondents who completed both programmatic surveys, 47 teachers wrote an answer for the beliefs question, 58 for actions, and 52 for influences. Appendix I shows the proportion of demographic characteristics of each sub-sample compared to the analytic sample. I used a series of one-way t-tests to indicate whether or not the sub-sample was representative of the full sample on these measured characteristics: each sub-sample represented the analytic sample.

Changes in proportions of codes over time. I conducted a series of McNemar's chi-square tests to determine if the distributions of classroom management beliefs and actions changed throughout the year. This test allowed me to measure if the mean proportion of one code (e.g., academic beliefs) statistically changes from the beginning to the end of the year. I conducted this test for each code across all teachers.

Relationship between belief and action codes. I used a series of chi-square tests of independence to calculate whether teachers who used certain kinds of classroom management actions also held similar kinds of beliefs. This tests the null hypothesis that corresponding beliefs and actions are statistically independent of one other. For example, I tested whether reporting relational beliefs was independent of reporting relational actions, on average. I calculated similar tests for each corresponding belief and action.

Hierarchical linear modeling. I used 3-level hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to determine whether classroom management beliefs and actions were predictive of teaching quality. I used this model to estimate a teacher's observational evaluation score (as rated by field instructors) as a function of her/his management beliefs and actions (as measured on her/his survey responses). I modeled time of the observational evaluation at Level 1, teacher characteristics at Level 2, and an indicator for the field instructor at Level 3. Analysis of intra-class correlations (ICC) justified the use of a three-level model, as surveys and teachers accounted for 6 percent and 26 percent of the variation in the outcome, respectively. The equation that summarizes these models is:

$$CERT\_Score_{efg} = \alpha + \beta tch\_chars_{fg} + \gamma_g + r_{fg} + u_{efg}$$

In this model, the CERT field instructor evaluation score (*CERT_Score*) during observation *e*, for teacher *f*, by field instructor *g*, is a function of a vector of fixed intercepts (α), a vector of time-invariant teacher characteristics (*tch_chars$_{fg}$*), a vector for the field instructor that evaluates the teacher (*fieldinstructor$_g$*), and mutually independent random intercepts associated with the field instructor (γ$_g$), teacher (*r$_{fg}$*), and the observation (*u$_{efg}$*).

CERT_score is a continuous variable indicating the mean scores of a teacher evaluation from a field instructor. For each observation, field instructors rated teachers on a scale of 0 to 3 on six program outcomes, which were then averaged to create the total evaluation score used as the dependent variable in these analyses. Teachers were evaluated twice during the year.

Teacher characteristics (*tch_chars*) include dummy variables representing the presence (or absence) of each type (academic, relational, behavioral) of classroom management beliefs and actions by teacher for every survey response. I tested each individual belief and action in separate models prior to including all beliefs and actions in my final model. The estimates contained within β represent the relationship between classroom management beliefs and actions and teachers' evaluation score. In alternative models, I created a composite measure of beliefs by measuring whether or not a teacher's response to the belief question for each survey consisted of the presence of all beliefs; a similar composite measure was created for actions. I then estimated models containing these two composite measures. I also included a dummy variable for the teacher's grade level (whether the teacher taught in a secondary classroom or not) as a teacher characteristic.

Three teachers out of the 87 participants in the analytic sample did not have evaluation scores. However, these teachers did not share field instructors and comprised a small portion of the analytic sample, so I treated these data as randomly missing and did not impute values. The analytical sample size for these models was 168, representing the remaining 84 teachers with two evaluation scores each. After theorizing these models, I used the *xtmixed* command in Stata 13 to estimate the multilevel mixed-effects linear regression models.

Case participant analyses. Though I took a primarily qualitative approach to analyze the data from the five case participants (e.g., interviews, field notes), I began with quantitative descriptive statistics of code frequencies. I calculated proportions of the case participant data units to determine how frequently case participants, as a group and as individuals, expressed beliefs, used actions, or reported influences. These analyses provided descriptive information about the frequencies of different kinds of beliefs and actions but not their qualities. To investigate the latter, I engaged in a different, iterative process of organizing the data, reviewing key themes, and generating

analytic memos. Specifically, I created three types of analytic memos to examine the data from three angles: memos in which I explored the meaning of each type of code (beliefs, actions, influences), memos exploring the relationship between beliefs and actions, and memos in which I explored how the quality of codes changed over time. I elaborate on each of these analyses below.

Case participant proportions. I calculated proportions to identify the frequency of case participants' beliefs, actions, and influences. I investigated codes at two levels: the average distribution of codes for all case participants and the average distribution of codes by case participant. In both cases, I analyzed across data sources (e.g., interviews, field notes).

Mean proportions for all case participants. First, I looked at the distributions of coding categories to get a general idea of the kinds of beliefs, actions, and influences that were more or less common across case participants as a group. For example, I calculated the frequency of behavioral belief codes relative to all beliefs in order to identify how often teachers talked about behavioral aspects of the classroom when sharing a belief. This was calculated for all codes using all data sources.

Second, I calculated code distributions at each time period to compare whether the distributions changed over time. The percentage of behavioral beliefs during Time Period 1 relative to all beliefs during Time Period 1 was calculated separately from the percentage of behavioral beliefs in Time Period 2 relative to all beliefs during Time Period 2, for example.

Individual case participant level proportions. After establishing group trends across case participants, I repeated a similar process for each case participant separately. I gathered all data (from all sources) related to a given teacher and then calculated code distributions for that teacher. I repeated this for the other teachers. These distributions provided insight into the beliefs, actions, and influences of each case participant and how they compared to other participants. They also helped to determine whether certain case participants were driving any trends observed at the aggregate level.

I also separated codes by individual case participant at each time period to determine how case participants may have changed in their beliefs, actions, and influences over time. This allowed me to view, for example, whether or not Mr. Vante's behavioral beliefs at Time Period 1 and his behavioral beliefs at Time Period 2 noticeably differed.

Analytic memos. After I coded all of the data, I created three types of memos, described below. My process of memoing was informed by Miles and Huberman (1994) and included a cyclical process of explanation, reduction, displaying, and verification to interpret the data.

Memos about beliefs, actions, and influences. The first set of memos I created were guided by the research question, "What were teachers' classroom management beliefs?" I compiled the coded belief data for all case participants in the aggregate and reviewed the data pertaining to one belief code at a time, jotting notes throughout that process. I wrote down my thoughts about the data, any themes or patterns that I may have noticed, and incorporated key evidence to support my emerging argument. I did this process of reviewing and writing for each belief code.

Then, I looked across notes on each belief code to find relevant relationships, writing thoughts about how case participants, as a group, conceptualized classroom management. To help me track connections and over-arching themes across teacher beliefs, I created data displays to illustrate these connections between the types of beliefs. Often, these were tree diagrams connecting the types of beliefs teachers had in a hierarchical fashion (figures are shown throughout my findings in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5). I created separate memos for classroom management actions and influences using the same process. An excerpt of a belief memo is shown in Appendix J.

Memos about the relationship between beliefs and actions. After exploring case participants' beliefs, actions, and influences, I focused on the question, "What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and actions?" I organized the belief and action codes by case participant to see how one teacher may or may not have had similar beliefs and actions. I created vignettes as brief, descriptive narratives of each case participant as a classroom manager, incorporating characteristic beliefs and actions within her/his classroom context (Miles & Huberman, 1994). From these vignettes, I was better able to view and investigate the alignment (or misalignment) of a teacher's beliefs and actions. I repeated this process of creating a vignette and comparing beliefs with actions for each case participant.

Once I wrote about all case participants, I analyzed across vignettes and generated cross-case analytic memos. I used the case participant vignettes as well as the frequency distributions at the case participant level (described earlier) to write about common patterns across teachers. Specifically, I wrote about common patterns in how beliefs and actions aligned or did not align across teachers. A summary excerpt of a memo exploring the relationship between the beliefs and actions is shown in Appendix K.

Memos about beliefs, actions, and influences over time. The last set of memos I created was guided by the research question, "How do teachers' classroom management beliefs change over time?" I wrote a memo for each case participant, separating data by time period. I wrote about similarities and differences of the data between time periods, incorporating relevant evidence that best

64

exemplified how the case participant changed over time. I used the same process of investigating codes by time period to create separate memos for each case participant. I include an excerpt of a memo analyzing the beliefs of one teacher over time in Appendix L.

After exploring each case participant over time, I investigated patterns across case participants. Beginning with teachers' beliefs over time, I looked across the memos of all five case participants, identifying and writing about whether or not there were similar patterns in how case participants changed their beliefs. I then created similar memos for actions and influences.

Data Analysis Summary

I quantitatively analyzed programmatic data to establish a broader perspective on the beliefs, actions, and influences of all first year CERT teachers and to measure whether certain teacher characteristics are associated with teaching quality. Additionally, I used a combination of quantitative and qualitative analyses to examine case participants' classroom management experiences from multiple angles. These analyses complement the programmatic data by providing exemplars of classroom management beliefs, actions, and influences. In the next chapter, I detail the findings about teachers' beliefs and actions, first, and then in the chapter following, I describe findings about influences on teachers' beliefs and actions.

Chapter 4: Classroom Management Beliefs and Actions Findings

Introduction

In this findings chapter, I focus on classroom management beliefs and actions that characterized CERT teachers' first year of teaching. Analysis of the survey and case participant data shed light on classroom management from two distinct perspectives. Quantitative patterns provided an overview of teachers' beliefs and reported actions while in depth descriptions from the qualitative data gave a more detailed look at beliefs and actions among a subset of teachers. First, I describe three aspects of classroom management that teachers reported about throughout the year and how CERT teachers' conceptualization of classroom management shifted over time. Second, I discuss the three types of classroom management actions that teachers reported throughout the year and how teachers' refined their actions over time. Third, I investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and actions, distinguishing here between teachers who emphasized relationships in their beliefs and actions compared to those who focused more on student behavior and academic content. Lastly, I investigate the relationships between teachers' management beliefs and actions and observational evaluations of their teaching.

What Are Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs?

As summarized in Figure 4.1, there were three main types of beliefs that teachers often conveyed when conceptualizing classroom management. Investigating teachers' beliefs throughout their first year indicated that they tended to consider student behavior (behavioral), academic content (academic), and building relationships (relational) as part of managing classrooms. Their behavioral beliefs revolved around the need to establish and consistently enforce systems to guide students' behavioral actions. Teachers' academic beliefs involved using academic content as a means for managing classrooms and building learning environments where teachers could instruct. Regarding relational beliefs, teachers tended to focus on establishing an environment where students feel safe and utilizing student relationships to facilitate and adapt classroom management. For each type of belief, below I present quantitative analyses of the full sample of CERT teachers to illustrate

broad trends through their programmatic surveys (programmatic analyses) and then use case participant data to provide rich descriptions of central themes related to each type of belief (case participant analyses).

Figure 4.1: Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs
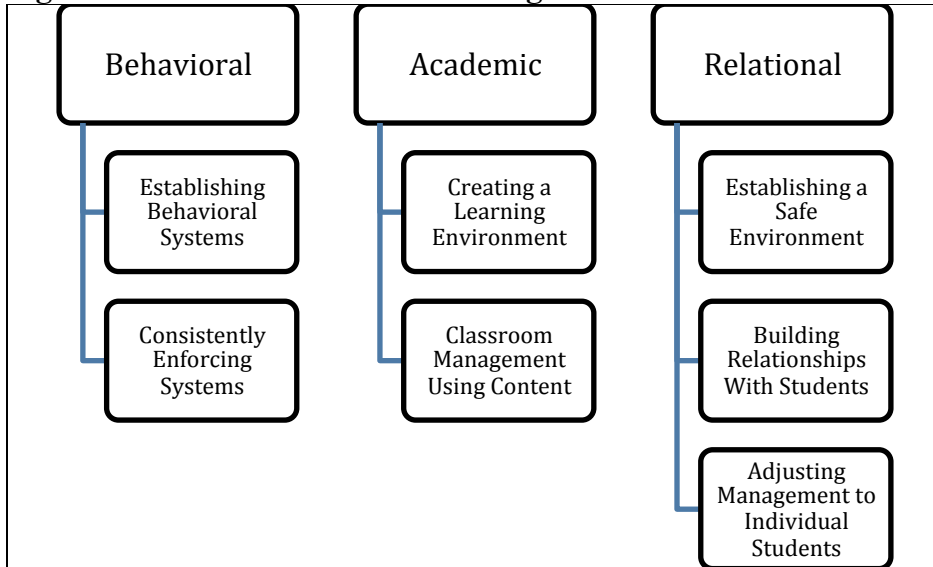
Programmatic analyses. As shown in Table 4.1, survey data indicate that most teachers reported behavioral and academic beliefs about managing classrooms while relational beliefs were less prominent. From one question asking teachers to state their definitions of classroom management in the beginning and the end of the year surveys, 83 percent of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys conceptualized classroom management in terms of behaviors, 91 percent in terms of academics, and 52 percent in terms of relationships. High proportions of teachers for each belief indicate that each teacher, on average, had multiple beliefs represented in their description of classroom management.

Table 4.1: Summary of Teachers' Beliefs From Survey Data (n=87)

Variable	Proportion of Teachers (Std. Dev.)
Behavioral Beliefs	0.83 (0.38)
Academic Beliefs	0.91 (0.29)
Relational Beliefs	0.52 (0.50)

Note: Proportions sum greater than 1.00 because teachers could share multiple beliefs per open-ended response. 87 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys.

Figure 4.2 shows the distribution of beliefs among only those individuals who provided complete responses for survey questions about beliefs (n=56). This allowed me to investigate the distribution of beliefs that each teacher reported across two time points (surveys). Of the teachers that completed the question about how they defined classroom management on both programmatic surveys, two teachers reported behavioral beliefs only across both surveys, three reported academic beliefs only, three reported academic and relational beliefs, 18 reported academic and behavioral beliefs, and 30 reported all three types of beliefs. No individuals reported only relational beliefs; in fact, out of the 33 individuals who reported relational beliefs, all of them also reported academic beliefs and all but three also reported behavioral beliefs.

Figure 4.2: Frequency of Types of Beliefs By Respondent (n=56)
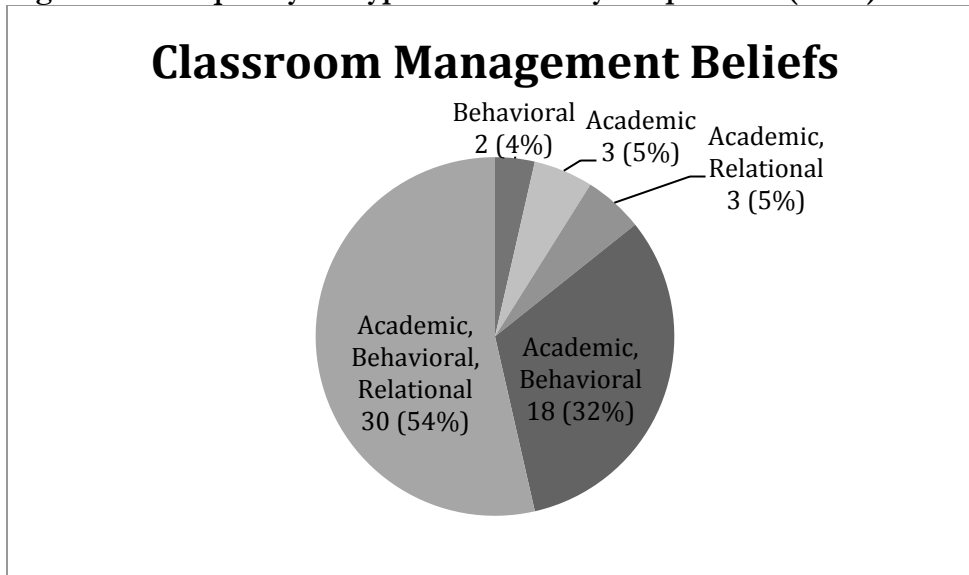
Note: 56 teachers denote the number of teachers who provided a complete answer for the question about beliefs on both programmatic surveys.

Over 90 percent of teachers provided a response that indicated the presence of more than one type of management belief, suggesting that beginning teachers tended to have multi-dimensional conceptions of classroom management. Most commonly, teachers paired academics with behavioral beliefs, representing approximately 86 percent of teachers in the sample. Less than ten percent of subjects conceptualized classroom management according to one category only, and no respondents reported only relational beliefs. Compared to behavioral and academic beliefs, relational beliefs were relatively less common (59 percent of teachers reported), thus, a possible distinction between teachers, especially given the prior literature that suggested that teachers with relational-oriented beliefs might be more effective. As I elaborate below, teachers who incorporated relational beliefs

into their conceptualizations of classroom management differed from those who did not on a number of fronts.

        Case participant data. I analyzed case participants' beliefs separately, considering all information from the case participant data and survey responses. Table 4.2 summarizes the distribution of case participants' beliefs from all qualitative data to the distribution based only on survey data. Using only survey data (right side of Table 4.2), case participants conveyed very few relational beliefs (20 percent), and primarily reported behavioral (80 percent) and academic (100 percent) beliefs across both surveys, consistent with results from the full survey sample. However, when showing the proportion of belief units from the rich qualitative data (left side of Table 4.2), case participants tended to discuss all three types of beliefs evenly throughout their comments on influences. Teachers discussed behavioral, academic, and relational beliefs at 44, 40, and 42 percent of the time, respectively. These percentages indicate that case participants often talked about all three aspects of classroom management—behavior, academics, and relationships—when given the opportunity to expand their thoughts. Differences between these figures likely reveal that using only surveys may not capture the richness of teachers' beliefs and that gathering other forms of data is may be preferable. Teachers would primarily associate classroom management with behavioral and academic aspects of the classroom in brief survey responses but if they had the opportunity to think more thoroughly about classroom management, each aspect could emerge more equally.

Table 4.2: Summary of Teachers' Beliefs From Case Participant Data (n=5)

Variable	Proportion of Qualitative Belief Units (n=189)	Proportion of Survey Belief Units (n=10)
Behavioral Beliefs	0.44 (84)	0.80 (8)
Academic Beliefs	0.40 (75)	1.00 (10)
Relational Beliefs	0.42 (80)	0.20 (2)

Note: Proportions sum greater than 1.00 because units could be multiple coded. 189 qualitative belief units denote the number of total belief units from the case participant data. The sample of 5 represents all case participants, with the sample of 10 survey belief units representing the responses from both surveys from all case participants.

        Further investigating the proportion of belief units throughout the rich qualitative data by case participant indicates that the presence of relational beliefs seemed to differentiate case study participants as it did throughout the programmatic survey results. Figure 4.3 shows each case participant and the percentage of beliefs they shared, suggesting two teachers that prioritized relational beliefs and three teachers who did not. In almost 60 percent of their comments about classroom management beliefs, Ms. Babkin and Mr. Vante discussed relational beliefs while the other three case participants did so in no more than 24 percent of their comments. These

differences in how teachers talked about relationships in regards to classroom management suggest differences in how they conceptualized their roles as classroom managers.

Figure 4.3: Classroom Management Beliefs By Case Participant (n=5)
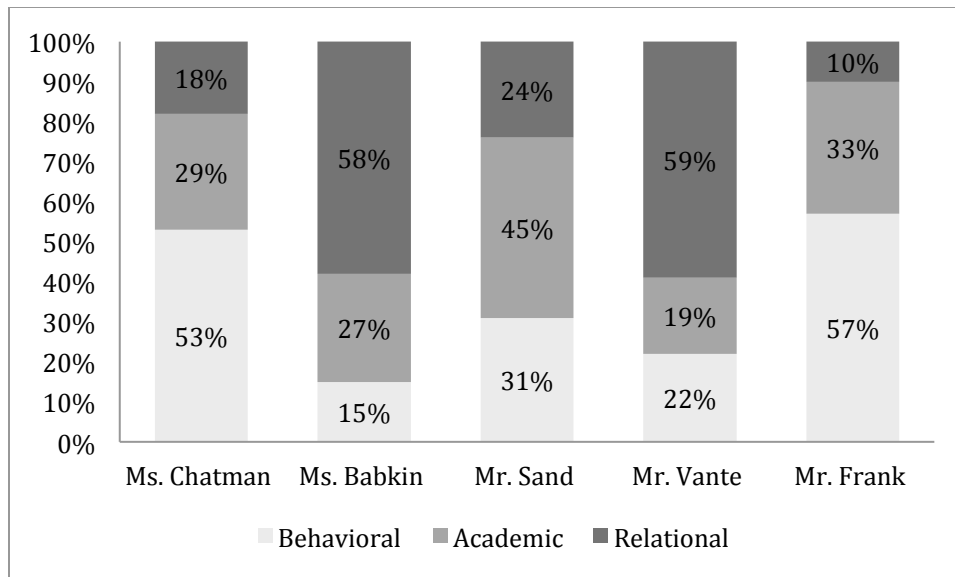
Note: The sample of 5 represents all case participants.

Thus far, quantitative analyses indicate that most teachers focused on behavior and academics when discussing classroom management but that teachers seem to vary in terms of whether they report relational beliefs. Next, I qualitatively explore each type of classroom management belief to provide a descriptive account of how case participants conceptualized classroom management throughout their first year of teaching.

Qualitative analysis. Behavioral, academic, and relational beliefs revealed different areas of importance that teachers considered when asked to conceptualize classroom management. Below, I describe each type of belief and common themes throughout case participants' descriptions.

Behavioral beliefs. Teachers often conveyed beliefs about classroom management that focused on controlling or organizing student behavior. These behavioral beliefs tended to focus on two themes: (1) the importance of establishing behavioral systems to preserve order and (2) consistently enforcing these systems; I elaborate on each below.

Establishing behavioral systems. Teachers described behavioral systems as structures to guide student behavior and included the implementation of procedures, expectations, rewards, and consequences. During one interview, Ms. Chatman described the importance of behavioral systems when she said, " If we set…our systems, our rules, our sets of consequences, our rewards, firmly,

then from there, everything will flow. It is the foundation, basically" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). She believed that these systems had to be established first so that the rest of the classroom would run smoothly from there forward. Other case participants echoed the importance of establishing behavioral systems, including Mr. Vante who similarly shared how these behavioral systems were the "groundwork and framework" of a classroom and should be established at the beginning of the year:

> The first two weeks of school that's probably all I worked on…rules, procedures, structure. I mean…if you can't get things accomplished, you can be the best teacher in the world at delivering material but if no one can hear you, understand you, fights going on, it just doesn't matter, right? You got to have the systems set in place. (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013)

He believed systems were necessary to institute at the beginning of the year because they set the foundation for how students were supposed to act within the classroom. Otherwise, he thought chaos would ensue and prevent meaningful work from occurring.

Behavioral systems guided students' actions and transformed a room with children into a classroom designed for students. As Ms. Babkin described: "Classroom management is a system that a teacher uses to maintain order in their classroom" (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013). Behavioral systems prevented the classroom from turning into disarray and helped with "managing behavior" (Survey, September 10, 2013). The term "managing behavior" was consistently used by other case participants, such as when Mr. Frank was at a loss of words to describe classroom management in any other way aside from the "only definition I can think of just states the word: managing behaviors" (Personal Interview, April 10, 2014). In general, case participants believed that the basis of managing a classroom must begin with structuring, or managing, student behavior.

Consistently enforcing systems. In addition to the importance of establishing behavioral systems, teachers felt that consistent reinforcement of these systems throughout the year was equally critical. For instance, Mr. Frank shared how he desired stable classroom management systems from the start of the year and did his best to maintain systems over time. He thought he had to use classroom management to regulate students' behavior as soon as they entered the classroom, so Mr. Frank established his "system from day one and [was] very consistent with that." He believed it was important to provide a regular routine and set of expectations. Mr. Frank further described in his interview response the critical aspects to his approach:

71

Having set procedures. Not deviating too far from those. When they walk into class, they have anywhere between 3-5 minutes to work on their "Do Now." On top of the "Do Now" on the [Powerpoint] slide, it says whether it's to be quiet or silent. They have a given amount of time. I count down by the minute. I have music playing; when the music is off, it's time to be silent and go to the "Do Now." Having that structure everyday. (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014)

Mr. Frank started his class the same every day using time, music, and explicit directions to reinforce what students should be doing. He thought establishing a routine—by giving them the same short amount of time to start the class work, turning off the music, and telling students exactly what they should be doing—emphasized the importance of consistency. He believed that if students knew what to expect, it would help to manage their behavior.

Like Mr. Frank, Mr. Sand also shared how students needed consistent routines:

One system that helped me a lot was having a consistent structure for class…. Having me introduce something for a very short amount of time, having them practice doing a problem on the whiteboard together in small groups and have them work on textbook problems. Having that be everything they do, I think building up a routine really helped with management. (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014)

Mr. Sand believed that routines helped students know what to expect and consistent structures helped to manage the classroom. Additionally, Mr. Sand warned about the likely consequences of being inconsistent about system enforcement. He believed that systems could fall apart if students were not upheld to the standard for which the systems were designed. Reflecting on his own experiences struggling with management, Mr. Sands explained, "Consistency. That's where I really lost it…. It was just like one kind of slipping point of inconsistency and then [I] became really inconsistent" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). He was lenient with one misbehaving student, which, he felt, resulted in other students expecting the same leniency, thus jeopardized the integrity of his systems. He shared how consistency was integral to effective classroom management but found it difficult to maintain within his classroom.

Academic beliefs. Teachers described academic beliefs, as they related to classroom management, in two ways. First, teachers described classroom management as the need to create an academic learning environment so teachers could teach without disruptions. Second, teachers explained how content could be used to manage the classroom because it engaged students in academics. Each academic belief is described separately below.

Creating a learning environment. Teachers believed a well-managed classroom was one that created an environment where students could learn academic subject matter. Managing student behavior created an orderly class and gave teachers the opportunity to teach and students to learn. That is, teachers consistently shared how classroom management had an impact on academic aspects of the classroom. For example, Mr. Sand shared how classroom management helped to facilitate instruction, explaining:

> If you don't have the management in place, it's [academic content] not going to have a place to sink in. On the counter side, even if your lessons are boring at first and even if you're struggling with those things, if you have good management, they'll sink in and you'll still have a chance, I imagine, to make it work. (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013)

Mr. Sand felt that, once an orderly classroom was established, teachers had a better chance to instruct. With disruptions limited, teachers could focus their effort and time on teaching content.

Likewise, Ms. Chatman, similar to the other case participants, emphasized that classroom management systems should be established so an academic learning environment could result. She said, "Classroom management is an essential prerequisite to student achievement…which is necessary for our students to succeed in their lives" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). She believed that disruptions needed to be limited, and, only then, could students engage in content and academically achieve.

Managing the classroom using content. While teachers explained how classroom management could impact student learning, teachers also expressed how they could use academic content to manage the classroom. Rather than control student behavior through systems, teachers shared how instruction could redirect an off-task student toward a productive academic task. Mr. Sand, for instance, explained how planning and instruction impacted student engagement. He thought "there are a lot of advanced elements to the lesson planning that could help with management: individualized instruction or differentiated instruction to help out students that get frustrated" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). To him, there was a connection between the types of learning activities teachers provide and how student behave. He felt that catering instruction to the student eased their frustrations and prevented opportunities for misbehavior.

Mr. Frank also believed instructional activities impacted classroom management. He talked about instructional differences that impacted how students behaved:

> The probability that a kid is going to goof off in the first five minutes of instruction is far lower than the following ten minutes. So if you can just do five minutes [of direct

instruction] like you can in math then you go on to independent work, in that case you don't have to be quite as strict. But if you give fifteen minutes of direct instruction and there is some time for kids to goof off in the last ten minutes then you need to have better systems in place to deal with that. (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014)

To Mr. Frank, the activity structure dictated how the classroom was managed. He believed misbehavior was more likely during whole class instruction whereas independent work made it easier to control students' behavior because it did not require holding every student's undivided attention.

Additionally, teachers indicated that a lesson's degree of academic difficulty also influenced classroom management. Mr. Sand spoke about the importance of presenting information at the appropriate level of difficulty to avoid student frustration; otherwise, students would disengage with material and be more likely to misbehave. Describing off-task behavior he had observed, Mr. Sand reflected, "For the most part what I saw is out of frustration when [students] didn't understand the material. They didn't want to engage with it or felt like they couldn't" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). He thought student misbehavior resulted from the curriculum being beyond students' abilities; students would disengage when encountering a concept that they did not understand, also increasing the possibility that they would distract other students. Mr. Sand did not seem to recommend diluting content; rather, he felt teachers needed to carefully plan material that was within students' grasp.

Relational beliefs. Although teachers typically focused on how student behavior and academic content related to classroom management, teachers also expressed the importance of managing relational aspects of the classroom. Their relational beliefs emphasized managing the classroom through a safe environment, building relationships with students, and adapting to individual student's needs.

Establishing a safe environment. Creating a safe environment for students to feel comfortable in the classroom was important to teachers. As one CERT survey responder explained, she wanted a space where there was "a sense of mutual respect and awareness in the classroom" (Teacher #85, Survey, May 15, 2014). Teachers seemed to agree that classroom management had great potential to make students feel valued as individuals and their ideas could be shared without fear of judgment. Rather than promote an independent environment, teachers embraced managing their classrooms through positive student-student and teacher-student interactions, creating a more communal environment.

Mr. Vante illustrated how safety was an integral part of classroom management through his descriptions of a well-managed and poorly managed classroom:

> If you have good classroom management, you have a welcoming environment, a safe room for all kids…. Some people that say management is number one, all they do is just yell and preach. Some kids respond well but others don't. But it screws up academics completely because once you [the student] shut down, you don't like somebody or because you just hate the way they [teachers] yell, or how they're picking on you, you're not going to learn algebra. (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014)

He believed there was a direct connection between classroom safety and whether learning could occur. Mr. Vante felt a comfortable atmosphere aided learning whereas an unwelcome environment with a strict or mean teacher could hinder learning. A class could be orderly in both situations, but Mr. Vante thought that the teacher had to do more than establish systems and focus on student behavior to promote learning: teachers should create a positive and warm environment to help students feel comfortable in the classroom so that students could engage in content.

Mr. Sand echoed the importance of safety in student learning, also describing how he considered student safety as one measure of effectiveness for his classroom management. Making sure students felt safe was a foundational aspect he articulated regarding classroom management: "I think it [classroom management] makes learning possible because if students aren't safe, they can't do anything" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). He believed that safety needed to be established, otherwise students who felt unsafe could not learn. Mr. Sand's understanding of safety may have been shaped by his classroom management experience, as he reflected how he was unable to establish a safe environment:

> I feel like I'm not a good [classroom] manager because of the results…. I'm judging based off the fact that my lesson plans are often disrupted. I don't feel like students feel safe in my classroom. I don't feel like I made it a comfortable or efficient space, wasted a lot of time trying to get attention or get respect. (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014)

Mr. Sand felt he did not establish a comfortable or respectful environment, resulting in limited student learning; effective classroom management required the teacher to establish a safe environment, which he struggled to achieve.

Building relationships with students. Teachers also described managing classrooms through building personal relationships with students and getting to know students as individuals. During

one interview, for example, Mr. Vante reflected on the connection between building relationships and classroom management:

> If I know how to interact and talk to somebody then I can get them to find that what I'm saying [is important] and really pay attention. But I guess that's part of management. If I know how to talk to somebody, that's me managing them. That's me putting my imprint on them and getting them to follow rules and procedures, which goes into relationships. So they're a little bit more integrated than I think. (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014)

He described integrating personal conversations with students alongside enforcing behavioral systems as part of classroom management. He believed that teachers needed to learn about and communicate with their students so that students would be more likely to listen and comply with behavioral systems. Establishing personal relationships, according to Mr. Vante, helped to more effectively manage the classroom.

Mr. Sand similarly explained how building relationships could be used to encourage student compliance with systems and to engage with instruction. He said he wanted to "build [classroom management] off of relationships and respect. Have my students perform for me because they know that I count on them and that I believe in them and that I am working for them" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). Mr. Sand believed that relationships built trust, which would make it easier for him and his students to work together in the classroom. He thought positive student interactions would help students to understand that he, as their teacher, was doing his best to help them academically succeed rather than appear as a barrier to their learning. Though expectations and consequences can often be interpreted as structures for teacher control, Mr. Sand hoped that, through relationships, students would feel more comfortable following academic and behavioral expectations.

Adjusting classroom management to individual students. One CERT teacher explained how it was also important to adjust classroom management to "the needs of each individual in the classroom" (Teacher #43, Survey, September 10, 2013). In other words, teachers should adjust classroom management to the unique and changing needs of students in each classroom rather than stubbornly enforce a single system throughout the year. This idea was echoed by case participants, who similarly shared how teachers should adapt classroom management to what they learned about their particular students. For instance, Ms. Babkin shared how she viewed the relationship between getting to know students and managing to their individual needs:

I think a lot of it comes down to the teacher to be honest. The teacher not knowing them [his or her students] well enough to know how to manage them…. I treat everybody as an individual instead of this big unit. I know which kids have a lot of energy and I know which kids can move and not be distracted…I kind of approach managing things based on each kid…. When you know a kid, who they are and how they prefer to interact and a lot of my kids are very engaged and love to repeat all the time…I was trying to feel out who they were and responded that. (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014)

Ms. Babkin believed the relationships she built helped her to learn about and respond to students' needs. Though she had set systems within her classroom, she believed that it was important to modify classroom management according to her students rather than to treat everybody the same; that is, she wanted to do what she thought was best for each individual instead of stubbornly institute an inflexible classroom system.

Mr. Vante added that for teachers to individually manage students, teachers needed to establish a "strong classroom culture." He explained, "All students are different and act and respond differently. Community plays a major role in classroom management because the stronger and more effective a classroom's community is, the better the classroom management will be" (Survey, September 10, 2013). He stressed that all students were different and teachers should adjust to the needs of the individuals. He was also wary that students could interpret managing individuals differently as a form of inequality, so Mr. Vante underscored how a community built on trust and respect was necessary. He inferred that students had to believe that the teacher had the classroom's best interest in mind and made adjustments according to the students' need rather than for the sake of being unfair.

Do Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs Change Over Time?

In addition to identifying teachers' classroom management beliefs over the course of their first year, I also explored whether beliefs changed throughout this time period. Below, I explain the quantitative analyses I performed on the programmatic surveys to statistically measure whether belief codes differed between Time Period 1 and Time Period 2. I also describe my qualitative analyses of the case participant data to indicate how teachers' beliefs were less behaviorally focused over time.

Programmatic analyses. As summarized in Table 4.3, I used McNemar's test to determine if there was a statistically significant change in the proportion of teachers reporting each type of

belief from Time Period 1 to Time Period 2. The proportion of teachers that reported behavioral beliefs statistically decreased over time while the proportions of teachers that indicated an academic or relational belief were statistically indistinguishable between time points. 88 percent of teachers who completed this question on both programmatic surveys reported a behavioral belief in Time Period 1 compared to 64 percent of teachers during Time Period 2 (χ^2=12.25, ρ<0.001). Academic beliefs slightly dropped from 89 percent to 84 percent (χ^2=1.33, ρ<0.248) and the same number of participants shared relational beliefs over time (χ^2=0.00, ρ<1.000). These results indicate that, over time, fewer teachers conceptualized classroom management using behavioral beliefs while the number of teachers who shared academic and relational beliefs remained similar.

Table 4.3: McNemar's Chi-Square Tests of Teachers' Beliefs Over Time (n=56)

Variable	Proportion of Teachers Time Period 1 (Std. Dev.)	Proportion of Teachers Time Period 2 (Std. Dev.)	χ^2 (p-value)
Behavioral Belief	0.88 (0.04)	0.64 (0.06)	12.25** (0.001)
Academic Belief	0.89 (0.04)	0.84 (0.05)	1.33 (0.248)
Relational Belief	0.38 (0.06)	0.38 (0.06)	0.00 (1.000)

Note: * ρ<0.05. ** ρ< .01. *** ρ < .001 of values. Proportions sum greater than 1.00 because teachers could share multiple beliefs per answer. 56 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both surveys and provided a complete answer for the question about beliefs.

Case participant analyses. The change in the frequency of teachers at the program level corresponded somewhat with how case participants described classroom management over time. Qualitative analyses indicated that case participants shifted over time in how they described their behavioral beliefs. Specifically, teachers described behavior as a less central part of classroom management over the course of their first year. As behavior decreased, teachers tended to frame their understanding of classroom management more in terms of academic or relational beliefs. Below, I describe Ms. Chatman and Mr. Vante as illustrative cases for how beliefs changed throughout the year. I also briefly describe how the other case participants similarly shared beliefs as one of these two teachers.

Decreasing behavior, increasing academics. Ms. Chatman represented one of three case participants who decreased their focus on behavior but increased their focus on academics. Ms. Chatman consistently had behavioral and academic beliefs when describing classroom management but focused more on the impact of academics at the end of the year. Her initial description of classroom management was, "Classroom management…means providing structure to the learning environment through clear goals, rules and expectations, and systems of consequences that

encourage adherence to expectations…students want discipline in their learning environment" (Survey, September 10, 2013). Her definition focused on behavioral aspects of the classroom by stressing the importance of goals, rules, expectations, and consequences (behavioral belief) but in the context of establishing a learning environment (academic belief). She believed that students wanted the classroom managed, using the terms "discipline" and "adherence," which both infer an idea of control or compliance, in her description of classroom management. Even as Ms. Chatman expanded her definition of classroom in an interview, she reaffirmed her behavioral beliefs by saying, "Classroom management is setting up systems so that students can succeed and students can learn and reach their full potential…. If we set…our systems, our rules, our sets of consequences, our rewards, firmly, then from there, everything will flow. It is the foundation, basically" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). Classroom management stemmed from controlling student behavior, according to Ms. Chatman, and establishing behavioral systems so students could learn.

By the end of the school year, Ms. Chatman continued to share about behavioral and academic beliefs but emphasized the importance of academics rather than controlling student behavior. Ms. Chatman similarly described how classroom management revolved around behavioral systems for student learning but not in as controlling a manner:

> I define classroom management as the baseline things, the habits that need to be set, the procedures, the behaviors that need to be there so that the learning can happen…. Those are tools that will help someone succeed in what they want to achieve, getting through high school, getting through college, and being a professional. (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014)

Systems were still very much a part of how she conceptualized classroom management but she expanded on the "full potential" that classroom management could have for students' academic success: classroom management could support classroom learning and academic success beyond the classroom.

Furthermore, she stressed the importance of academics by explaining her desire for students to be self-motivated rather than externally motivated from behavioral systems, saying of her students:

> You should want to do this because you want to learn and because you're invested in our mission. I think what we found this year is that there is points where you feel like you need it [behavioral systems] and they [students] feel like they need something extrinsic, I guess. But I don't want that. My ideal would be there is not that. Sometimes good things happen…but it would not be tied to behavior. (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014)

When describing her experience with classroom management towards the end of the year, Ms. Chatman preferred not to have to use behavioral measures, specifically rewards, in order to get students to learn. This demonstrated a shift from believing that students desired discipline to wanting students to be motivated on their own to learn. She still understood the purpose of behavioral systems and would continue to manage similarly the following year, but she understood the importance of student motivation. Ms. Chatman continued to describe classroom management using behavioral and academic beliefs but academics, specifically student motivation to learn, appeared to take precedence at the end of the year.

Mr. Frank and Mr. Sand were similarly focused on behavior and academics, describing classroom management primarily in terms of different behavioral systems that need to be established in order for students to learn. These two teachers focused on the importance of controlling student behavior first before considering aspects related to instruction and student learning. For instance, Mr. Sand explained, "It is crucial to have strong classroom management in order for the academic instruction to be received by students" (Survey, September 10, 2013). Towards the end of the year, these teachers still emphasized behavioral systems but showed some signs of shifting towards the importance of academics as part of classroom management. Instead of only describing student learning as a byproduct of classroom management, Mr. Sand shared that managing the classroom allowed students to "focus on the material and…invest in the lesson" (Survey, August 30, 2014) while Mr. Frank explained how student misbehavior could be controlled through "productive, curricular tasks" (Survey, September 10, 2013). These beliefs were more specific about the impact of classroom management and incorporated academic ways to manage the classroom. These teachers continued to believe that student learning was mostly a byproduct of classroom management but they began to recognize that there were academic ways to manage students.

Decreasing behavior, increasing relationships. Mr. Vante was one of two case participants (with Ms. Babkin being the other) who discussed classroom management less in terms of behavior and instead emphasized the importance of building student relationships. Mr. Vante focused on the behavioral and academic areas of classroom management over time but, unlike Ms. Chatman, he also incorporated relational aspects of the classroom. Towards the beginning of the year, Mr. Vante believed, "Classroom management is how a teacher engages, maintains, and instructs students. Classroom management is important because their actions may be detrimental to the learning process and should be corrected when in the classroom" (Survey, September 10, 2013). He focused largely on the academic aspects of the classroom (engages, instruct, learning process) and raised a

concern about misbehavior preventing student learning. As he described classroom management in more detail, he also incorporated relational beliefs. Mr. Vante believed that classroom management was about the teacher's ability to "keep it [the classroom] under control and just promote a good environment for learning…everybody feels safe…more relationships so they get to know me on a personal level; I get to know them on a personal level" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013). He emphasized how misbehavior should be prevented to promote student learning and added the importance of student safety and building relationships. His collective description of classroom management, therefore, blended all three types of beliefs.

Mr. Vante's beliefs were equally diverse at the end of the year, but he tended to foreground relationships, while behavior, though still a part of his beliefs at the end of the year, was not as pertinent to his understanding of classroom management. On his end of the year survey, he wrote, "Classroom management is the way the classroom runs, its routines, the culture in the classroom, the interactions between the teacher and student, and students and students" (Survey, May 15, 2014). He continued to explain the importance of behavioral systems and student relationships, though he does not express concern about misbehavior. Rather, he cared about all of the interactions within the classroom and believed it was important to manage how people interact with one another. Expanding on classroom management during his end of the year interview, Mr. Vante incorporated academic beliefs while still stressing relational beliefs: "I think building relationships and getting them [students] to buy into what you're trying to do is more important. Like why are we learning math? Here's why we're learning; here are our goals" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). Here, Mr. Vante stressed the importance of relationships as well as getting students invested in subject area for classroom management; behavioral concerns seemed secondary.

Ms. Babkin similarly emphasized relationships over time. Throughout the year, Ms. Babkin consistently described how classroom management incorporated aspects around behavioral management, effective instruction, and positive interactions with students. Over time, however, Ms. Babkin appeared to emphasize relational aspects more in her descriptions of classroom management, specifically how teachers should meet the needs of individual students. She shifted from highlighting how classroom management was a "system that a teacher uses to maintain order in their classroom" (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013) to emphasizing managing the classroom "based on each kid" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014).

Beliefs Summary

Most teachers described classroom management as establishing behavioral systems so that all students could learn, but their descriptions diverged in terms of whether teachers emphasized in their description classroom management as establishing a safe environment, building relationships, or adjusting management to students' needs. Additionally, results from both quantitative and qualitative analyses suggested that teachers appeared to focus less on behavioral beliefs over time in describing classroom management. This finding occurred at a programmatic level, with fewer teachers describing behavior throughout their definitions, and at a case participant level, with teachers focusing less on control or being less concerned about student misbehavior.

In the next section, I explore whether these findings about teachers' management beliefs—a focus on behavior and academics, relationships as being a distinguishing factor between classroom managers, and a decrease over time in teachers' focus on behavior—were similar themes in teachers' classroom management actions.

What Are Teachers' Classroom Management Actions?

Teachers were observed and self-reported using three types of actions shown in Figure 4.4. Behavioral, academic, and relational actions were the broad categories of actions that teachers used in their classrooms. This section begins with a summary of my analyses of programmatic data, revealing that most teachers reported that they managed classrooms through behavioral approaches more than relational or academic. I next describe analyses of case participant data, which similarly illustrate teachers' frequent use of behavioral actions, but reveal variation in how frequently teachers used relational actions. I end with a description of qualitative analyses of case participant data to identify major themes in the kinds of behavioral, relational, and academic methods that teachers used in their classrooms (see numbered items in Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4: Teachers' Classroom Management Actions
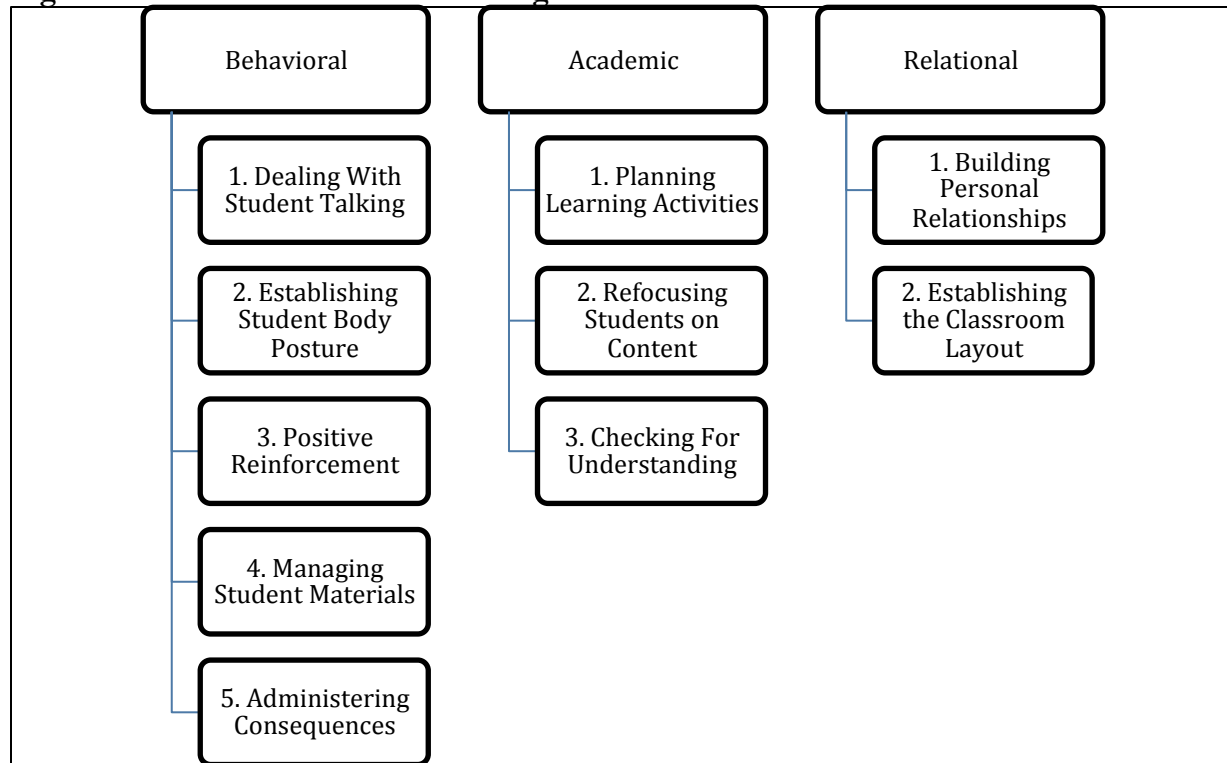
Programmatic analyses. Table 4.4 compares the proportions of each type of action reported by the full survey sample of teachers in the CERT program. Survey data indicated that teachers typically reported using behavioral actions when asked to describe an effective classroom management strategy that they used. 76 percent of teachers who completed both program surveys described behavioral actions, 15 percent academic management actions, and 14 percent relational management actions.

Table 4.4: Summary of Teachers' Actions From Survey Data (n=87)

Variable	Proportion of Teachers (Std. Dev.)
Behavioral Actions	0.76 (0.43)
Academic Actions	0.15 (0.36)
Relational Actions	0.14 (0.35)

Note: Proportions sum less than 1.00 because several teachers shared responses that were not actions. 87 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys.

I also organized the data by teacher—aggregating information from both surveys for each teacher—to explore the profiles of individual teachers. Summarizing responses from the sample of teachers that completed the question about an action that they used to manage the classroom from both program surveys, Figure 4.5 reveals a high frequency of teachers who reported at least a

behavioral action. Three teachers reported academic actions only, another three described relational actions only, five teachers reported both behavioral and relational actions, six teachers described both academic and behavioral actions, and 30 teachers reported only behavioral actions.

Figure 4.5: Frequency of Types of Actions By Respondent (n=47)
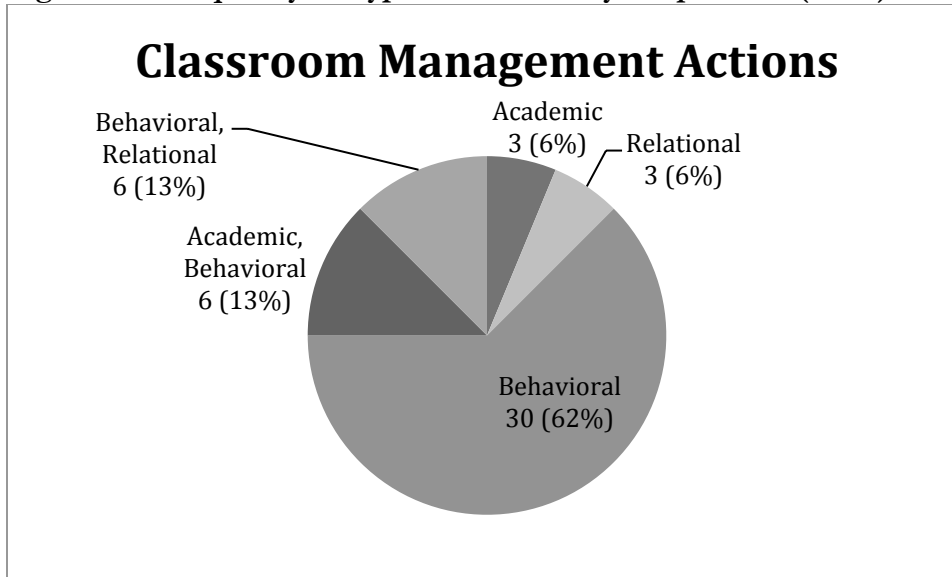
Note: 47 teachers represent the sample of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys and the question about classroom management actions.

The majority (88 percent) of teachers reported using behavioral actions, making the use of academic and relational actions less common. 19 percent of teachers reported using relational actions and another 19 percent of teachers reported using academic actions, highlighting the actions most separating teachers were non-behavioral actions. The infrequency of relational actions is particularly noteworthy given the discrepancy in the percentage of teachers who reported relational beliefs in their surveys compared to those who did not (described earlier) and the importance of relational actions described throughout my literature review. This highlights that relational actions could also be a separating aspect between teachers because most teachers were focused on managing student behavior.

Case participant analyses. Analyses of case participant data revealed a similar emphasis on behavioral actions as observed in the full program sample. Table 4.5 indicates the frequency of each type of classroom management action reported or observed throughout the qualitative data set (left column). It shows that 56 percent of case participants' actions were behavioral, 33 percent academic, and eleven percent relational. In this table, I also disaggregated the proportion of observed actions (middle column) analyzed from video recordings and field visits separate from reported actions

(right column), which were found in surveys, journals, and interviews; results were similar across kinds of data. It was somewhat affirming that the distribution of kinds of actions were similar across observed and self-reported actions. It suggested that both forms of data were perhaps capturing related constructs.

Table 4.5: Summary of Teachers' Actions From Case Participant Data (n=5)

Variable	Total Case Participant Action Units (Count)	Observed Action Units (Count)	Reported Action Units (Count)
Behavioral Actions	0.56 (832)	0.56 (738)	0.52 (94)
Academic Actions	0.33 (495)	0.34 (439)	0.31 (56)
Relational Actions	0.11 (161)	0.10 (130)	0.17 (31)

Note: The sample of 5 represents all case participants.

Figure 4.6 separates the proportion of actions by case participant, indicating several patterns. First, Figure 4.6 illustrates that case participants were observed or reported using varying amounts of all three types of actions, with teachers using each type of action at least ten percent of the time. Teachers differed in how frequently they used each type of action but still used or reported using actions managing each aspect of the classroom.[10] Second, while all types of actions were used, case participants, on average, frequently used behavioral and academic actions. All case participants had at least 73 percent of their actions collectively as behavioral and academic actions. As with the programmatic data, the most common type of actions were most often behavioral.

There were two teachers, Ms. Babkin and Mr. Vante, who used higher percentages of relational actions compared to the other case participants. It is notable that these same two teachers also more frequently reported relational classroom management beliefs. While not as drastic of a difference as beliefs, these teachers had at least 23 percent of their actions as relational actions whereas the other three case participants used relational actions at most 16 percent of the time. It is important to emphasize that these two teachers still used a majority of non-relational (behavioral and academic) actions; later, I investigate the relationship between beliefs and actions in greater detail. Next, I use case study analyses to illustrate common themes in the kinds of behavioral, academic, and relational actions that teachers performed or reported performing.

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[10] Calculating proportions within reported and observed data for each case participant revealed relatively similar proportions for middle/high school teachers, shown in Appendix M. However, the elementary school teachers differed in their reported and observed actions. Ms. Chatman had a larger proportion of observed behavioral and academic actions while Ms. Babkin was observed using more academic actions. This discrepancy between reported and observed actions could be due to a difference in elementary school context but more likely, the discrepancy is due to the limited amount of available reported action data compared to observed action data.

Figure 4.6: Proportion of Actions By Case Participant (n=5)
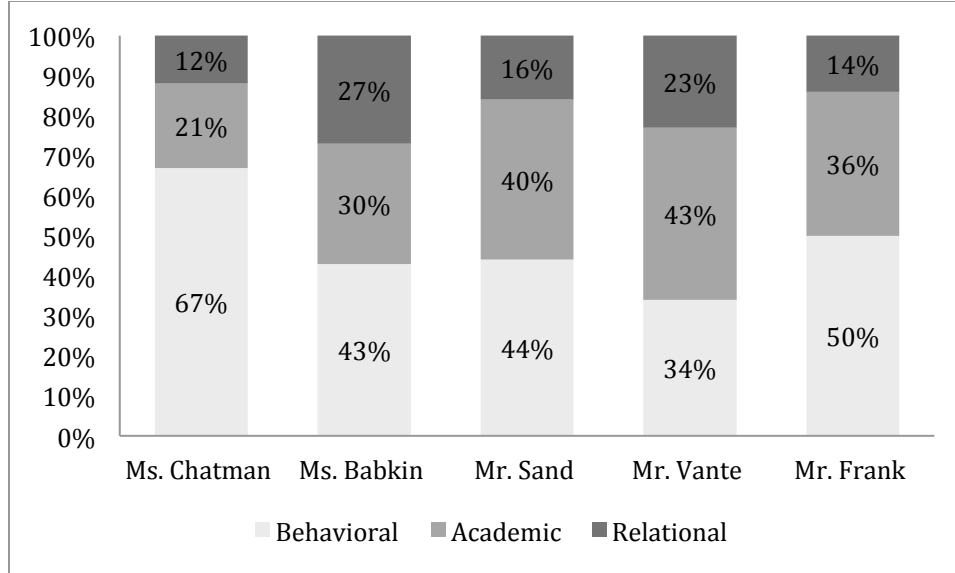
Note: The sample of 5 represents all case participants.

Qualitative analyses. Case participants used different kinds of behavioral, academic, and relational actions to get students to comply with expectations or engage in content. Occasionally, teachers shared why they chose to use the action they did, the intended impact of the action, and how that action related to classroom management through interviews and journals. Below, I describe common patterns for each type of classroom management action (behavioral, academic, and relational).

Behavioral actions. Teachers established and enforced rules to guide how students should behave in their classrooms. Teachers used various strategies for making sure students were quiet, were in an academic body posture, had the correct classroom materials, and, when necessary, administering consequences for misbehavior.

1. Dealing with student talking. Teachers used prepared strategies to get students silent, most often with attention-getting actions when the whole class was distracted in conversation or engaged in group work. Whenever teachers needed their voice to be heard over a classroom full of talking students, they often had a prepared verbal statement to get students to end their conversations. A common approach was to regularly count down from a specific number, giving students several seconds to quiet down. Teachers occasionally added individual directions in between counted down numbers, such as telling the class to face forward, put certain materials away, or by saying individual students' names to get their attention. Other teachers created their own "attention-getters," exemplified by Mr. Frank saying, "Eyes on me. Silence in 3-2-1" (Field Note, June 5, 2014) or Mr.

Sand calling out, "We are in math," requiring students to respond by saying, "math" (Recording, February 10, 2014).

Teachers also established behavioral expectations to prevent student talking. Sometimes teachers designated a noise level at different points during the class. This approach was demonstrated by Mr. Sand when he encouraged students during an independent work time to "keep this level of quiet and to increase our level of focus" (Field Note, May 28, 2014). In saying this, he acknowledged the current classroom noise was appropriate and told students to maintain that same standard for the remainder of independent work time, offering students clarity about how loud they could be during that time. Likewise, Ms. Chatman previewed for students how they should act throughout one activity by setting behavioral guidelines. Prior to her interactive demonstration of how to make a peanut butter and jelly sandwich, she asked students to participate with the caveat that if she "makes a mistake or they have a step that is different than hers, the students' voices should still be off" (Field Note, May 13, 2014). She knew the students would feel compelled to comment, but she did not want the students' eagerness to derail the activity.

Though teachers prepared strategies to quiet students, they also frequently used reactive, non-verbal strategies. For example, teachers used non-verbal cues to stop students when they were talking, and, as Ms. Chatman described, "to redirect behavior without interrupting learning" (Survey, September 10, 2013). Ms. Chatman implemented this approach when she encouraged individuals to look at the student who was talking by pointing at that student and tapping the arms of a couple of nearby students who were either talking or not paying attention. Ms. Chatman managed attention by using touch and hand signals so as not to disrupt the student who was providing a response. The distracted students understood what she was conveying with these signals and complied (Field Note, May 13, 2014). Mr. Vante enacted something similar when he made direct eye contact with a disruptive student to get her to stop talking. The student acknowledged that she was misbehaving, and Mr. Vante's non-verbal reminder brought her back on task without having to interrupt the activity or draw attention to the student (Field Note, May 12, 2014). Another subtle, non-verbal action used by teachers was to circulate around the room. Teachers walked by students so they felt and saw the teachers' presence nearby, encouraging them to behave appropriately. Mr. Frank described how circulation helped "students [get] back to work quickly when I passed by them," (Journal, April 14, 2014). The consistent use of this action was the main reason why all case participants rarely sat at their desks. Teachers consistently walked around to hold students accountable of behavioral expectations.

There were also times when teachers verbally reacted to student misbehavior by shushing, raising their voice, and expressing frustration. A frustrated Mr. Sand, for instance, was occasionally heard shouting, "Excuse me, [class] 8A, get quiet now!" (Recording, May 5, 2014). Mr. Frank would quietly, but in an equally frustrated manner as Mr. Sand, address individual students by saying, "Excuse me" (Field Note, June 5, 2014). These reactive, verbal strategies did not appear to be the result of training or foresight but instead out of agitation when more prepared strategies that previously had worked were ineffective in that moment.

2. Establishing student body posture. Another behavioral action used by teachers was to correct students' body posture, which was viewed as an outward gesture that they were attentive and actively learning. In order to do this, teachers first had to get students seated in their correct seats. Students often got up from their desks and walked around the classroom to talk with another student. All case participants frequently had to instruct students to return to their assigned seats to avoid commotion around the room.

When seated, teachers made sure students were also in an appropriate learning position. Ms. Babkin frequently asked her students to model the "scholar position" by having their "back straight, feet on the floor, your eyes are on me and your hands are folded" (Field Note, June 2, 2014). By giving students specific directions on how to achieve an appropriate learning position, she wanted students to appear "scholarly," which she believed would prevent students from misbehaving. Ms. Chatman reinforced the same body posture with her students, demanding that students be in what she termed, "star position" (Field Note, May 13, 2014), which included folded hands and sitting up straight. Throughout lectures, she reiterated that students should be in the appropriate posture by saying a student's name and telling him or her to get in "star," or stopping class to remind them of the behavioral expectation.

3. Positive reinforcement. Another common behavioral action used by teachers was to positively reinforce students through praise and behavioral narration; teachers often did this publicly as a way to share with all students about specific positive behaviors they observed. Teachers strategically voiced when a student was behaving correctly or working hard on content to affirm the individual student and to reiterate to other students how model behavior should appear in that moment. As one teacher explained, "positive behavior narration is still one of the most effective strategies…because students respond to positive recognition and praise more than anything else" (Teacher #6, Survey, May 14, 2014). Case participants similarly believed that narrating what one student did made others students want to receive praise and helped to reinforce behavioral

expectations. Nearly every time Mr. Frank used his attention getter, he would follow it by positively reinforcing individuals that listened: "[Student] is quiet" or "[Student's] eyes are on me" (e.g., Field Note, June 5, 2014).

Teachers also gave tangible rewards or fun experiences for positive student behavior and effort. Rewards proved to be satisfying for both the students that earned them and for the teacher in seeing students meet certain standards. Students were recognized for trying their best on academic work or given a "reward for following directions and going above and beyond" (Babkin, Survey, September 10, 2013). Ms. Babkin used a range of individual rewards. Notably, in one instance, she stopped her lesson because one student quietly raised his hand and then gave him a sticker, a rainmaker to play with, and positively changed his color on the classroom color chart system[11] (Recording, February 24, 2014). She wanted students to have something tangible to feel good about their actions. Whether it was a piece of candy for correct answers or the opportunity to choose from a range of costume accessories that they could wear if they behaved correctly, Ms. Babkin was the one case participant who consistently rewarded students for meeting or exceeding her expectations. Other case participants also distributed rewards, albeit less frequently, including the offering of free class time (Frank, Recording, April 14, 2014; Vante, Recording, February 10, 2014) and the opportunity to watch a fun video (Chatman, Field Note, May 12, 2014; Vante, Field Note, March 18, 2014).

4. Managing student materials. Teachers also managed classrooms by overseeing student possession and organization of learning materials, especially basic school resources for engaging in classroom work. Mr. Vante, for example, would regularly ask students to get out a pencil and paper when class began, telling students that they should ask a neighbor for materials if they did not bring them (Field Note, May 12, 2014). Mr. Sand was particularly strict in this area: prior to class starting, he would not let students enter the classroom unless they showed him requisite class materials. During one observation, Mr. Sand asked one student if he had a pencil and paper. When the student stated that he did not, Mr. Sand promptly told the student that he could not enter the classroom until he had the necessarily materials; the student then went to get the materials and came back prepared before class started (Recording, May 5, 2014). Mr. Sand said he wanted his students to have basic resources to participate and succeed in class rather than have an excuse to not do work.

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[11] This system was a visual representation that used colors to keep track of student actions; at the end of every day, incentives and consequences would be administered according to how each student behaved.

Removing potentially distracting materials, unrelated to the current activity, proved to be, at times, just as important to teachers as students having the correct materials. Teachers often instructed students to put away extraneous items, academic or otherwise, which were unneeded at that time. They asked students to remove books, unneeded papers, and toys that were in front of them so they would not be distracted from learning. Often when there was a transition between academic activities, Ms. Babkin could be heard telling students to put away a folder, worksheet, or other item leftover from the previous activity (Field Note, June 2, 2014). For students that did not immediately comply, teachers regularly took distracting items away and put them in a separate location. For instance, Mr. Vante warned one student to put a stuffed penguin "away in your locker unless I take it away." The student did not comply, so Mr. Vante took the toy and put it behind his own desk. He believed the presence of the toy would be a distraction and instructed the student to pick it up after class (Field Note, May 12, 2014).

5. Administering consequences. Teachers upheld behavioral expectations by administering one of several consequences. Sometimes they gave explicit warnings to point out and reprimand students' misbehavior so as to make students aware of what was and was not appropriate. During one class, for example, Mr. Frank cautioned a group of students, "Guys, last warning. Silently take notes and raise your hand if you have a question" (Recording, May 12, 2014). In this instance, he explicitly gave a warning to students who were not acting according to expectations; he then restated the expectation in order to quell subsequent, similar misbehavior. A warning often prevented further misbehavior; the self-consciousness associated with public recognition for their disruption seemed to encourage them to stay on task. Students who continued to misbehave or chose to ignore the warning typically prompted teachers to choose a more severe consequence.

Among more severe consequences, teachers sometimes moved students to another desk or location in the classroom. Teachers would instruct students to swap desks in order to separate peers that were distracting one another. For instance, Ms. Babkin had designed her classroom to include adjacent spaces away from the rest of the students but within earshot of the lesson. Ms. Babkin consistently sent disruptive students to this area because "certain kids…needed to be moved at that moment. I feel like all my kids care about learning so much that if they saw a student move [seats] like that, they would realize you're wasting class time and maybe that would motivate them in the moment" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). She recognized that moving disruptive students sent a clear message to both them and the remaining students to behave appropriately but she wanted misbehaving students to still have opportunities to continue learning.

As part of this consequence, teachers typically had an individual conversation with the disruptive students about their misbehavior before they were allowed back into their normal seating assignments. Teachers often used these conversations as teaching opportunities. For example, Mr. Sand recounted what he told a group of students that he had sent out of class:

> [I told them] how they have a lot of power in the classroom. If I have to fight them, they're going to win. [We] need to pick the same side and we need to find a reason for that. I'll ask them, "Do you know where I am coming from in the lesson?" "Yeah yeah yeah, you're trying to teach us math," the disruptive students would respond. (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014)

He tried to reason with the students, had them reflect on their behavior, and come to an understanding of what their actions should look like before returning to the classroom. He wanted to prevent further disruptions and made sure the consequences positively impacted students for the future.

One of the most severe consequences for student misbehavior was when teachers notified a higher authority who could administer a harsher consequence than the teacher. One example was when teachers notified school administrators, who disciplined students frequently with a suspension or community service. Mr. Frank understood the severity of this consequence because "if anything, [administrators] go overkill, which is nice because I can play the good guy. I can send a kid out and [administrators] will want to write him up. 'Oh, I didn't want that but once you leave this classroom I cannot control what happens,'" he would tell his students (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014). Mr. Frank and his students knew that administrators gave harsher consequences; therefore, Mr. Frank could threaten getting the school administration involved as a consequence in itself.

Parent involvement (or the threat thereof) was another consequence teachers would use. Teachers would communicate student misbehavior to family members at their home; in fact, Mr. Sand commented how he "should've done more parents calls…for some students I called at the beginning of the year they were fine forever" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). Teachers only used these consequences on occasions when students were defiant or completely unruly, and rarely as a proactive form of preventing student misbehavior.

Academic actions. While teachers used actions to prevent, stop, or discipline misbehavior, teachers also engaged students in content as a way to manage the classroom. The three kinds of academic actions they commonly used were planning specific learning activities, refocusing students to content, and checking students' understanding throughout the lesson. Academic actions were

similar to pedagogical actions in being academically focused; however, teachers reported and I observed teachers use these actions to intentionally manage their classrooms by increasing student engagement and preventing misbehavior.

1. Planning learning activities. Teachers chose an activity that they thought best conveyed content and engaged students deliberately to maximize engagement with content and, thus, minimize off-task behaviors. Throughout their journals, for example, teachers referred to instructional activities as classroom management strategies because purposeful planning engaged students; when students were engaged with content, it "denies students the ability to misbehave because they don't understand something, which generally increases their ownership of misbehavior" (Frank, Journal, April 14, 2014). Teachers listed activities such as assigning homework, note taking, quiz review (Vante, Journal, April 28, 2014), guided notes (Babkin, Journal, February 24, 2014), and independent work as ways to keep students engaged with academic material and thus avoid classroom disruptions.

Ms. Babkin shared how she used "circulating stations" to manage the classroom, which she defined as "pacing the lesson, allowing short bursts of intensive critical thought;" this lesson activity put students in small groups for a short amount of time to learn about a topic. After some time, students would rotate to another "station" to learn about a different topic. She explained that this strategy, as it related to classroom management, promoted engagement and reduced misbehavior: "Students did not exhibit behavior problems or need much redirection" (Journal, February 24, 2014). In addition to being an instructional or pedagogical strategy for teaching academic content, Ms. Babkin used circulating stations as a way to minimize behavioral issues that could otherwise obstruct student learning.

2. Refocusing students on content. Teachers also used quick, verbal statements to direct students towards the work. The emphasis on content or class work was the primary distinction between this strategy and a behavioral strategy that would only focus on getting students quiet. Often, teachers encouraged students to concentrate on challenging material or to do their best to complete assigned independent work. Teachers prompted students to "get to work" whenever they were distracted or gave subtle reminders for the work they had to complete. Sometimes they used the amount of time remaining to complete an academic task to keep or redirect students to the task at hand. During one observation, for example, Mr. Frank reminded the class: "Six minutes left. People are finishing up so hurry up" (Field Note, June 5, 2014). Mr. Frank would then periodically update the time remaining to finish the assignment, helping students to determine how fast they should be working. Likewise,

92

teachers sometimes announced how many questions students should have completed or what problem they should be currently working on. These reminders helped students pace their work while reminding momentarily disengaged students what they should do to stay on track.

3. *Checking for understanding.* Throughout their lessons, teachers also checked students' understanding of content in order to engage students and prevent misbehavior. For example, teachers would deliberately select individuals to answer a question or practice a problem, as Ms. Babkin described, "to keep students accountable for paying attention and be ready to answer a question" (Journal, March 6, 2014). Mr. Vante similarly felt like checking for understanding helped him to manage the classroom because it "causes more students to pay attention if they don't know when their name will be called" (Journal, April 28, 2014). He thought this was an opportunity to keep students engaged, requiring students to actively participate in the lesson and have a prepared answer for his questions. Periodically during lectures, he cold-called students and, depending on their answer, he chose his response. If students knew the answers, he continued on with the lesson; for students who did not have an answer, he told them to pay attention to the content before calling on another student or allowing a volunteer to provide the correct answer (Field Note, March 18, 2014). Other case participants incorporated more formalized systems to determine which students would answer the question. Mr. Sand randomly chose from a deck of cards to select students to answer the warm up questions; he felt this approach kept "students engaged because they might be called on at any time" (Journal, February 10, 2014). Ms. Babkin drew sticks with students' names on them (Recording, May 12, 2014) and Ms. Chatman nearly always waited for a certain proportion of student volunteers to raise their hand before calling on one student (Journal, June 10, 2014).

Relational actions. Teachers used other actions to foster a positive climate within their classrooms. These relational actions included building relationships with students and manipulating the environment to promote student interactions.

1. *Building personal relationships.* When managing classrooms, teachers often focused on building relationships in order to establish a personal connection between the teacher and student and to promote a comfortable environment for students. Positive interactions between students and teachers seemed to help students to listen to the teacher and make them more compliant and willing to engage in material. As one survey respondent put it, "I found that management was easier when I formed relationships with students" (Teacher #33, Survey, September 10, 2013).

Case participants tended to build relationships in one of two ways: sharing about their lives with students or getting to know their students as individuals. Mr. Vante consistently shared with

students because he felt like it helped students to understand him "as a human [rather] than a robot teacher that plugs in at night" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2014). He enjoyed talking with his students and often continued student discussions rather than quelling them, such as telling the class a story of his trip to Disney when students were already off topic during the lesson (Field Note, May 12, 2014). This action engaged students for a moment before redirecting the attention that he had gathered back to the lesson.

Ms. Babkin shared about life experiences during childhood or throughout college as a way to convey moral lessons. These pseudo-lessons would often be deep and philosophical, as she "literally have talked to my kids like they're in college and I teach them life lessons I learned" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). She explained that she hoped sharing would create a bond with her students, impart wisdom that went beyond academic content, and keep them motivated throughout the school year (Field Note, June 2, 2014). For example, she shared with her students about her distant relationships with her father and sister; despite not having close familial support, she followed her dream by working hard and not making excuses (Field Note, May 7, 2014). She had hoped these lessons would build student motivation and investment towards the content, making it easier to then manage the students.

While she shared about her life, Ms. Babkin also spent time learning about her students. Ms. Babkin prioritized opportunities to learn more about her students by "getting to know my kids personally, having lunch with them, visiting their houses, [and] writing them letters. I have a working relationship with all my kids" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). She sought opportunities to get to know and interact with her students within and outside of school hours. Prior to starting one lesson, for example, she asked, "Anyone want to share about their weekends?" She allowed multiple students to respond and even engaged with follow up questions about their experiences (Field Note, June 2, 2014). She dedicated class time to these conversations so that she could build a stronger relationship.

Likewise, Mr. Frank often took time to talk with students entering his classroom or passing by in the hall before class started. In one instance, he asked a student who had missed the previous day about the student's trip to Mississippi (Field Note, June 5, 2014). Before focusing on the work that the student missed, Mr. Frank took the opportunity to check in on the student's personal life.

2. Establishing the classroom layout. Teachers also impacted teacher-student and student-student interactions by manipulating the classroom layout. Although preventing misbehavior was a byproduct of this action, teachers primarily described that they changed the desk and seating

arrangement to positively impact the interactions in the classroom. Teachers set up desks in a convenient position so they could easily walk to and interact with students. Several teachers changed their classroom layout numerous times throughout the year before settling on a preferable arrangement. Ms. Babkin shared the importance of establishing a desk arrangement as a way to "be responsive to who sits where and who gets distracted." She added that, after changing desks several times, she eventually found an arrangement that she liked and had the desired impact: "Now I don't change them [desks] at all because the U-shape works" (Field Note, June 2, 2014). She felt like this alignment fit her classroom because it gave her the best view of what students were doing in their seats and afforded her the access to students that she had desired.

Mr. Vante shared about frequently changing his desk arrangement because he recognized that each design offered different affordances and constraints for how he was able to manage the classroom. One characteristic that was most salient to him was how the desk configuration affected how he circulated the room: "Whatever the layout of the classroom is, if it's a U-shape, I'm walking around like this. If it's groups, I'm bouncing from group to group. If it's rows, I'm in and out or just around the outside" (Field Note, May 12, 2014). How he interacted with students, he felt, depended largely on how the desks were arranged. He felt individually spaced desks gave him access to all students but limited the interactions that students had with one another; he could easily see what all students were doing in a U-shape arrangement but did not have equal access to everyone; grouped desks were difficult to behaviorally manage but helpful if he wanted to incorporate group work. Individually spaced desks was his "default" arrangement, but Mr. Vante often moved desks around to organize the classroom around planned learning activities or how he intended students to interact with one another (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014).

Relatedly, teachers prevented negative interactions by assigning students to specific desks rather than letting students choose their own seats. As one survey respondent explained, seating assignments "seemed to help create—if not a perfect classroom environment—a more manageable one" (Teacher #34, Survey, September 10, 2013). Teachers intentionally placed students that could work well with one another next to each other or separated students that were likely to distract one another. Mr. Sand used a daily random seating assignment, but prior to class starting, he would look around the room and make sure to "split up troublesome groupings" (Journal, June 2, 2014) so that students were not seated next to their friends. He tried to prevent disruptions by making last-second changes to seating arrangements. While Mr. Sand changed seats daily, Mr. Vante said he adjusted "seating arrangements about every two or three weeks" to account for the shifting student dynamics

throughout the year (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). He believed that consistently moving students into new seats kept them from growing too accustomed to their neighbors but still maintained a positive atmosphere. Ms. Babkin (Field Note, June 2, 2014) and Ms. Chatman (Field Note, May 13, 2014) adjusted seating only when they felt individual students needed a change in surroundings.

Do Teachers' Classroom Management Actions Change Over Time?

As with teachers' beliefs, I also investigated whether teachers' actions changed over time. Using the programmatic surveys, I explored whether the number of teachers who reported each type of belief statistically changed from Time Period 1 and Time Period 2. Additionally, I analyzed whether there were qualitative shifts in the rich case participant data. Each process of analysis is described below.

Programmatic analyses. To investigate the programmatic survey data, I used McNemar's tests to determine if there was a statistically significant change in whether a teacher listed a type of action or not from Time Period 1 to Time Period 2. Table 4.6 summarizes distributions across time. It reveals that the percentage of teachers who reported using behavioral actions decreased from 79 percent to 69 percent (χ^2=1.92, ρ<0.166), academic actions remained unchanged at ten percent (χ^2=0.00, ρ<1.000), and relational actions decreased from 13 percent to eight percent (χ^2=0.50, ρ<0.480), but these changes over time were not statistically significant. Results indicate that teachers, on average, reported using each type of action at similar frequencies throughout the year.

Table 4.6: McNemar's Chi-Square Tests of Teachers' Actions Over Time (n=48)

Variable	Proportion of Teachers Time Period 1 (Std. Dev.)	Proportion of Teachers Time Period 1 (Std. Dev.)	χ^2 (p-value)
Behavioral Action	0.79 (0.06)	0.69 (0.07)	1.92 (0.166)
Academic Action	0.10 (0.04)	0.10 (0.05)	0.00 (1.000)
Relational Action	0.13 (0.05)	0.08 (0.04)	0.50 (0.480)

Note: * ρ<0.05. ** ρ< .01. *** ρ < .001 of values. Proportions in Time 1 sum more than 1.00 because several teachers listed multiple actions per response. Proportions at Time 2 sum less than 1.00 because several teachers provided complete responses but the response did not categorize as an action.[12] 48 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both surveys and provided a complete answer for the question about actions.

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[12] An example response was: "I effectively used classroom management when a student was having an emotional breakdown. The classroom was able to continue the lesson and minimize the wasted time (Teacher #11, Survey, May 15, 2014)." The teacher provided a clear response but did not directly provide an action that he or she implemented. Therefore, the teacher was considered part of the sample for these analyses but the action was coded as an "other" action.

Case participant analyses. While the actions that teachers reported using were similar over time, my analyses of case participant data indicated that there were changes in the quality of the actions that teachers used in their classrooms. Case participants tended to use the same types of actions over time, which was consistent with trends among all teachers in the program (see Table 4.6). However, they refined their performances of these actions throughout the year to try to make them more impactful (as reported by the teacher), showing how the qualitative data offered additional texture that the survey data could not. For instance, Mr. Vante experimented and eventually perfected the desk and seating arrangement in his classroom, while Ms. Babkin, over time, determined which consequences were most effective for each individual student. Below, I present expanded illustrations of how Mr. Sand and Ms. Chatman made regular adjustments to their practice.

Refining behavioral actions. Though Mr. Sand consistently used attention getters to quiet students across the year, how he did so evolved over time. First, he counted down until students were silent, then switched to an attention getter that he was not fond of, and eventually created a more effective strategy that was meaningful to him and his students: he would call out "radio; radical" and the students would respond, "tune in; get rooted." Mr. Sand explained in detail the evolution of his attention getters:

> I had this thing where I would say, "We are in math." And they [the students] would say, "Math." And I thought this was awful. I was counting down for the first half of the year and it just took forever. They stopped taking it seriously because at some point I yelled. I think in October and November I yelled and it was over because I had to yell every single time. "We are in math" thing, I got consistent with that but it's so boring. And I got the "radical and radio" thing. I just thought of it. That's a little bit catchier and it rhymes. The meanings work. It's the two main things that I need, which is [for students to] sit down and to face forward. And then to focus on me and don't talk…Some of the kids even like it a little bit and they'll say it so it works in that way. (Field Note, May 28, 2014)

Saying "radical and radio" had a meaning the he and his students shared: "Why I was saying tune in to radio…but saying which frequencies are going to help you succeed…if you're making noise with your radio whereas you can't hear anything, you can't catch anything. I think…that resonated with the students" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). This attention-getter required students to actively respond and utilize words that had significance; saying "radical," which is an expression using a

square root, had a connection to math and made Mr. Sand feel like he was using content to get students quiet. He continued to focus on student behavior and changed strategies until he found one that he felt like was effective.

Refining relational actions. Ms. Chatman's use of the color system was another instance of how teachers refined their actions over time. Teachers used this classroom system to track student behavior by notating on a board posted in the front of the room how each student acted during that day using specific colored cards; each color was associated with certain individual rewards and consequences at the end of the day. At the behest of her students, Ms. Chatman included a warning before administering a "check." She recalled a conversation she had with them:

> With certain kids especially, there was a point in the year where I told kids, "What I am noticing now when I am giving you checks, you just give up. What can I do for you to make it better?" I had kids tell me, "You don't give me a warning." [She responded,]"Well you get two checks and then a color change; it's like your warning." [The students replied,] "Yeah but I don't get a warning." So then I would add a warning before the first check. So that's me changing the system…. For me, it's semantics. But for the kid, no. (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014)

Students suggested to Ms. Chatman how to improve her behavioral system and she made the corresponding change. It was a minor tweak for her, but it helped students to follow and invest more into her color chart system. That is, she chose to adapt the color chart to meet the students' needs.

Actions Summary

Teachers used and reported using actions to manage the behavioral, academic, and relational aspects of the classroom. Teachers tended to report using the same type of actions over time but case participant data indicate that teachers improved the quality of some of their classroom management actions throughout the year. These findings suggest that teachers consistently focus on the same areas of the classroom to manage rather than extend to other types of classroom management actions.

Up to this point, I have described common themes about the beliefs that teachers have about classroom management and the actions teachers use to manage their classrooms. Next, I explore whether there are relationships between teachers' beliefs and actions.

Is There a Relationship Between Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Actions?

In this section I begin by using the program-wide survey data to test whether teachers who report certain kinds of beliefs also report similar kinds of actions. I then examine each case participant using vignettes to identify relationships between beliefs and actions.

Programmatic analyses. With the full sample of teachers who responded to both programmatic surveys, I used chi-square analyses to test whether there were significant relationships between each type of belief and its corresponding type of action, shown in Table 4.7. Results indicate that each type of belief a teacher had was statistically independent to the corresponding type of action that a teacher reported, suggesting that I cannot reject the null hypothesis that behavioral beliefs were statistically independent from behavioral actions ($\chi^2 = 2.49$; $\rho = 0.115$), academic beliefs from academic actions ($\chi^2 = 1.55$; $\rho = 0.213$), and relational beliefs from relational actions ($\chi^2 = 0.24$; $\rho = 0.622$).[13] One limitation that could impact these non-significant results is the measurement of teachers' actions at the programmatic level. Specifically, these variables may best represent teachers' beliefs about one self-reported action, which could be statistically independent to teachers' beliefs about conceptualizing classroom management.

Table 4.7: Chi-Square Tests of Independence of Teachers' Beliefs and Actions (n=87)

	Behavioral Actions	Academic Actions	Relational Actions
Behavioral Beliefs	$\chi^2 = 2.49$ (0.115)	--	--
Academic Beliefs	--	$\chi^2 = 1.55$ (0.213)	--
Relational Beliefs	--	--	$\chi^2 = 0.24$ (0.622)

Notes: * $\rho < 0.05$. ** $\rho < .01$. *** $\rho < .001$ of values. 87 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys.

Case participant analyses. While programmatic analyses did not reveal statistically significant relationships between beliefs and actions, qualitative analyses suggested case participants' beliefs and actions corresponded with one another. Moreover, beliefs and actions grouped in ways that suggested two kinds of classroom managers: more relational and less relational. Figure 4.7 shows the percentage of each type of belief and action for each case participant. Teachers varied in how frequently they shared and used each type of classroom management belief and action but several trends emerge when comparing each teacher's beliefs with his/her actions. Compared to other case participants, Ms. Babkin and Mr. Vante had higher proportions of relational beliefs and correspondingly higher proportion of relational actions. There was a sizeable difference in the

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[13] See Appendix N for counts of each chi-square test analyses.

proportion of relational beliefs (black shading) between these two case participants compared to the other three case participants; these teachers also had the highest percentage of relational actions compared to the other case participants, though the difference was not as salient as it was with beliefs. Conversely, Ms. Chatman, Mr. Sand, and Mr. Frank had the highest proportion behavioral and academic (white and grey shading, respectively) beliefs and actions, and they only sparingly shared relational beliefs and actions. Thus, the beliefs that teachers shared appear to be related to the actions that they used, with the former group having more of a relational orientation and the latter group having less of a relational orientation. Described next, my analyses of the case participant data indeed suggests that those individuals (Ms. Babkin and Mr. Vante) who reported a higher proportion of relational beliefs and actions (henceforth referred to as "more relational managers") had qualitatively different approaches to managing classrooms than their "less relational" peers.

Figure 4.7: Case Participants' Beliefs and Actions (n=5)
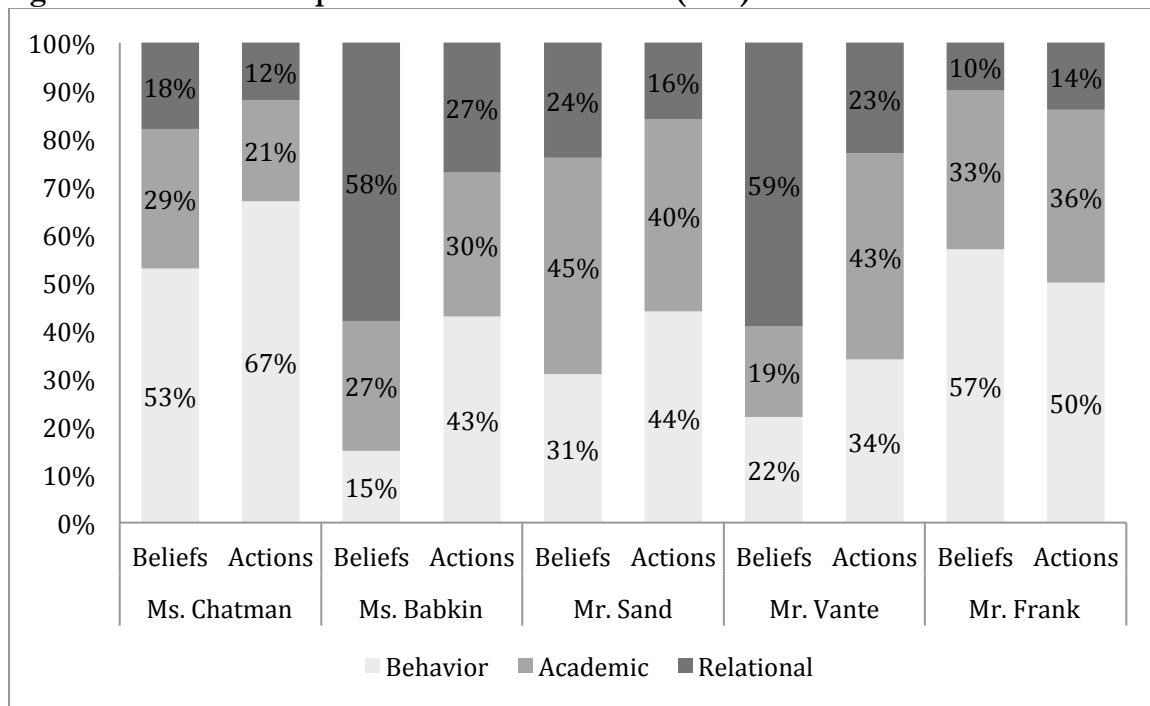
Qualitative analyses. As the previous sections have shown, teachers, including case participants, often blended their understanding of classroom management by describing both behavioral and academic beliefs, while frequently using similar types of actions. These trends held for Ms. Chatman, Mr. Frank, and Mr. Sand, who had beliefs around compliance to behavioral systems for student learning and implemented actions focused on getting students to appropriately

behave and engage in content. I refer to teachers who exhibited these types of characteristics as "less relational" classroom managers. While they also sometimes expressed relational beliefs and actions, they were predominantly focused on behavioral and academic aspects of classroom management; thus, it would also be appropriate to refer to them as "more behavioral and academic" classroom managers.

By contrast, Ms. Babkin and Mr. Vante represented "more relational" classroom managers, who also had beliefs about behavioral systems and cared about academic learning but, more than their peers, focused on building relationships and a positive learning environment for students. Additionally, more relational classroom managers wanted to get to know each student as an individual and accommodate classroom management to students' needs and personalities. Though they still used behavioral and academic actions, they stood out in their focus on developing relationships with students in order to manage the classroom. I decided to use "more" and "less" relational largely because all teachers managed classrooms in ways that privileged academic and behavioral approaches; what seemed to differentiate teachers was the degree to which they emphasized relational beliefs and actions.

Next, I use vignettes of each case participant to illustrate how less relational classroom managers prioritized student behavior and academics through systems and structure, and more relational classroom managers focused more on building relationships with students and teaching life lessons.

Less relational classroom managers. Less relational classroom managers often defined classroom management in terms of controlling student behavior to limit disruptions and provide teachers the opportunity to teach material. These teachers correspondingly used similar actions by frequently getting students to behave according to classroom expectations while using teacher-directed lessons, which generally limited opportunities for students to interact with one another and engage in content. Moreover, these teachers rarely deviated from their lesson aside from reprimanding misbehaving students, revealing little desire to build relationships with students throughout class time. Less relational classroom managers still had relational beliefs and actions but they were relatively infrequent; instead, these managers were more focused on behavioral and academic aspects of the classroom. Below, I describe how Ms. Chatman, Mr. Frank, and Mr. Sand exemplified these characteristics throughout their classroom.

Ms. Chatman. Ms. Chatman focused on managing students' behavior to help them academically succeed. As mentioned earlier, she defined classroom management as "providing

structure to the learning environment through clear goals, rules, expectations and systems of consequences that encourage adherence to expectations. It is important, first and foremost, because students want discipline in their learning environment" (Survey, September 14, 2013). Behavior and academics were intertwined as part of Ms. Chatman's definition of classroom management, where she used behavioral systems to create an academic learning environment. She thought that the classroom needed structure and students desired discipline, which served as her motivation to manage behavior as precisely as she could. She focused on establishing behavioral habits, which she referred to "as the baseline things, the habits that need to be set, the procedures, [and] the behaviors that need to be there so that the learning can happen. If that's not there, then the learning can't really happen. It's all of those little things that can't be overlooked" (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014). She continued to describe what some of these habits looked like:

> Setting the idea that if you can maintain attention, if you are able to show someone respect by looking at them when they're talking and not being super wiggly or unfocused. Those are tools that will help someone succeed in what they want to achieve, getting through high school, getting through college and being a professional. (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014)

Ms. Chatman believed these skills needed to be engrained in her students for them to become academically successful. To her, managing the classroom meant behaviorally preparing her students to be "scholars." Even when Ms. Chatman shared about relational beliefs, she was still focused on behavioral aspects of the classroom. She thought that effective classroom management impacted the classroom by creating a "happy place that runs smoothly" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). Though she wanted to establish a "happy place," it was based on her perspective as a teacher where students appropriately behaved rather than a student's interpretation of a "happy" classroom.

Ms. Chatman's consistent enforcement of the color chart system through explicit monitoring and narrating of student actions illustrated her focus on student "habits" and academic learning. Throughout the day, Ms. Chatman can be heard strictly enforcing this system by administering "checks" to students who were not meeting her behavioral expectations. She reminded students to "check, fold" to fold their hands or "check, eyes" for students to track the speaker (Recording, March 6, 2014), requiring that students look and act like scholars. These reminders were in addition to the multiple procedures and routines she had set up in her classroom, including but not limited to, getting quiet, lining up to go to the bathroom, or having academic discussions with peers. She wanted student adherence to these behavioral routines to be automatic so that more time could be spent on instruction. She frequently had a daily academic routine of whole class instruction,

independent reading, and student practice. Regardless of the instructional activity, she engaged the class by consistently refocusing students, scanning the room, and circling to those who needed help. Ms. Chatman would casually interact with students to build relationships, but this often occurred outside of instructional time. For instance, she would ask about students' lives outside of school before school started, during lunch, or while they transitioned between classrooms for activities. However, she appeared to keep these relational actions to a minimum when class was in session.

Mr. Frank. Similar to Ms. Chatman, Mr. Frank built relationships outside of the classroom, though, he intentionally did so in order to maintain focus on academics. In describing how he interacted with students: "Generally, I try to keep non-science conversations to a minimum because I want them [students] to do their work" (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014). Before class or while standing by his door between periods, he would occasionally joke with students or ask about their lives. But as soon as class started, he tried to establish a learning environment by closing the door, turning off the music, and assuming what appeared to be a sterner teaching persona. His demeanor was more serious than non-instructional times and focused on maintaining his instructional routine. The routine included starting class time with a lecture while students copied notes from a PowerPoint presentation and then assigning the remainder of the period for students to independently complete practice problems. He periodically updated students with how much time was remaining or how much work they should have completed to keep students engaged throughout a long period of "unstructured" work time. Though he did not spend much time in front of the classroom lecturing students with new material, there was little interaction between students regarding academic content.

Compared to the other case participants, Mr. Frank most closely held to a strict implementation of the Behavior Management Cycle (BMC) by giving clear expectations, narrating student behavior, and administering consequences to manage the classroom. Mr. Frank frequently used his attention getter, "Eyes on me, silence in 3-2-1," and then verbally acknowledged individual students who complied with his expectation (e.g., Field Note, April 29, 2014). Students who did not follow his directions were given a warning. If misbehavior persisted, he had students move seats or sent outside for a period of time, rarely exhibiting much emotion throughout the process. He did his best "to make things very matter of fact, like nonchalant. If you get a consequence, you get a consequence. I don't really show or pretend I care about it. Ok, I'm giving the instructions, I narrate, and I start giving consequences. If you get a check [warning], it's not a big deal. I don't make it out

to be a big deal" (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014). He did his best to control student behavior without dwelling on it, preferring to abide by his instructional routine.

Mr. Frank organized as much of the classroom as he could and felt like any change in how he managed student behavior or delivered instruction would only increase the chances of misbehavior. He described his understanding of classroom management as "a system or routine or something in place to address and correct misbehavior and ensure or try to ensure that lesson goals are met within any given day." Continuing his response in the interview, Mr. Frank emphasized the importance of systems and consistent routines, doing his best to "script everything that happens in class…they all face forward and if I'm in the front of the class, they need to be quiet" (Personal Interview, April 10, 2014). This included informing students of exactly what to do and how loud they could be at all times by writing the appropriate noise level on his PowerPoint slides; doing so, he felt, gave students no excuse for misbehavior because they knew what to do and how to act. Mr. Frank established this classroom structure because of his understanding of classroom management actions "that don't work are the ones that allow for more freedom" (Personal Interview, April 10, 2014).

Mr. Sand. Mr. Sand was similarly focused on implementing the BMC, but his enforcement was inconsistent, causing many disruptions to his intricately planned lessons. Mr. Sand's lessons typically consisted of a repeated cycle of teaching an individual concept for several minutes at a time, followed by several minutes for students to do short periods of independent practice work. He was organized to the minute and used a timer to keep on schedule. Before each activity, he used attention getters to get the classroom quiet, set expectations to follow, and narrated students' actions. These actions aligned with his description of classroom management, which he defined as the "behavioral factor of instruction including expectations, enforcement, redirection, rewards, and consequences" (Survey, September 14, 2013). He made sure systems guided student behavior, doing his best to continue enforcement of the BMC because it "definitely works and I'm trying to implement it more and more" (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013).

Even with his consistent implementation of the BMC, there were often moments when student misbehavior derailed his classroom. At times, disruptions quickly frustrated Mr. Sand, caused him to yell at students to be quiet, and disrupted his plans. He was unafraid of trying new strategies to get students to behave correctly, such as implementing a new attention getter or using different consequences. However, the new strategies were often ineffective, prompting him to scrap the new action shortly thereafter and find other ways to control student misbehavior. There were

several occasions when a class progressed without disruptions, allowing Mr. Sand to manage using "relationships and respect" (Personal Interview, June, 23, 2014), meaning he would spend a couple extra minutes learning about students or sharing about his life while students were working on independent work. He expressed a desire to get to a point where he could manage in this fashion but Mr. Sand was able to only build in time to relationship build when disruptive students were absent. Thus, these instances were rare and instead he was often preoccupied with managing student misbehavior.

More relational classroom managers. Like less relational managers, more relational classroom managers had behavioral and academic beliefs and actions but also emphasized the importance of positive interactions, often adjusting their instruction and behavioral systems to individual students. These teachers, exemplified by the cases of Ms. Babkin and Mr. Vante below, were characterized by building relationships with students in the classroom most often by getting to know their students and sharing their lives with their class. These teachers also exhibited care for students or incorporated humor to engage with students in order to promote positive teacher-student and student-student interactions and conversations throughout the classroom.

Ms. Babkin. Ms. Babkin described classroom management as "the approach one uses to make sure that students follow rules, are on task, and learn" (Survey, September 10, 2013), which is similar to how less relational classroom managers conceptualized classroom management (see prior section). As she elaborated her perspective further in subsequent conversations, it became clear that Ms. Babkin also believed classroom management was about building personal relationships by growing and learning with her students. Later in the year, she described her approach as "cooperative," which was individualized behavior management "to see what is most efficient and results in the least agitation for everybody" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). She tried to cater her classroom management to her students' needs instead of assuming her systems were beyond reproach. She prioritized connections with her students and used what she learned about each student to adjust her systems to their needs. This allowed her to "treat everybody as an individual instead of this big unit…I kind of approach managing things based on each kid," which she later described in the same interview. She recognized that students responded differently to classroom management and wanted to do her best to manage students through the relationships she built with them. For example, she explained how she occasionally ignored preset consequences from the color

chart system[14] to administer independent consequences consistent with her understanding of the individual student, such as moving a student who needed to be isolated away from peers or giving extra attention to a low-achieving student who was unable to do the work (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). Ms. Babkin still incorporated behavioral actions but explained how she modified the consequence to keep misbehaving students engaged in the work and maintain a positive relationship with them.

Ms. Babkin's focus on building relationships and getting to know and respond to students was evident in other ways. She took time during her lessons to have students share what they did outside of class or explain what they enjoyed about the classroom activity, facilitating entire classroom conversations and attempting to build a classroom community. She occasionally shared about her life, telling stories of her childhood growing up in New York City and experiences in college to teach life lessons such as rising above peer pressure and having difficult conversations with parents about education (Field Note, May 7, 2014). She felt these conversations facilitated a "connection with all of them…so that we can radically change each other's lives" (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013). She explained that these brief lessons helped her to address academic and behavioral issues that she saw occur in the classroom by addressing the "root" of the issue rather than solely getting a student to abide by the rules in that moment. Aside from meaningful class conversations, Ms. Babkin had an overall lighthearted classroom atmosphere, where she joked with students, made silly noises when teaching (Recording, February 24, 2014), provided them with candy or snacks, and gave hugs to students that walked by her while she was instructing (Recording, May 12, 2014). She intentionally used these actions to keep students engaged in the lesson and show how much she cared about them, which coincided with how she called her students "her kids" during interviews and "my friends" while teaching in the classroom (Field Note, June 2, 2014).

Mr. Vante. Mr. Vante emphasized the importance of building relationships and creating a safe environment with students as part of his classroom management. He initially defined classroom management as keeping the classroom "under control and just promote a good environment for learning" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013). He acknowledged the importance of systems and academics but, in further describing classroom management, he often had a "relational" frame to accomplishing those goals. For instance, he explained, "If I control them then I care about them and I hope that they show the same respect to me. If they respect me then they respect my rules and

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[14] Faithful implementation of the color chart system would have included negatively "color changing" students, first, before administering a consequence or assisting a disruptive student

expectations" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). Even though he described the importance of control and rules (he tried to come up with another word aside from "control" but could not), these aspects coincided with care and respect. He wanted the classroom to be managed but not through compliance, which tended to be the approach among less relational classroom managers. For him, classroom management meant establishing an atmosphere where "everybody can hear each other, everybody feels safe" and that he managed "relationships so they get to know me on a personal level; I get to know them on a personal level" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013).

He consistently emphasized having positive interactions with his middle-school students by joking and being sarcastic with them. In one instance, a school announcement was made that a group of students were to be dismissed for a field trip and several students joked that they should leave. Mr. Vante retorted that he was chaperoning, implying that he would be leaving them instead (Field Note, March 18, 2014). Rather than ignore or reprimand students for talking out, Mr. Vante took advantage of these opportunities to respond in jest towards his students, build rapport with them, and incorporate humor to further relationships. That short quip was indicative of how he often interacted with students. Also, given his understanding of his students' interests, particularly sports, he engaged in many non-academic conversations with them to build relationships. These were often short tangents approximately a minute or two long, so once conversations ran their course, Mr. Vante redirected student attention back to the content (e.g., Field Note, May 12, 2014). This showed that his initial reaction towards student misbehavior tended to be one that was more "lighthearted" and less aggressive compared to the stricter or sterner tone that less relational classroom managers often had.

He intentionally incorporated opportunities to get to know his students into his lesson plans. For his daily warm up activity, he always included a random non-academic question for students to answer. An example question was, "Would you rather be as fast as a cheetah or have eyes like a hawk," (Field Note, March 18, 2014) while another question had students share about their weekends (Field Note, May 12, 2014). He felt like these questions helped students to better engage in the academic portion of the warm-up and allowed him to learn about his students during class. Additionally, Mr. Vante also incorporated a funny or meaningful video every week as part of his lesson, often to share a life message ranging from considering the purpose of education to thinking about how to help their community. Meaningful videos provided students with other perspectives on life and extended education beyond the math concepts learned in class, according to Mr. Vante. One example of a video that he shared was about two local people who used their college degrees to

come back to the community that they grew up in and found ways to incorporate their talents. Mr. Vante used that video to ask students what would make them stay in their current city and what skills they could offer to develop their neighborhood (Recording, February 10, 2014). While it was important that students understood content, he wanted to engage students beyond academics "to raise [students'] spirits and set a [classroom] tone" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). He wanted to create an atmosphere where students felt comfortable and excited to learn about math while also promoting positive interactions between students. He still frequently presented content through lecturing, much like the less relational classroom managers, but was observed occasionally incorporating small group activities to have students engage with one another while learning content; group work activities were rarely observed or discussed by the less relational teachers.

Do Teachers who Report Different Kinds of Management Beliefs and Actions Receive Higher Ratings of Instructional Quality?

This section investigates whether the classroom management beliefs or actions that teachers reported on their surveys predicted their instructional quality, as measured by CERT observational evaluations. I began by investigating whether teachers' beliefs or actions indicated a difference in CERT score. Figure 4.8 summarizes the mean observational evaluation scores for teachers who reported a behavioral, academic, or relational belief or action on their surveys. It reveals that, on average, individuals with relational beliefs or actions had somewhat better evaluation scores (2.13 and 2.14 out of a maximum score of 3, respectively) than teachers who reported either a behavioral (2.08 and 2.02) or academic (2.05 and 1.99) beliefs or actions. However, one-way t-tests revealed these differences were not statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Figure 4.8: CERT Scores By Classroom Management Characteristic (n=83)
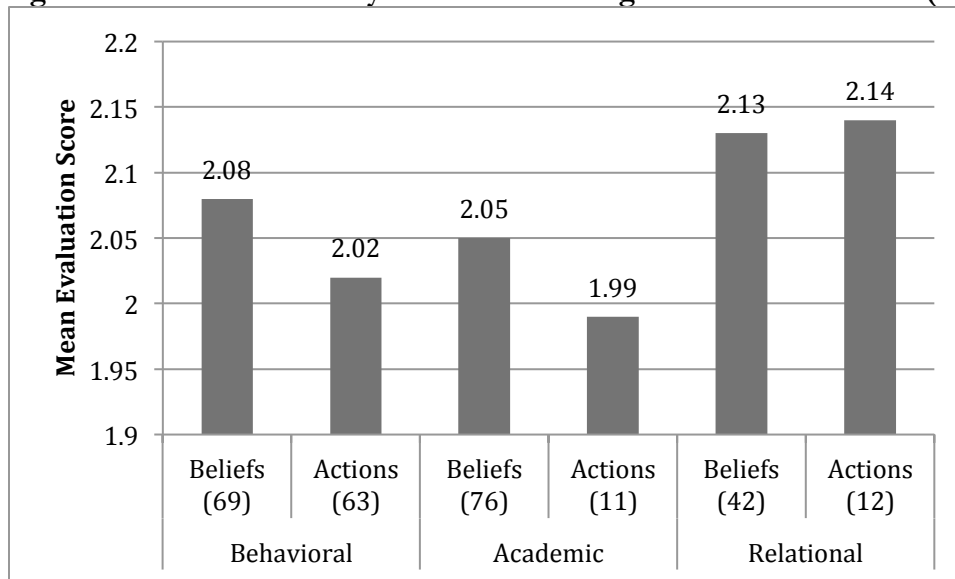
Note: 83 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both surveys and had available evaluations. Numbers in parentheses represent total number of teachers who provided the corresponding survey response.

I further investigated the relationship between teacher characteristics and teaching quality using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). Table 4.8 summarizes point estimates from models estimating teachers' observational rating (CERT) scores in standard deviation units as a function of their self-reported management beliefs and actions. I included each belief and action indicator variable separately across seven models and found only one statistically significant predictor. Model 3 indicates that teachers who reported relational beliefs on their surveys, on average, scored 0.181 standard deviations *higher* on the observational evaluations than teachers who reported no relational beliefs. These findings suggest that relational beliefs could be associated with teaching quality.

Next, I modeled all teacher characteristics together as a function of CERT scores in Model 8. No beliefs or actions significantly predicted evaluation scores. The point estimate for relational beliefs remained positive and similar in magnitude (0.18 standard deviations) but was no longer statistically significant after controlling for all other teacher characteristics and field instructor. While I initially expected positive relationships between classroom management actions and teaching quality, the "self-reported" nature of teacher actions could make them more representative of teachers' beliefs about their actions than the actions that teachers actually implement.

Table 4.8: Estimating CERT Evaluation Score as a Function of Teacher Characteristics

Teacher Characteristics	CERT Evaluation Score							
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
Academic Beliefs	0.119							0.058
	[0.156]							[0.165]
Behavioral Beliefs		0.090						0.091
		[0.111]						[0.119]
Relational Beliefs			0.181*					0.180
			[0.092]					[0.100]
Academic Actions				0.018				-0.106
				[0.139]				[0.153]
Behavioral Actions					-0.135			-0.203
					[0.106]			[0.122]
Relational Actions						0.086		0.008
						[0.124]		[0.133]
School Level							0.042	0.026
							[0.103]	[0.104]
Observations	168	168	168	168	168	168	168	168

Note: *** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$

Because teachers often reported beliefs and actions that spanned multiple categories, I also wanted to test whether having multifaceted or comprehensive beliefs or actions predicted teaching quality. I was interested in this, in part, due to previous studies suggesting that multi-dimensional approaches to management may be more effective than uni-dimensional approaches. I used HLM models to estimate whether reporting comprehensive beliefs about classroom management or comprehensive actions predicted better observational ratings. For these models, I created an indicator variable for whether teachers' survey responses about management beliefs included all three types (academic, behavior, relational) of beliefs (coded as "1") or not (coded as "0"); I repeated this for management actions. Henceforth, I refer to individuals who report all three types of beliefs or actions as having "comprehensive" beliefs or actions, respectively. For beliefs, the majority of CERT teachers reported both behavioral and academic beliefs (86 percent; see Figure 4.2). Therefore, the difference between a teacher who reported comprehensive beliefs (having all three types of beliefs) versus a teacher who did not report comprehensive beliefs (generally having only behavioral and academic beliefs) was most often determined by the presence of relational beliefs. In fact, only three teachers that reported relational beliefs were not included in the "comprehensive" group. In other words, the "relational" and "comprehensive" categorizations were really picking up the same set of teachers.

Table 4.9 summarizes the point estimates from a model estimating teacher observational rating scores as a function of these composite teacher characteristics. Results indicate that CERT field instructors evaluated teachers who reported a comprehensive understanding of classroom management 0.12 standard deviations *higher* than teachers who did not report a comprehensive understanding of classroom management, controlling for school level, comprehensive actions, and field instructor. This finding suggests teachers who reported a comprehensive understanding of classroom management received stronger observational evaluations of their teaching. However, because having comprehensive and relational beliefs is confounded, as described above, it is not altogether possible to disentangle whether the relationship is being driven by having comprehensive or relational beliefs. The similarities and differences between classroom management characteristics of "comprehensive" and "relational" are discussed in more detail in the final chapter.

The measure of comprehensive actions was not significantly associated with evaluation scores. The limitations of self-reporting actions described earlier could again apply to these findings.

Table 4.9: Estimating CERT Evaluation Score as a Function of Composite Teacher Characteristics

Teacher Characteristics	CERT Evaluation Score
Comprehensive Beliefs	0.120*
	[0.058]
Comprehensive Actions	-0.105
	[0.095]
School Level	0.037
	[0.102]
Observations	168

Note: *** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Summary

This chapter explored teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions, how beliefs and actions change over time, the relationship between beliefs and actions, and whether classroom management beliefs and actions are predictors of teaching quality. Throughout each section, the vast majority of teachers focused their beliefs and actions on behavioral and academic aspects of the classroom. These beliefs and actions emphasized establishing and consistently enforcing behavioral systems to promote learning, while also managing students by engaging them with or directing them to content, though the focus on behavioral aspects tended to decrease over time. Further

investigation of beliefs and actions revealed that the additional presence and emphasis on the relational aspects of the classroom appeared to distinguish teachers from one another. Case study analyses suggested that "more relational" classroom managers often focused on adjusting behavioral systems and instruction to student needs and building positive teacher-student and student-student interactions, while "less relational" classroom managers tended to prioritize how they could enforce systems and use instruction to control student behavior. Furthermore, HLM analyses revealed that teachers with more relational beliefs were rated significantly higher on observational evaluations, though it is not entirely clear whether this relationship is driven by having relational or comprehensive beliefs, as these two categorizations are confounded.

In this chapter, I have studied the kinds of classroom management beliefs and actions beginning teachers possess, and how beliefs and actions change over time. In the next chapter, I explore classroom management influences to learn more about which people and experiences teachers reported as having an impact on their classroom management beliefs and actions throughout their first year of teaching.

Chapter 5: Classroom Management Influences Findings

In this chapter, I explore the various factors that influenced how teachers learned about or enacted classroom management. These influences included people and experiences that helped teachers to develop in classroom management by incorporating a new strategy or having a different approach to managing the classroom. I begin with an analysis of survey data from all CERT teachers to identify three groups of classroom management influences reported throughout the year: programmatic training and support, school personnel, and classroom experiences. Then, I analyze case participant data to provide more detailed accounts of how teachers described these influences and how they helped teachers to develop as classroom managers. Afterwards, I investigate survey data by time period to indicate how the number of teachers who reported programmatic supports statistically decreased while the number of teachers that reported developing through classroom experience statistically increased. I conclude by exploring the case participant data to identify how programmatic personnel, specifically, appeared to give feedback that was less specific, timely, or novel at the end of the year as well as how teachers consistently learned from their mistakes throughout classroom experience.

Who or What Influenced Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Actions?

My analysis of program-wide survey data across teachers' first year of teaching revealed three main types of influences on classroom management categorized by where the source of information came from, shown below in Figure 5.1: programmatic training and support, personnel from the teachers' schools, and learning from their classroom experiences. Programmatic training and support consisted of a summer training prior to the beginning of the school year as well as personnel from the two programs that teachers were enrolled in: the Alternative Certification Program (ACP) and the interim certification program (CERT). According to participants, the three most influential types of school personnel were administrators, instructional coaches, and colleagues. Aside from school and programmatic influences, teachers reported learning from their classroom experiences by

adjusting their classroom management according to trial and error. I elaborate on each type of influence below.

Figure 5.1: Teachers' Classroom Management Influences
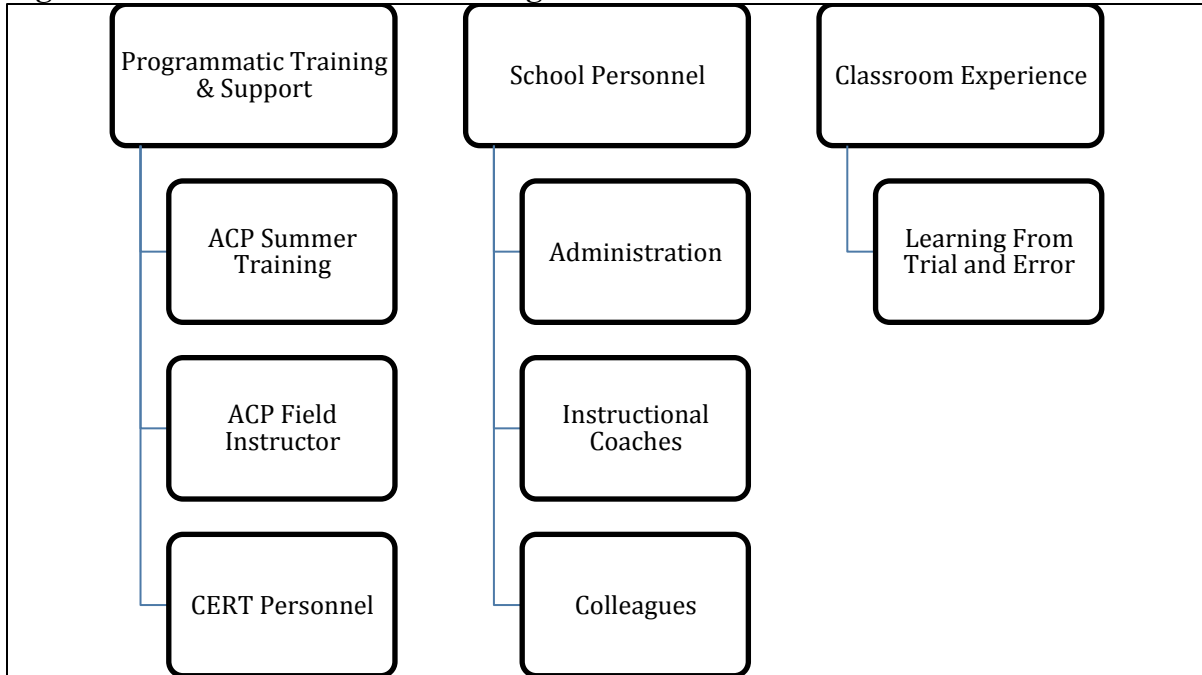
Programmatic analyses. Table 5.1 summarizes the distribution of the types of influences reported by all CERT teachers who completed both programmatic surveys. Results come from analyses of open-ended responses to a question asking from whom or where did teachers learn about effective strategies. 78 percent of survey responders attributed learning from program influences, while 43 percent listed a school influence and 17 percent listed classroom experiences. Within program influences, ACP summer training and personnel was most often referenced but there were several responses about learning from CERT personnel as well.

Table 5.1: Summary of Influences From Survey Data (n=87)

Variable	Proportion of Teachers (Std. Dev.)
Programmatic Support	0.78 (0.42)
School Personnel	0.43 (0.50)
Classroom Experience	0.17 (0.38)

Note: Proportions sum greater than 1.00 because several teachers shared multiple influences per answer. 87 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both programmatic surveys.

Case participant analyses. While the survey data suggested the importance of programmatic supports to classroom management development, the richer case participant data indicated that teachers focused on school personnel. When teachers were given a chance to describe their influences throughout the first year, they talked most often about administration, instructional coaches, and teaching faculty. Shown in Table 5.2, programmatic support were mentioned in 34 percent of the case participant influence data, 48 percent of comments about influences focused on school personnel, and 22 percent of comments were about their classroom experience.

Table 5.2: Summary of Influences From Case Participant Data (n=5)

Variable	Proportion of Case Participant Influence Units (Count)
Programmatic Support	0.34 (96)
School Personnel	0.48 (135)
Classroom Experience	0.18 (51)

Note: The sample of 5 teachers represents all case participants.

Results from Tables 5.1 and 5.2 are inconsistent. School personnel and classroom experience had similar proportions in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2, but programmatic support had a noticeable difference. I offer several possible explanations for this discrepancy. One likely explanation is the rich case participant data provided teachers more opportunities to go in depth about the influences. Teachers may be quick to list programmatic support, specifically ACP, as an influence when asked to list a singular influence, but when case participants had the opportunity to discuss influences in depth, teachers were less likely to dwell on programmatic influences. Another less likely explanation is the difference in data collection, as the survey question measured who or what teachers learned effective strategies from whereas I asked throughout qualitative interviews about teachers' influences of classroom management, broadly speaking. If neither of these explanations account for the difference in proportions, then it is possible that the case participants are not representative of the larger CERT teacher sample; I consider these possibilities in further detail in my Limitations section at the end of Chapter 6.

Though survey results offer a birds-eye description of the landscape of influences on classroom management, qualitative analyses helped to shed light on how various factors influenced teachers' development in classroom management. Below I elaborate on each type of influence using case participant data.

Programmatic training and support. Teachers reported often learning about specific strategies to manage classrooms from the ACP summer training and program field instructors,

though for field instructors, their impact depended upon the quality of the feedback they provided to teachers. Although several teachers shared how certain aspects of ACP were unhelpful, they found it more valuable than the CERT program, which they felt offered narrow knowledge about only a couple of classroom management approaches.

ACP summer training. Teachers reported learning how to implement the behavioral management cycle (BMC) and other related behavioral actions from the ACP summer preparatory training and their leader during that time. The summer training focused on managing the classroom through a behavioral cycle of setting clear expectations, narrating individual students' actions, and administering consequences for students that did not meet an expectation. Mr. Frank shared how the summer training taught him specific strategies to implement because he did not know of any classroom management strategies prior to enrolling in ACP. He learned about behavior narration—verbal positive reinforcement to encourage model behavior from the classroom—and corresponding techniques from summer training leaders, who were "giving me ideas because I literally had zero ideas. I had ideas but they were [bad] ideas. But they were giving me good ideas. Behavior narration showed me what I was doing wrong…. I thought I was giving explicit directions and like giving out enough consequences but I really wasn't. Behavior narration showed me what I should be doing" (Personal Interview, April 10, 2014). Summer preparation helped correct actions that Mr. Frank was incorrectly implementing and replaced them with a system to manage student behavior.

During the summer training, teachers learned about other classroom management strategies that they ultimately incorporated into their classrooms. The summer training was many teachers' first exposure to teaching methods, which could be one reason why CERT teachers frequently reported it. They learned basic classroom management strategies regarding how to deal with student misbehavior and encourage academic engagement, such as promoting an appropriate body posture for students and counting down for attention (Babkin, Field Note, June 2, 2014; Frank, Field Note, April 29, 2014); giving instructions, checking for student understanding, and positive reinforcement (Sand, Field Note, April 29, 2014); how to administer consequences, (Sand, Personal Interview, December 4, 2013); and where to seat individual students (Frank, Personal Interview, April 10, 2014).

Teachers also explained how clinical experiences during the summer training gave them opportunities to practice the BMC.[15] Ms. Babkin and Ms. Chatman alike shared how they learned from their experiences to improve in their classroom management, notably, from their "mistakes" while in their field placement (Babkin, Survey, September 10, 2013; Chatman, Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). Teachers shared how their clinical experience was a positive time for them to practice strategies related to the BMC, giving them opportunities to hone skills related to this model of classroom management and incorporate feedback from programmatic personnel until they were proficient at providing clear expectations, narrating behavior, and administering consequences.

Though clinical experiences were helpful, Mr. Frank believed a closer match between the student academic achievement level and school structure of his field placement school and current school would have helped his classroom management development. His field placement was in a high-achieving urban school that had the same behavioral systems throughout each classroom with strong administrative support. This context was drastically different from his current school, which had mostly low-achieving students, no school-wide system, and little administrative support. During the summer, he did not face any of the same management issues he encountered in his full-time classroom, making it difficult to apply the classroom management skills he had learned: "If it's not analogous to what you do once you're in [your full-time teaching placement]… I don't think it's really helpful" (Personal Interview, April 10, 2014). He believed his preparation should have reflected the skills needed for his full-time context; as a result, he felt his clinical experience did not adequately prepare him to manage his classroom.

Another, more general issue discussed by case participants about ACP was the limited opportunities to learn about alternative methods to manage the classroom, notably how content could be incorporated. Though the summer training prepared teachers with one behavioral approach to manage the classroom, Mr. Vante shared how there was no additional time dedicated towards learning about other classroom management models or perspectives. In describing his experience at the ACP summer training, he thought the broad focus on the BMC was helpful but did not apply to all teachers and to all situations, leaving some teachers at a lack of options. He and several other case participants thought academic instruction should have also been emphasized as central to managing classrooms; he explained that teachers "need to be more prepared about how to

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[15] Clinical experience is being included as a part of teacher preparation because it is generally under the guidance of at least a mentor teacher throughout. Oftentimes, it can also include other programmatic personnel to assist in teacher development.

teach math and the management will come [afterwards]" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). Mr. Vante believed classroom management stemmed from good instruction and modifying teacher preparation curriculum accordingly would have helped him to become a better classroom manager.

ACP field instructors. ACP continued to provide classroom management supports throughout the year by sending field instructors (ACP-FIs) to observe and debrief with teachers. Mr. Vante said he learned from his ACP-FI about how to provide clear directions and explained how they "were always working on it. The one thing she was always saying is when I give directions, they listen and they love and respect me. When I didn't give such clear directions that's when things were more chaotic" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). His ACP-FI saw students misbehave when they were unsure about what to do so she gave Mr. Vante specific advice on how to improve in this area.

While Mr. Vante worked on giving directions with his field instructor, Mr. Frank's ACP-FI held him accountable to consistently enforce the BMC throughout the year:

> He's helpful…because my management wasn't great at the beginning of the year…. My biggest problem at the beginning of the year was consistency and so forcing me to be consistent by writing cues into my lesson plans, observing me a lot, debriefing all the time. Pointing out my strengths and weaknesses. He would tell me to do it and look to see I had done it when he had visited. He was very helpful in that respect. (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014)

The ACP-FI helped Mr. Frank incorporate specific changes into his lesson plan based on his observations and held Mr. Frank accountable for what they had discussed prior to each ensuing visit. The ACP-FI had a process for observing, debriefing, and requiring implementation to ensure Mr. Frank implemented classroom management actions and developed in behavior management.

Teachers did not find all ACP-FIs to be influential, as some failed to provide novel information. Ms. Chatman explained, "From a classroom management perspective…I don't feel like [my ACP-FI has] been a source of new information or new strategies for me" (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014). She reported that she had already learned the information that her ACP-FI offered, which was unhelpful and a major reason why the field instructor was not influential. This example highlights the importance of providing teachers with different perspectives on how to manage classrooms.

By contrast, Mr. Sand was upset about receiving repetitive information from his ACP-FI; in fact, he agreed with his field instructor's feedback that he was not successfully enforcing the BMC. Mr. Sand explained how he was frustrated hearing repetitive information from his ACP-FI about

enforcing the BMC when this was an area he was actively but unsuccessfully trying to improve. He knew what the problem was but did not feel he was learning from his ACP-FI about how to improve:

> I think it would be frustrating for her [ACP-FI] and me to come in and say the same thing and it doesn't work for me. Like, [my implementation of] the BMC is not good at the consequences. I get that they need to be there and I see why it's important. I see why my students need them because I've tried a lot of other ways to get them invested and I can see why they respond really well to consequences and short-term rewards. But it's frustrating. She tries and she's a good person and her advice is definitely helpful but not exactly where I need it. (Field Note, May 28, 2014)

Mr. Sand acknowledged he needed to improve in administering consequences, but it appeared that he needed a different type of feedback in order to promote a change in actions. The field instructor seemed to dwell on the same shortcoming without offering new solutions. Mr. Sand knew it was important to improve, but to him, constantly hearing about an area he should change was frustrating and not helping him to develop. He felt that a new kind of feedback, still around the need to improve consequences, would likely have been helpful.

CERT Personnel. Case participants reported several instances of learning about classroom management throughout the CERT program. Mr. Vante, for example, felt his CERT field instructors (CERT-FI) validated how he managed the classroom, recalling a conversation he had with his CERT-FI: "What I was doing was working and I could keep it up if I wanted to. Even though I was striving for a little bit more tighter [classroom management]. Keep doing some of the things I was doing. The kids do appreciate you. You could see them learning" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). He felt reaffirmed by his CERT-FI and was encouraged to continue similarly managing students. His field instructor gave no specific recommendations, but the validation positively reinforced Mr. Vante. Additionally, Mr. Sand shared how he learned one strategy to build student relationships from his CERT seminar leader. The leader taught Mr. Sand to "tell students that you notice something every day. You pick one student who you're trying to build a relationship with and every day you notice, you don't even make a judgment or say it's positive or negative… Whatever it is, you're saying one more thing every day. I thought that was a cool tool" (Field Note, May 28, 2014). From this one CERT seminar, in particular, he learned about specific instructions on how to apply a classroom management action, helping him to incorporate a relational classroom management action.

Though there were reported isolated instances of positive classroom management development, teachers generally felt CERT seminars did not provide a steady stream of novel or practical information. Ms. Chatman explained how her CERT seminar "has provided me with a lot of information that I already knew. So that was really just double doses of stuff that I heard a lot before. We talked about [classroom] management there but it wasn't new or revolutionary for me" (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014). Similarly, Mr. Frank said, "I actually found most of what she [his CERT seminar instructor] talked to us about not to be that relevant" (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014). He thought that the CERT seminar leader focused her curriculum on classrooms with extreme behavioral issues, which he found inapplicable to his classroom. In fact, he often explained how he thought it was unnecessary to attend seminars in part because they did not help him to develop in classroom management.

While she also felt CERT seminars could be improved, Ms. Babkin had a critique of her CERT-FI, who she thought did not offer critical feedback about her classroom management. She explained how she "got it real easy with people's criticisms this year but it [critical feedback] would've been helpful…because I could've grown a lot more from that" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). She explained how her CERT-FI offered only small "tweaks" in what to adjust in her classroom management; she found the generally positive nature of her CERT-FI's feedback to be unhelpful. She wanted to be a better classroom manager and without critical feedback from her CERT-FI, she felt she was unable to improve.

School personnel. Case participants indicated that school personnel directly influenced their classroom management beliefs and actions by often providing them with specific feedback on how to practically improve classroom management after observations. However, they sometimes complained about school personnel giving delayed, abstract feedback, which provided additional insight into how teachers preferred to learn about classroom management.

Administration. Teachers acknowledged that administrators, including principals and school CEOs, supported them in improving how they managed classrooms. Mr. Sand often did not enjoy the interactions he had with his administrators but recognized that their specific feedback helped him to make necessary changes in behavior management. He explained how he did his best to meet the continual recommendations his administrators had for him: "My administration…they'll come in and observe and give me three things to do. And I'll do them and they'll say good job; here are three more things to do" (Field Note, May 28, 2014). The consistent push for classroom management improvement was at times difficult to endure because he was evaluated through random and

frequent observations. But he acknowledged that the process helped him to become a better classroom manager because he received suggestions on how to quiet his classroom and which consequences to administer.

Likewise, Ms. Chatman reported that administrators, at one point, gave her a broader understanding of classroom management, but she also explained how her administration was often unavailable to help her to develop. At the beginning of the year, her principal set a "broader vision for classroom management, so we'll [the staff] talk about issues in the community, parent communication…that kind of sets the vision or framework for thinking about what our kids are dealing with" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). Specifically, Ms. Chatman felt that her administrators taught her a fresh perspective on how her students desired discipline as part of their learning environment and how the surrounding school community could impact her classroom management. This alternative perspective on classroom management helped her to set the tone for her classroom at the beginning of the year. Unfortunately, this was one of few interactions she actually had with her administration. Though she wished for more such guidance, she also recognized that administrators were busy taking care of other pertinent school business rather than pedagogically supporting teachers, saying in the same interview, "I know they [administrators] can help. I understand why they're not there too."

Although teachers felt that administrators sometimes helped them manage classrooms, they often found feedback from administrative debriefing sessions (infrequent one-on-one sessions with the principal after an observational visit) to be unhelpful. Ms. Babkin, for example, was eager to improve in classroom management but felt that her principal's debrief sessions did not offer information that was relevant to her growth. Referring to one interaction, she explained, "And then my principal came and she had told me that my management had gone down at a certain point and I need to hone it. I needed to get back to where it was beforehand. But she didn't tell me how or even what specifically she was talking about" (Field Note, May 7, 2014).

In addition to wanting administrators' feedback to be more specific, teachers also shared how they wished it came in a timely fashion. Mr. Vante and Mr. Frank both shared how their principal gave feedback long after the original observation, making it unhelpful. As Mr. Frank bluntly stated, "It's worthless, even though it's evaluative, partially because the feedback comes significantly later." Because his debrief occurred three months after the initial observation, he felt the feedback was outdated and irrelevant (Field Note, June 5, 2014).

Instructional coaches. Teachers felt that coaches at their school placements (i.e., instructional coaches, curricular coaches, and assistant deans) often helped them to improve in classroom management. According to participants, the most influential coaches were ones who observed their classrooms often and provided specific feedback for improvement. For example, Mr. Sand described one instructional coach that regularly observed his classroom the first several months of the school year and gave him strategies to implement, such as "seating arrangements and systems, whole lot of stuff with consequences, how to talk with students, how to word things. You have to tell kids that this is their job and that they have to punch in." Mr. Sand appreciated hearing exactly how he should manage the classroom saying, "The really specific advice is really helpful and I think general advice got lost because there was so much to think about" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). Being told what to do took the guesswork out of problem solving issues on his own and gave him direction on how to improve his classroom management.

One of the most involved school personnel appeared to be Ms. Chatman's instructional coach, Ms. Kim, to whom she attributed much of her classroom management development to a timely cycle of specific feedback. Ms. Chatman explained, "She's in my classroom almost every day. There's such a solid feedback cycle from her that I've learned so much from her" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). Frequent visits allowed Ms. Kim to see what was happening in the classroom and provided consistent feedback on how Ms. Chatman managed her classroom. Ms. Kim always debriefed with Ms. Chatman in person or online shortly after each visit to communicate feedback. Ms. Chatman appreciated the quick turnaround of feedback because it allowed her to clearly remember what she did and consider immediate changes for the following day. As part of these regular debriefs, Ms. Kim focused on specific, practical advice, or what she called "quick hits," which Ms. Chatman was supposed to prioritize. Rather than overwhelm a teacher with a multitude of items to change or theoretical musings, Ms. Kim highlighted a handful of actions for Ms. Chatman to focus her efforts on, such as how to deal with an individual, what consequence should be administered for specific student behavior, or advice on how to improve a particular activity (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013). Ms. Chatman felt this targeted feedback guided her towards what was most important in order to make meaningful strides in classroom management.

While case participants indicated that most instructional coaches supported their development as classroom managers, several teachers felt some coaches negatively impacted their development. Teachers reported that these coaches did not do their jobs appropriately, causing a strain on how teachers managed the classroom. Mr. Sand, for instance, explained how he worked

with one instructional coach in charge of student discipline who judged teachers' classroom management based on how frequent they had him deal with student misbehavior. When Mr. Sand learned about how this disciplinary coach evaluated teachers, Mr. Sand reported changing how he administered consequences to limit his interactions with the unsupportive disciplinary coach rather than administer consequences according to student misbehavior. Ms. Babkin dealt with multiple unsupportive instructional coaches, explaining, "Sometimes it's like they [coaches] want to see us fail because they want to catch us…you don't know who's watching you and who's out to get you" (Personal Interview, June 23, 2014). Ms. Babkin felt the need to portray a positive façade with her classroom management to avoid repercussions or unwanted responsibilities. She changed how she administered consequences by keeping disciplinary measures "in the classroom" rather than get her unsupportive instructional coaches involved.

Colleagues. According to case participants, school colleagues were another important influence on their development as classroom managers. Specifically, veteran teachers modeled and shared advice about how to deal with populations of students similar to those that case participants taught. Mr. Vante, for example, frequently spoke with and observed veteran teachers with the intent of improving his own classroom management. Mr. Vante learned from veteran teachers because they "have been here for five years [and] know the kids, dealt with kids like this before, [are] more hands on, [are] more in the line of fire, know how to handle them…I see veteran teachers here be more helpful [than ACP] in dealing with individual kids" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013). Mr. Vante knew that his colleagues had experience working with similar students so he solicited advice from them about how to better manage the students through seating charts and lesson plans. He referred to one veteran teacher, Ms. Gaines, as contributing most to his growth:

> When things were pretty rowdy, she would come in and lend a hand. If I were having trouble with a certain student, I would call her and say, "I'm sending the student down to you. Could you come and talk to this person." I would say, "They would need an attitude adjustment" and she would come down and talk to them…. She was someone I knew [who could] come in here and handle individual situations. (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014)

He trusted her skills in how to manage his classroom and called for her assistance during times when his classroom was difficult to manage. She provided him support and, over time, Mr. Vante explained how he even tried to emulate some of Ms. Gaines' actions such as using a specific attention-getter and having a discussion-based classroom.

Though case participants often learned strategies to embrace by observing colleagues, they also, at times, learned what to avoid. Teachers saw and heard things from other teachers that they did not agree with or want to mimic. Mr. Frank, for example, avoided giving contracts as consequences to students after he observed how ineffective this strategy was in another classroom (Personal Interview, April 29, 2014). Mr. Vante adopted humor and light-heartedness to distinguish himself from his colleagues who he perceived as too serious and angry (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). Mr. Sand, though, was most vocal about trying not to manage like other teachers at his school. He was particularly wary of emulating the strict, controlling style of many of his colleagues: "A lot of my colleagues at school, talk about in terms of [being an] effective [classroom] manager to me feels dehumanizing and authoritarian. It is not what I want to be" (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014). He conceptualized and wanted to manage the classroom differently than teachers who had an "authoritarian" mindset, specifically avoiding a focus on managing student behavior through punishments and rewards. Rather, Mr. Sand intentionally tried to build relationships with students and was occasionally lenient with administering consequences in an effort to distinguish himself from other teachers at his school.

Classroom Experience. In describing factors that influenced their development as managers, teachers also frequently described learning through a process of trial and error during classroom teaching experiences. Teachers reflected on their experiences, specifically their interactions with individual students or disruptive classes that they felt were ineffective, and, based upon their reflections, made intentional changes to their classroom management.

Learning through trial and error. Teachers described learning how to manage classrooms through the process of trial and error while working with students. On surveys, a number of teachers mentioned "trial and error" as being influential, though they did not further elaborate. Analyses of case participant data, specifically, indicated that teachers often implemented a strategy or system with the intent of it being a "trial period" to see how students responded. If students responded well and the classroom was well-managed as a result, teachers would continue using that strategy. Strategies that exacerbated issues or had minimal impact prompted teachers to try other strategies until they found one to be effective. This suggested that teachers valued experimenting with their actions in addition to hearing information from personnel. For example, Ms. Chatman encountered management challenges with two particularly disruptive students, Chaz and Hope; in response to perceived failures with her current system, she reconsidered how she might manage them. Specifically, she recognized that "the checks and the color change [behavioral systems] are not

very effective for either of them. Both of them respond fairly well to proximity [so she] went by to stand by one of their desks" (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014). Ms. Chatman continued her implementation of her behavioral systems for others in the class but made adjustments for individuals who were not responding to class-wide consequences. Rather than try to force the particularly disruptive students to adhere to a system that she identified as not meeting their needs, she reflected on the classroom management actions that did work for the two students.

Mr. Frank also exemplified learning from experience when he changed his "relaxed" approach towards classroom management. He tried to give students more freedom in the classroom and avoided enforcing his behavioral systems as often to see if his students would similarly respond as they did with strict enforcement. However, over the course of several weeks, this approach gradually did not work and students were increasingly more disruptive. Mr. Frank's "trial" of a relaxed classroom management approach led to an "error" of student misbehavior. As a result, he re-established a behavioral system—giving students "checks" as warnings and a certain number of checks would result in specific consequences—which he had incorporated earlier in the year to deal with the increased misbehavior (Field Note, June 17, 2014).

Do the Factors That Teachers Report Influencing Classroom Management Change Over Time?

In this section, I discuss analyses about whether teachers reported different influences over time. I begin by exploring program wide survey data, which indicated that a greater proportion of teachers reported being influenced by classroom experiences while fewer teachers reported being influenced by programmatic influences over time. I end with analyses of the case participant data, which seemed to support the change in teachers' reported influences by showing how teachers preferred to hear about alternative methods of managing the classroom rather than the one approach often given by programmatic personnel.

Programmatic analyses. Survey data were analyzed to determine if there were statistically significant changes in what teachers reported as influences throughout the year as depicted in Table 5.3. I used McNemar's chi-square tests to determine if there was a statistically significant change in whether a teacher listed an influence or not between the beginning and the end of the school year. Results indicated a statistically significant decrease in reports of program (ACP) influences over time (χ^2=6.55, ρ <0.011). On the other hand, teachers mentioned school personnel (χ^2=-1.47, ρ <0.225)

and classroom experiences (χ^2=-6.40, ρ<0.011) as influences significantly more often at the end of the year, but only the latter was statistically significant.

Table 5.3: McNemar's Chi-Square Tests of Teachers' Influences Over Time (n=55)

Variable	Proportion of Teachers Time Period 1 (Std. Dev.)	Proportion of Teachers Time Period 2 (Std. Dev.)	χ^2 (p-value)
Programmatic Support	0.78 (0.06)	0.58 (0.07)	6.55* (0.011)
School Personnel	0.25 (0.06)	0.36 (0.06)	-1.47 (0.225)
Classroom Experience	0.07 (0.04)	0.22 (0.06)	-6.40* (0.011)

Note: * ρ<0.05. ** ρ< .01. *** ρ < .001 of values. 55 teachers denote the number of teachers who completed both surveys and provided a complete answer for the question about influences.

Case participant analyses. Case participant data indicated a similar trend in decreasing programmatic influences and the increasing impact of classroom experience over time. Figure 5.2 compares the proportion of each type of influence that case participants reported at two different time points. Results demonstrated that programmatic supports were the only influence that was reported less frequently over time. Other influences were mentioned more frequently during Time 2 (gray shading) than Time 1 (black shading). The two types of influences that had the largest proportional shifts were programmatic support and classroom experience, with programmatic support decreasing from 29 percent to 21 percent and classroom experience increasing from 20 percent to 24 percent.

Figure 5.2: Proportion of Case Participant Influence Units By Time Period (Counts)
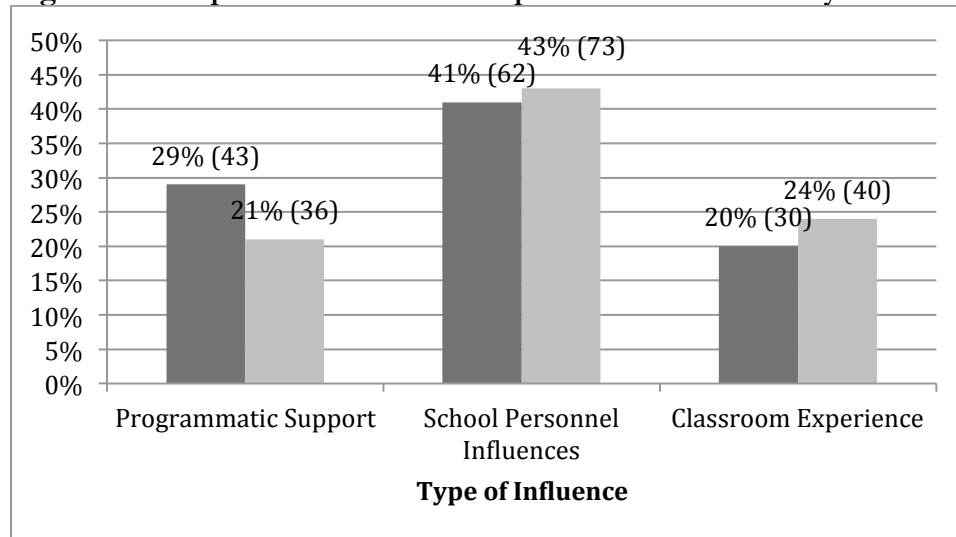
Note: These bar graphs represent the percentage of each type of influences reported out of all influences reported by the five case participants. The black bars represent time period 1 while the grey bars represent time period 2.

Analyses in this section suggest a decreasing impact of programmatic support and increasing impact of school-based influences, specifically classroom experience, throughout the year. I investigate these two patterns through analysis of case participant data next.

Case participant analyses. My analysis of case participant data similarly revealed that programmatic support seemed to become less influential over time, while classroom experiences remained a consistent and strong influence. Several teachers shared how program personnel, specifically, taught them actions that they embraced early in the year, but, over time, they preferred to learn about alternative ways to manage the classroom. Classroom experiences, on the other hand, consistently prompted most teachers throughout the year to use different actions to deal with misbehaving students even though these changes were not always beneficial. Below, I provide examples from some case participants to illustrate these themes.

Decreasing programmatic personnel impact. Mr. Vante explained how ACP helped him to initially develop in classroom management by teaching and supporting his implementation of the BMC. The summer training prepared him to establish behavioral systems prior to the school year: "This summer…we went to that summer training. Like I said, that [classroom management] was one of the main focuses…we had to have the behavior management down first. We spent a lot of time on the narration" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013). He felt that ACP gave him a foundational skillset to manage the classroom and then continued to support him throughout the year with frequent field instructor visits to ensure consistent enforcement. As he put it, "My [ACP-FI] who's in here twice a month, giving me suggestions on how to manage certain individuals because I have the general structure down. But then there are still those troublemakers [students] that need help with it" (Personal Interview, December 5, 2013). Mr. Vante's ACP-FI provided him with ongoing guidance about areas in which to improve.

Mr. Sand similarly felt that he had learned much from ACP's early training experiences but, over time, the program guidance became repetitive and unhelpful. He described how he initially learned about classroom management from his summer training seminar leader who modeled effective management practices:

> [He was] teaching us while he was teaching us about teaching…he would use the strategies
> on us…. He would use these techniques and we kind of see how they worked even among
> us, as people who are kind of above it and knew what was happening but also we really
> wanted to impress him and get those points. So it kind of got into our head as it was being

used on us that we could use it on our students as well. (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013)

The ACP summer training thus provided Mr. Sand learning opportunities to observe and experience the impact of classroom management actions from a student's perspective, which helped him to later apply similar actions in his own classroom. Separate from the summer training, Mr. Sand described how his ACP-FI fostered growth in his classroom management skills, sharing how she "is like a mentor...and she gives me a lot of feedback" (Personal Interview, December 4, 2013). Initially, he felt that his ACP-FI also provided practical feedback that helped him to improve, such as how to work with individual students, give clear directions, and establish direct expectations for students to work towards.

However, over time Mr. Sand felt that ACP personnel offered less frequent support. Towards the end of the year, he commented, "[ACP personnel] have taken a step back, they're at that point where they're like, 'I'm done coming to your classroom'" (Field Note, April 29, 2014). He felt a noticeable absence from programmatic personnel after receiving frequent support early in the year and was discouraged, possibly anxious, about having to manage the classroom without additional help.

Even when programmatic personnel support was available, several case participants consistently described how these personnel only provided one method of classroom management when they wanted to learn others. For instance, Mr. Sand felt ACP gave little guidance on how else he could improve: "It'd be nice to hear something different. I think the big weakness from them [ACP]; they're always giving the same, the one model of classroom management. Doesn't your school rely on something different?" (Field Note, April 29, 2014). He thought the recommendations from his ACP-FI and ACP professional development provided classroom management information that was irrelevant to his context and circumstances. He recognized that a singular method of classroom management was insufficient for all teachers, and in order for his continued development, he wanted to learn about alternative perspectives and strategies that he could implement into his classroom. Ms. Chatman even described how her CERT seminar leader provided "double doses of stuff that I heard a lot before" (Personal Interview, June 19, 2014). She felt that teacher educators were teaching strategies she already knew or heard before, which offered little value for her classroom management development.

Furthermore, Mr. Vante was meeting and communicating regularly with his ACP-FI, but at times, Mr. Vante felt like he only heard one method of classroom management when he wanted to hear about alternative ways he could manage his classroom:

> She tries to come in with that blanket foundation [but] every school is different. I didn't have too many fights in my classroom, so I didn't need to do some of the things she said. Maybe she didn't understand my relationship with everybody so that's why what sounded like disrespect or anger may be a kid just playing or messing around or maybe I said something earlier where I would expect some feedback. (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014)

Mr. Vante felt that his ACP-FI was only sharing about one approach of classroom management when he suspected that alternative methods were likely needed to effectively manage each unique classroom. The ACP-FI recommended the program-endorsed perspective (i.e., maintain a high standard of silence for students) but Mr. Vante thought that she was unaware of how his classroom typically operated, making her recommendations unhelpful. Mr. Vante felt his ACP-FI came in with one perspective on how he should develop in classroom management, which he felt was not responsive to his particular classroom.

Another reason why there was a decreasing impact of programmatic personnel was that feedback aligned with how teachers managed the classroom. Mr. Vante explained how he intentionally did not incorporate certain strategies that his ACP-FI recommended because the strategies were not aligned with his method of classroom management:

> She [his ACP-FI] was one of the ones who said, "If [students] were whispering, you need to get on them [to stop]." I'm not a believer in that… Some of the stuff she would say, I would just nod my head and agree. Whereas some of the stuff… I didn't use because I was stubborn, and I had my own mindset, that's what I'm doing. Especially late in the year, that's what I'm doing, this is what I've been doing, this is what has been working for me. (Personal Interview, June 16, 2014)

Mr. Vante thought his ACP-FI's feedback was contrary to his beliefs about managing students through casual interactions and creating a comfortable learning environment. Specifically, Mr. Vante did not feel it was necessary to demand silence from students at all times, as his ACP-FI recommended. He believed that he managed his classroom effectively already, even if his approach did not align with those endorsed by ACP personnel.

The consistent impact of classroom experiences. Most case participants described how classroom experiences with their students consistently influenced how they managed classrooms

throughout the year. Mr. Sand reported how his misbehaving first-hour class (out of five total classes that he taught) was a consistent influence on his classroom management throughout the year. His experience with this mismanaged class of students prompted him to try new strategies and, though most of them seemed to be inevitably ineffective, Mr. Sand appeared to continue learning. In describing some of the issues he had with this class, he said, "[this] class has a lot of problems [and] has a culture that is very screwed up. They'll just yell at each other and it's just not one person. No matter how you split it up, there is always two people next to each other that are friends and are going to talk to each other or are enemies and are going to argue forever or both. It's a lot of networks of dysfunction" (Field Note, June 23, 2014). His class had a large number of disruptive students and a troublesome dynamic amongst them so Mr. Sand tried to initially "focus more intensely on my relationships with the boys in this class" (Journal, February 10, 2014). He thought that building relationships might be an effective strategy to manage these students. He informally talked with students during class and got to know some of their interests. Though these actions appeared promising, he felt they were only momentarily effective.

Mr. Frank explained that he was similarly impacted by his experiences trying to manage classroom misbehavior. In particular, he had to continually change how he managed his classroom in response to changes in student behavior. Right before an extended school break, for example, he reported classroom misbehavior became worse. In response, he tried being stricter with his enforcement of the BMC and quicker to administer consequences for student misbehavior. This would include sending students out of the classroom or moving them to a different desk away from their friends.

Over time, Mr. Sand continued to try different strategies to manage this one classroom of students throughout the year:

> Group work, different systems to motivate for group work because they do talk a lot…I had
> a stamp… And they would be like, they don't care…. I work a lot on one-on-one
> relationships with students but it falls apart as soon as peer pressure [happens]. I'm trying to
> think of other stuff. I've tried a lot. None of it stuck. (Field Note, April 29, 2014)

He described how he incorporated different learning activities, systems, and ways to create positive interactions all with the intent of getting students to behave appropriately and engage with content. He had run through what he felt like was the gamut of classroom management ideas to maintain order, and, while many of these strategies ultimately failed, this specific class of students appeared to be a consistent influence on his classroom management. Despite continued experiences of failure, he

was persistent in trying strategies that could work for this class of students. Mr. Frank also explained how he had to change his classroom management as the school year was finishing: "Towards the end of the year, behavior…in the last few weeks, things kind of started to unwind…I'll just write them up. For whatever reason, even though it's the end of the year, that threat still carried weight" (Personal Interview, June 17, 2014). Sending students out or moving their seats no longer seemed to work so he adjusted his classroom management to meet his students' needs at that time by reporting them to administrators. He remained strict to accommodate for student misbehavior consistently throughout the year.

Influence Summary

Teachers encountered many opportunities to learn about classroom management. Teachers described how they valued feedback from programmatic and school personnel that was timely, specific, and presented an alternative method to classroom management. Over time, though, they felt programmatic personnel continued emphasizing a narrow approach to managing classrooms, which teachers felt became increasingly unhelpful. While teachers mentioned influential feedback from many different personnel, the content of the feedback seemed more important than who in particular was giving them advice. In other words, the "quality" of the feedback—specific informing teachers what they should change and presenting alternative methods of classroom management— seemed more influential than the "source" of that feedback. Teachers felt that classroom experiences also consistently influenced how they managed their classrooms throughout the year. Specifically, teachers reported learning from their mistakes and failures in the classroom; they seemed to leverage these difficult moments as opportunities to experiment with different classroom management strategies until they had success. Next, I discuss the findings from this and the previous chapter, and how these findings have implications for professional development and the research of classroom management.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Implications

Discussion of Findings

Teachers are expected to perform at a high level by raising the academic achievement of low-achieving students in high-poverty environments (Zeichner & Schulte, 2001; Kane et al., 2008). Within these environments, managing a classroom has to be a priority because of the important role that effective classroom management plays in student achievement (Rogoff et al., 2001; Stronge et al., 2010) and teacher retention (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Martin et al., 2012; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). As part of these environments, beginning teachers, in particular, are a demographic of concern because of their tendency to struggle with managing classrooms (Milner, 2006). One way to support these teachers is to learn more about their classroom management beliefs, how they manage classrooms, and how they develop as classroom managers throughout their initial year.

In this study, I investigated how first year urban teachers experienced classroom management. In Chapter 2, my review of classroom management literature suggested that a descriptive understanding of beginning teachers' classroom management beliefs is sorely needed; how there is a range of evidence-based strategies to manage the classroom that beginning teachers rarely employ; and the various ways that teachers can develop through teacher preparation and in response to in-service supports. I also explained my conceptual framework for understanding beginning teachers' beliefs and actions in response to various influences. I then described my mixed-methods study of first year CERT teachers in Chapter 3, including analyses of all first year CERT teachers to identify broad patterns across the program, as well as case studies of five participants to investigate broader trends in greater detail and in specific contexts. I began to present results in Chapter 4, where I distinguished between more and less relational classroom managers among first year teachers in my sample, and presented analyses that more relational classroom managers receive higher observation ratings. In Chapter 5, I analyzed how teachers reported three types of influences on how they developed as classroom managers and found that the quality of feedback they received seemed to be particularly impactful.

In the next section, I discuss three key findings and how these findings contribute to the research on classroom management. First, my results indicate that the majority of teachers focused on behavioral and academic aspects of the classroom. Second, I discuss how more relational classroom managers were distinct from less relational classroom managers, supported by evidence suggesting that the former group may have been engaged in better quality teaching. Finally, I discuss the importance of quality feedback and learning through mistakes as methods to develop teachers' classroom management beliefs and actions.

Following, I describe how these findings informed revisions to my original conceptual framework presented in Chapter 2. Then, I explain the limitations to my study and how my findings should be considered within the frame of my study design. Finally, I discuss the implications my research has on teacher education and professional development as well as the research on classroom management.

Finding I: Beginning urban teachers focus on behavior and academics. A central finding to this study was that CERT teachers focused primarily on behavior and academics when managing classrooms. CERT teachers were cognizant of the integration between behavior and academics and did not singularly consider enforcing behavioral systems for obtaining teacher authority. They thought that compliance was easier to attain if academic content was engaging, while also believing that their opportunity to instruct would be limited if they were consistently disrupted by misbehavior. In other words, their behaviorally-oriented approaches always maintained simultaneous academically-oriented goals. Incorporating a focus on academics alongside behavior, though, is somewhat contrary to the notion that beginning in-service teachers associate classroom management solely with behavioral control and discipline (Sokal et al., 2003; Koehler et al., 2013). Rather, my results align with studies that found teachers tend to define classroom management as controlling student behavior for instructional purposes and through instructional means (Atici, 2007; Allen, 1986; Evertson & Weade, 1989). My study extends prior work, though, by finding these trends among beginning, in-service teachers, while prior work focused on pre-service teachers. Given how challenging the first year of teaching can be, one might assume that first year teachers are more likely to default to exclusively behaviorally-oriented, controlling approaches. Rather, I found that beginning teachers maintained more multi-dimensional approaches, an argument I elaborate further below.

CERT teachers emphasized behavior and academics not only in their management beliefs but also in their management actions. Many of the behavioral and academic management actions

that they employed appeared to be effective strategies according to previous studies. CERT teachers used rules, procedures, expectations, teacher monitoring, and verbal and non-verbal strategies such as eye contact, hand signals, physical proximity, and touch to prevent student misbehavior (Balli, 2001; Kunter et al., 2007; Bondy et al., 2007; Atici, 2007). Regarding academic management, they focused on using content and material to engage students in academics and curtail student misbehavior (Pianta et al., 2002; Parsons & Vaughn, 2013; Evertson & Harris, 1992). These teachers utilized evidence based strategies in their classrooms, but there remained room for growth in this area. For instance, there was little indication that many CERT teachers created learning activities around students' interest to engage in content (Balli, 2008; van Tartwijk et al., 2009), and some teachers more than others utilized reactive actions to quiet their students, which would normally not be considered a best practice (Reupert & Woodcock, 2007).

Finally, results indicate that teachers who emphasized behavioral and academic beliefs tended to use behavioral and academic actions frequently. This indicates a connection between beliefs and actions in regards to the behavioral and academic aspects of classroom management. CERT teachers believed the importance and managed the classroom using both engaging learning activities and systems to guide student behavior, which is consistent with prior studies demonstrating a link between teachers who hold behavioral beliefs about management also tend to manage classrooms in ways that focus on behavior (Kockenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2008). To my knowledge, however, my study is the first to demonstrate that beginning teachers who emphasize academic and behavioral beliefs in how they conceptualize management actually manage classrooms in ways that integrate these two foci as well. In the context of my study, results from qualitative descriptions support this finding, suggesting that beginning teachers may be capable of managing classrooms in more complex ways than prior studies had typically indicated.

It is not entirely clear why first year teachers in my study put bifocal attention on behavior and academics when prior literature suggests they tend to focus primarily on behavior. Perhaps this focus was due to the impact of teacher preparation, as teachers exhibited a behavioral and academic understanding from the start of the school year. That is, ACP may have implemented an effective mode of preparation to get teachers to prioritize both a behavioral and academic understanding of classroom management. I explore this impact further in the third finding. Another possible reason for this combined behavioral and academic focus could be the nature of the urban context, as teachers in these contexts tend to manage classrooms with higher percentages of both behavioral

and academic issues (Pianta et al., 2008). This context-specific nature of my study is described more in my implications for future research.

Finding II: Some teachers stood out as more relational managers; there is some suggestive evidence that these teachers were also more effective. While most teachers focused on behavior and academics in their conceptualization of classroom management, some teachers also emphasized the importance of building relationships, establishing a safe environment in the classroom, and adapting to students' needs and interests. These "more relational" classroom managers still relied on behavioral systems and managed classrooms in ways that emphasized academic content, but, more than other teachers, they prioritized the relational aspects in managing the classroom. Specifically, case participants described the importance of building relationships with students, adjusting behavioral systems (e.g., consequences), and using management practices to meet students' needs. These relational beliefs coincide with previous studies that indicate teachers had beliefs about establishing a cooperative environment based on nurturing student relationships and positive interactions (Bondy et al., 2007; Walker, 2008; Martin et al., 1997; Freiberg & Lamb, 2009; Freiberg, 1999). In fact, my results replicate findings from Bondy and associates (2007) in that teachers in both studies similarly described classroom management as creating a safe environment and building relationships. My results extend these findings by indicating that it may not be unusual for beginning urban teachers to hold relational beliefs. Bondy and associates (2007) selectively recruited three effective novice urban teachers that they felt exhibited this understanding of classroom management. By contrast, I looked across first year CERT teachers and found that they often held relational beliefs, though some, more than others, emphasized these beliefs.

More relational classroom managers' tactics also appear to correspond with several effective classroom management approaches described in previous research. For example, CERT teachers built relationships with students, consistent with the numerous studies suggesting the importance of implementing this action to manage the classroom (Banks, 2014; de Jong et al., 2014; Sun, 2014; Bondy et al., 2007; Balli et al., 2011; Milner & Tenore, 2010; van Tartwijk et al., 2009). My analyses extend prior work by demonstrating some particular ways that beginning teachers built relationships in urban classrooms, such as spending time during and after class getting to know their students personally and sharing about their own lives outside of school. More relational classroom managers also tended to care about the positive development of their students by teaching life lessons and establishing a supportive community throughout the classroom, consistent with previous research (Watson & Battistich, 2006; Tiene, 1987; Emmer & Stough, 2001). Ms. Babkin was most notable in

135

how she sometimes shared life lessons to manage student disruptions and consistently showed signs of care for her students, appealing to their socio-emotional needs in order to prevent further misbehavior. While this strategy may have taken away from some instructional time, she thought it could help to better manage students.

Results from my study contribute to the prior literature by highlighting a relational strategy that more relational beginning teachers used to create positive interactions and enhance instruction: managing the physical arrangement of the classroom. Teachers often discussed and implemented this strategy as a way to promote positive student-student and teacher-student interactions for socio-emotional or academic purposes. Mr. Vante, for instance, changed his seating and desk arrangement constantly, depending on how he wanted to interact with his students or the activity that he had for the students. Though prior literature has suggested managing the physical environment is important for effective classroom management (Ahrentzen & Evans, 1984; Weinstein, 1977), these studies exclusively focused on the behavioral impacts of managing the physical arrangement (e.g., stops talking, reduces distractions) as compared to teachers in this study who highlighted other impacts on the classroom. Teachers, in fact, managed the physical environment for multiple purposes in order to address various aspects of the classroom (e.g., relational). Given that these previous studies are thirty years old and focused only on elementary classrooms, my work extends these findings by documenting the importance of this strategy in contemporary and secondary classrooms.

Another important finding in my study is that case participants who reported more relational classroom management beliefs tended to use more relational classroom management actions. For example, Mr. Vante consistently talked about the need to create positive interactions as a way to manage the classroom and was seen trying to make the environment a space where students felt comfortable and were encouraged to communicate positively with one another and with him. This finding indicates a connection between how teachers think about and enact classroom management in regards to the relational aspects of classroom management. My research builds on findings from Eveyik-Aydin and colleagues (2009), who found that one university teacher had beliefs and used actions corresponding to establishing a cooperative environment. My study contributes by reproducing findings from prior work and extends these findings in two ways. First, my study investigated multiple teachers and their beliefs and actions, offering further support to the connection between relational beliefs and actions. Second, my research investigates teachers at the elementary and secondary level rather than at the post-secondary level, suggesting that K-12 urban teachers also have relational orientations.

136

Finally, my study provides evidence that more relational classroom management approaches are associated with better quality teaching. Specifically, results from regression models indicate that teachers who reported relational classroom management beliefs received better evaluation scores of teaching performance compared to teachers who did not report relational beliefs. This finding extends prior research that suggests teachers with more relational orientations to management had students with better academic achievement and social competence (Djigic & Stojiljkovic, 2011; Walker, 2008), by providing more reliable statistical evidence for this relationship. Djigic and Stojiljkovic (2011) collected 278 surveys and used ANOVA to demonstrate that teachers who had more cooperative beliefs about classroom management were correlated with higher academic achievement scores. A concern about their approach is whether their use of student achievement appropriately estimates teachers' contributions to achievement. In other words, the differences they observed could be due to the sorting of certain kinds of students (e.g., higher achieving) to certain kinds of teachers (e.g., those with cooperative beliefs). Rather than capture differences in teacher quality, they may be capturing differences in the students being taught. My study uses a more direct measure of teaching quality: observational evaluations. Additionally, my HLM models have advantages over ANOVA in that they account for the nested structure of the data and allow me to adjust for covariates like school level.

Perhaps, the positive outcomes associated with a relational orientation found throughout my study were a result of teachers addressing student needs and "leveraging" relationships in urban classrooms. Prioritizing a relational orientation would align with how Greene (2008; 2010) recommends teachers should approach management. The author believes that when recurrent misbehavior is consistently managed through behavioral means (e.g., consequences), teachers are mismanaging students. The author advocates for teachers to understand that students may have underdeveloped behavioral skills and should instead learn about the student and his/her needs (i.e., taking a relational approach) in order to get towards the root of the disciplinary issue and help them to socio-emotionally develop to be better behaved. For instance, a teacher could talk to a student about why he/she threw a tantrum rather than automatically administer a consequence for misbehavior. This approach would foster a positive relationship with the student and possibly address a larger behavioral issue that could account for more positive outcomes that a more behavioral approach would not provide.

It is important to note here that, in my programmatic analyses, relational beliefs were confounded with having more comprehensive beliefs, so I cannot disentangle these constructs.

137

From my programmatic analyses, teachers who reported relational beliefs also had comprehensive beliefs (behavioral, academic, and relational); by contrast, teachers who did not report relational beliefs reported only behavioral and/or academic beliefs, thus being categorized as less comprehensive. Because having relational beliefs in my programmatic analyses corresponded with having comprehensive beliefs, it is also possible that the observed relationship between relational beliefs and stronger observational evaluations (found throughout my HLM analyses) is actually a relationship between having comprehensive beliefs and higher observational evaluations.

Even so, my case study analyses indicated that participants shared beliefs and used actions related to all aspects of classroom management; that is, all teachers were in some sense "comprehensive." While case participants had multidimensional approaches to managing classrooms, a distinguishing feature was the degree to which they prioritized relational dimensions in managing classrooms. Less relational classroom managers still had relational beliefs and actions but did not appear to prioritize managing the relational aspects of the classroom, putting this aspect in the "background." On the other hand, more relational classroom managers "foregrounded" relational dimensions of the classroom. They still shared about the importance of behavioral systems and academic management while frequently using behavioral and academic actions; however, they did so in more relationally-oriented ways. These teachers found ways to adapt the behavioral and academic structures to students' needs by managing in the likes of administering consequences that may have more meaning for that student or considering how to adjust instruction to reduce the frustration that may lead to misbehavior. In the end, my qualitative analyses suggested that it was the relational emphasis of some case participants that made them more effective managers. To clarify, I am not suggesting that relational teachers will be effective, even without behavioral and academic approaches. To the contrary, all case participants were comprehensive in their orientations. My analyses simply suggest that among beginning teachers, all of whom were comprehensive to some degree, those who were more relational in their orientation seemed to excel.

Finding III: Teachers develop in classroom management from hearing "quality" feedback and making mistakes through their classroom experience. While teachers consistently interacted with different school and programmatic personnel and had various classroom experiences, not all interactions seemed to promote teacher growth. There did not appear to be a consistent type of influence that teachers reported as influential on their development; rather, what teachers found to be influential on their development were the quality of the feedback they received and experiences in which they made mistakes during clinical and in-service experience. I begin by

describing quality feedback they received from program and school personnel and end by discussing the impact of classroom experience.

Learning from hearing quality feedback. My analyses indicate that the "content" of the feedback that teachers received appeared to impact their classroom management development. The feedback content most often reported as helpful from personnel was hearing about specific advice on what actions they should implement and learning about alternative methods of classroom management, providing insight on how best to support beginning teachers (Wang et al., 2008). In particular, finding specific feedback about what actions teachers should implement or adjust corresponds with the previous literature on providing "practical" knowledge to facilitate classroom management development (Humphrey et al., 2008; Stanulis & Floden, 2009; Atici, 2007; Hammerness, 2011; Gimbert, 2008). In addition to specific feedback, my results extend the limited literature about presenting alternative methods of classroom management to teachers. This characteristic of feedback is consistent with Achinstein and Barrett (2004), which, to my knowledge, is the one study that found mentors who "reframed" a classroom management problem to facilitate thinking about broader solutions (i.e., alternative methods) related to the issue helped their mentee teachers to identify and make meaningful changes to their practice. Perhaps, these teachers wanted alternative strategies because they were at a point in their development where they were willing to try new strategies, which could align with how CERT teachers occasionally shared that they were tired of hearing the same information and wanted to try something different. Discussed more in the next section about learning from "mistakes," teachers may similarly want to hear about strategies that they could "experiment" with. Because beginning teachers tend to be limited in their knowledge of classroom management (Feiman-Nemser, 1983), hearing about new strategies could be particularly appealing.

Aside from the content of the feedback that teachers present, my research provides teacher-reported evidence for the importance of frequent visits and immediate debriefs following an observation in regards to classroom management. This result was exemplified by Ms. Chatman learning from her instructional coach, who was "in my classroom almost every day" (Personal Interview, November 21, 2013), and the other instances where case participants shared how various personnel either frequently or infrequently observed their classrooms. These results support Humphrey et al. (2008), which is the one study, to my knowledge, that indicates frequent mentorship meetings being positively associated with teacher development in classroom management.

Learning from experiential mistakes. In addition to learning from others, teachers reported developing in classroom management by learning from their classroom experience. Results from this study suggest that clinical experience, specifically, helped teachers to learn how to adjust classroom management actions to be effective (Sokal et al., 2003; Tiene, 1987; Winitzky & Kauchak, 1995; Sueb, 2013). CERT teachers described how they learned from their "mistakes" throughout their field placement, presumably by trying strategies and being supported by programmatic personnel or getting feedback from students.

Learning from mistakes seems to contrast somewhat with the existing literature about how teachers learn from their clinical experiences. Previous studies have suggested that successful enactments throughout field experience helped teachers to develop in classroom management (Rozelle & Wilson, 2012; Putman, 2009). However, CERT teachers shared how they developed as classroom managers from their missteps, as opposed to their successes, throughout experience. One likely reason for the difference in findings could be the difference in the clinical experiences. Teachers in Rozelle and Wilson (2012), who were encouraged to follow their mentor teacher's lesson "script" (including instructional and classroom management moves) by re-enacting exactly what they observed the mentor previously enact. This is compared with CERT teachers, who explained how they created their own lessons throughout their clinical experience. "Mimicking" versus enacting a self-created lesson could be one reason why teachers learned from experience differently.

Results from my study also indicated that teachers learned from their mistakes throughout in-service classroom experience. Teachers described learning to manage classrooms through "trial and error," where they experimented with strategies to determine what worked. This process of learning was exemplified by Ms. Chatman, who tried various strategies to deal with several misbehaving students until she found one action (i.e., proximity, or standing by these students) that worked for her classroom. Finding learning from mistakes to have a strong influence on development is consistent with the teacher education literature which suggests that, throughout the first year in the profession, teachers learn on the job and this learning has been associated with general teacher development (Dewey, 1938; Feiman-Nemser, 1983). However, to my knowledge, there is no classroom management literature regarding this topic. Therefore, my results provide teacher self-reported evidence on the importance of learning how to manage the classroom from experience, specifically through trial and error.

Revised Conceptual Framework

Findings from this study inform how teachers develop in classroom management and how teachers' beliefs, actions, and influences are related. These relationships are summarized in my revised conceptual framework shown in Figure 6.1. I begin this section by describing the aspects of the conceptual framework that were supported by this study. I then describe three main revisions that I made to the conceptual framework based upon this study's findings. While my initial framework did not emphasize the link between beliefs and actions, I revised my framework to capture the interdependence of beliefs and actions. Second, my framework reflects the key distinction I observed between more and less relational managers. Finally, I emphasize the characteristics of influences on classroom management rather than the types or sources of influence.

My results support several aspects of the original conceptual framework in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.1). Evidence indicates that teachers often described classroom management in regards to establishing behavioral systems, facilitating student learning, and promoting positive interactions. These behavioral, academic, and relational aspects, respectively, are shown as part of beginning teachers' beliefs on the revised conceptual framework (left side of Figure 6.1), and corresponds with previous studies that separate classroom management beliefs into similar aspects (e.g., Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Relatedly, teachers' actions tended to focus on controlling student behavior, engaging students in content, and building student relationships. These actions align with the classroom management actions proposed in my original conceptual framework as behavioral, academic, and relational, respectively, and are shown on the right side of Figure 6.1. These actions are consistent with the categories that previous researchers tend use when describing classroom management actions (e.g., Sun, 2014).

While several aspects of my initial conceptual framework were supported by this study's results, there were other aspects that demanded revision. I was initially cautious about proposing a relationship between beliefs and actions among beginning teachers due to previous studies indicating no such relationship exists, but my study suggests that CERT teachers tended to use actions consistent with their beliefs. Whether teachers focused on behavior, academics, or relational beliefs, case participant data indicated that they tended to use actions corresponding to their conceptualizations of classroom management. These findings support previous research stating how experienced teachers often have beliefs and actions that align (e.g., Richardson & Fallona, 1991). However, these results are contrary to Jones and Vesilind (1995), who found pre-service teachers' beliefs and actions misaligned at the end of student teaching. This difference likely could be due to

the difference in being the teacher of record versus being a student teacher, who are in the process of learning about classroom management and may not have the skillset or support to apply what they know in their field placement classroom (e.g., Higgins & Moule, 2009). Additionally, teacher candidates complete student teaching experiences in someone else's classroom and likely feel pressure to use actions that align with their mentor teachers' practice. In-service teachers, on the other hand, may have more experience to draw from and more autonomy to incorporate actions that align with their beliefs within their own classroom.

Another revision to the framework was the two types of classroom managers suggested by my findings: more relational and less relational classroom managers (top of Figure 6.1). My original conceptual framework did not characterize teachers as different types of classroom managers, but my revised framework suggests beginning teachers manage the classroom in a more relational or less relational manner. To reiterate, I use the terms "more relational" and "less relational" to describe the extent in which teachers emphasized relational aspects of the classroom; both types of classroom managers also incorporated behavioral and academic beliefs and actions. I place these two types in ascending order because CERT teachers who reported relational aspects on their surveys were associated with higher quality of teaching compared to teachers who did not report relational aspects. My finding that relational beliefs predicted better observational evaluations suggests that emphasizing the relational aspects likely supports instructional effectiveness, which aligns with existing literature indicating that having a relational orientation promotes better student outcomes (Walker, 2008; Freiberg, 1999). I found little evidence that teachers changed in their emphasis on the types of beliefs or actions over time, as teachers were consistent as one of two types of classroom managers (i.e., more relational or less relational) throughout the year, indicating that teachers did not develop from one type into another, at least within the time frame I observed them. Given enough time and support, however, I suspect, and hope to investigate in the future, that teachers likely can develop relational approaches, and, in so doing, become more effective managers and teachers. I discuss this further in my Implications section.

The final revision I made to my framework was in regards to the influences on teachers' beliefs and actions, shown at the bottom of Figure 6.1. While influences appeared to have an impact on teachers' self-reported beliefs and actions, results indicate that the quality of the information more than the source of the information mattered to teachers. Several CERT teachers reported that some programmatic and school personnel, such as their ACP-FI, did not consistently help them to develop in classroom management; additionally, some school and programmatic personnel were

142

gradually less helpful over time or unhelpful altogether. This variation in teacher support corresponds with literature that states the quality of mentoring and teacher induction services varies greatly (Humphrey et al., 2008; Feiman-Nemser, 1983). These results led me to change my framework from focusing on the sources of influence to the characteristics of influences. I replaced the different types of pre-service experiences (e.g., coursework) and in-service supports (e.g., mentoring) with the characteristics of providing alternative methods of classroom management, specific feedback, and timely visits and debriefs as well as learning from mistakes made throughout clinical and in-service experiences. Shifting towards identifying characteristics of influences addresses the call for future research to learn more about how to support beginning teachers (Wang et al., 2008) by focusing on the quality of support a teacher receives and away from the quantity or the type of support a teacher receives (Humphrey et al., 2008). Perhaps, this focus on characteristics was particularly relevant for CERT teachers because they had two sets of programmatic support (i.e., ACP and CERT) along with school personnel who they regularly interacted with.

Figure 6.1: Revised Beginning Urban Teacher Classroom Management Development Framework

143
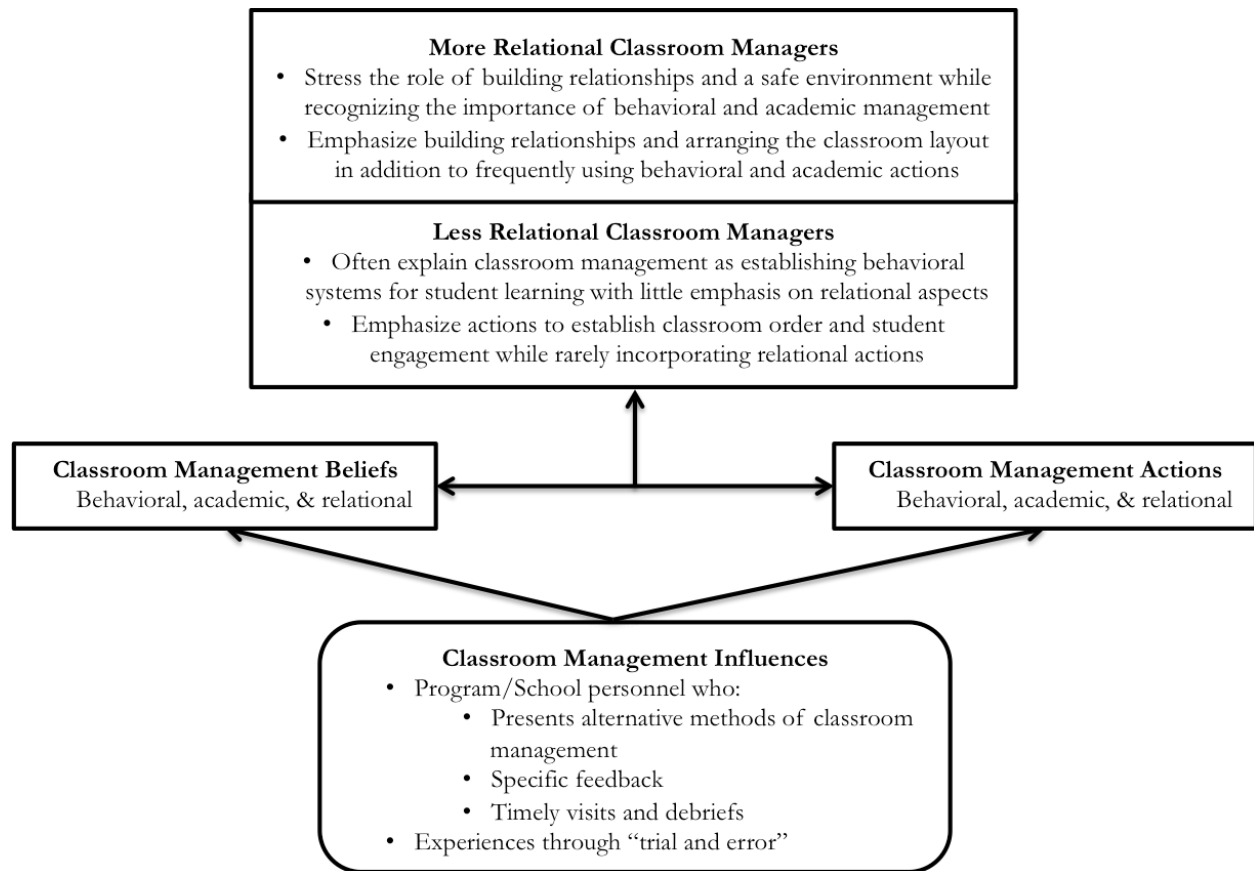
Limitations

My findings should be interpreted within the context of this sample and study design, which had several limitations that could have impacted my results. The first limitation is utilizing field instructor evaluations as measures for teaching quality. The second limitation is the self-reported nature of teacher influences and teacher actions. The third limitation is the timing and duration of data collection.

First, the field instructor rubric represented CERT's conceptualization of quality teaching and was not tested for reliability or validity. CERT chose to not include all program outcomes as part of the field instructor rubric, meaning that pedagogical skills such as student assessment and unit/lesson planning were not incorporated as part of CERT's conceptualization of teaching quality. It may be that CERT chose to focus only on what they considered to be "observable" aspects of pedagogy, but this may have failed to account for other important aspects of teaching. Furthermore, the field instructor rubric was not tested for reliability or validity. Despite this, CERT required professional development to train field instructors on how to use the tool in ways the program intended, likely guarding against some reliability and validity concerns.

Another limitation is the self-reported nature of teacher influences and actions. Data on influences were almost exclusively self-reported, which limits my ability to identify whether teachers actually changed in the way they reported or if the specific feedback characteristics that they mentioned accurately reflected what they experienced. Results therefore only apply to teachers' reports of change and their description of school/programmatic personnel. While self-reported data on case participant actions could be triangulated with observational data on actions (e.g., video recordings), data on CERT teachers at the programmatic level was solely self-reported. Teachers wrote about an action that they used in the classroom, but I could not verify whether teachers actually implemented the action or how frequently (e.g., used daily, used once). What teachers reported could be more indicative of an action that they believed they implemented or wanted to implement rather than what they actually implemented. It is possible that one reason why management actions were not predictive of observational evaluations in the regression analyses is because these self-reported actions were poor measures for actual actions; rather, they could have functioned more like beliefs (about actions).

There are also limitations to the timing of data collection. Initially, I planned to measure teachers' beliefs, actions, and influences prior to the beginning and following the completion of the school year. Programmatic constraints restricted beginning of the year survey data collection to the

beginning of the CERT academic calendar, which was several weeks after teachers' schools had started. A similar issue occurred with the final survey, which was administered several weeks prior to the end of the school year. Because of the timing, the study may have missed critical classroom management experiences and development that occurred immediately when teachers started their school year (Bear, 2014) and possibly again missed critical moments at the very end of the school year. Specifically, teachers' first interaction with their students and the establishment of behavioral systems are among many things that occur early in the year, which could have spurred shifts in their beliefs (Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Evertson et al., 1983). While I was able to capture CERT teachers' beliefs, actions, and influences near the end points of teachers' first school year, I may have missed some key transformations at the very beginning and end of the year that impact my interpretation of how teachers changed over time.

Relatedly, I also had to shorten my case participant data collection period, which might have constrained the amount of change in beliefs and actions that I was able to observe over time. Difficulty in case participant recruitment prompted the initial interview to be conducted several months into the school year rather than at the beginning of the year, as originally planned. Therefore, the change in teacher beliefs over time represented a smaller portion of time within the teachers' first year experience rather than being indicative of their entire first year experience. In addition, collection of the observational data was pushed into the second semester of school, offering little insight into teachers' classroom management practice throughout the first semester. While the observational data that were systematically collected throughout the second semester indicate teachers' actions over time, the case participant data was limited to a smaller time range than anticipated and possibly, a smaller amount of change.

Implications

Despite these limitations, results from this study offer a number of implications for teacher education and the research on classroom management. In this section, I begin by describing how this study suggests that teacher education could focus on developing "more relational" classroom managers and providing better quality feedback. I then discuss the implications of this study for future research about how teachers develop as classroom managers and factors that influence this development.

Implications for teacher preparation and school personnel. This study suggests that teacher preparation could be a promising site for teachers to establish an initial understanding of

classroom management. Specifically, the ACP summer training seemed to have a strong impact on development by emphasizing that teachers use the Behavioral Management Cycle (BMC). This system was oriented towards student behavior but preparation also stressed academic aspects, such as how to lesson plan and refocus students to content. The fact that teachers commonly adopted these program-endorsed strategies is consistent with previous literature suggesting that preparation can impact how teachers manage the classroom (Atici, 2007; Jones, 2006).

Given that teacher preparation can be influential, one implication from my findings is that teacher educators should emphasize preparing teachers to have a more relational orientation in their classroom management beliefs and actions. Throughout my study, CERT teachers tended to understand that classroom management included all three aspects of classroom but differed from one another in terms of the extent they focused on relational aspects; more relational managers also tended to be more effective. Thus, an implication of this study is that teacher educators instruct pre-service teachers about the importance of building relationships with students and adapting classroom management to students' needs as suggested throughout the literature (e.g., van Tartwijk et al., 2009). As relational classroom managers in my study also managed classrooms that prioritized behavior and academics, my results do not support solely focusing on relational approaches absent a behavioral and academic understanding. To the contrary, my results suggest a teacher preparation model that includes behavioral and academic management systems that integrate more relational approaches. Therefore, other teacher preparation programs that may only emphasize a behavioral understanding of classroom management would need to increase their focus on academic and relational aspects collectively in order to promote what this study would consider a "more relational" classroom management understanding (e.g., Hammerness, 2011). Regardless of the current state of an individual teacher preparation program, teacher educators should focus on preparing teachers to have a multi-dimensional understanding of classroom management with an emphasis on relational aspects.

A second implication is that teacher preparation needs to focus on creating generative experiences where teachers can learn from their mistakes. When teachers try various methods of managing the classroom but strategies do not work as anticipated, my research suggests that teacher educators should support teachers in that moment, providing feedback to ensure teachers use these "mistakes" to further their development. These findings complement studies that indicate the importance of providing beginning teachers opportunities to experience successful enactments (Rozelle & Wilson, 2012; Putman, 2009), as teachers could be supported to learn through their

mistakes prior to being able to successfully enact an action. Teacher educators could guide teachers to reflect on how their implementation of the action may have resulted differently than intended or have them think about how certain behaviors could improve implementation. This guidance would, in effect, promote teacher educators to focus on the process of developing skills instead of only reflecting on the skill after the teacher already successfully implemented it. Teacher educators could facilitate these experiences through clinical training as well as other learning activities in the university setting, such as role-playing or case studies (Choi & Lee, 2009), to provide designed opportunities for teachers to troubleshoot issues and learn from their missteps. These latter kinds of activities would help teachers to develop how to manage the classroom through practice (as compared with non-practice based activities such as lecturing) in a context designed for teacher learning, unlike clinical settings which necessarily privilege P-12 student learning (Feiman-Nemser, 1983).

A third implication is that teacher educators and school personnel should focus on providing timely feedback. Findings suggest that program/school personnel should regularly observe teachers to get an idea of how teachers manage the classroom on a consistent basis. In addition to frequent visits, my findings suggest that these personnel should be quick to turnaround their recommendations to the teacher. In this way, teachers would be able to connect the actions they just implemented in the classroom to the feedback and, thus, make immediate improvements for the following day. Although these recommendations seem logical to incorporate for teachers, they have yet to be empirically researched in regards to classroom management specifically.

A final implication is for teacher educators and school personnel to emphasize specific strategies that teachers can implement in their classrooms. In so doing, program/school personnel need to help guide teachers to the action in need of correction, propose how it could be improved, and work with the teacher to implement the change. This would likely help prevent teachers from having to troubleshoot challenges on their own or having to interpret generic advice about their classrooms (Feiman-Nemser, 1983). This method of providing feedback could also include suggesting teachers to use "alternative" methods of managing the classroom as described above, which can help stimulate additional thoughts for teachers to consider how to manage the classroom (Achinstein & Barrett, 2004). For example, teacher educators might propose academic and relational strategies to teachers who primarily implement behavioral responses to misbehavior. Doing so could promote teachers to prioritize different ways to problem-solve their classroom management challenges.

Implications for the research of classroom management. Findings from this study offer two main implications for future research on classroom management. The first implication is to further explore classroom management development and determine whether teachers would similarly be categorized as more/less relational classroom managers in other contexts. The second implication is to further investigate the influences of feedback quality and learning from experience on classroom management.

Learning more about classroom management beliefs and actions. Classroom managers, in this study, differed in terms of their emphasis on the role of relationships. Less relational classroom managers had beliefs about maintaining compliance through behavioral systems and instruction while more relational classroom managers prioritized learning about individual students and adapting to their needs. However, more/less relational beliefs and actions were confounded with teachers who had comprehensive/non-comprehensive beliefs and actions. My study was unable to fully disentangle these two sets of characteristics, as one interpretation of my results could be about whether comprehensive beliefs and actions separate classroom managers and are associated with higher instructional quality. Therefore, future studies should attempt to disaggregate these two sets of characteristics by incorporating more in depth surveys or interviews to capture different ways that teachers are comprehensive in their classroom management beliefs and actions. Ideally, these instruments would be designed to better specify what it means to be relational and comprehensive, and detect individuals who are relational but not comprehensive or comprehensive but not relational managers. If these sets of characteristic separate, further analyses should explore whether relational or comprehensive characteristics better predict for higher instructional quality.

Another possible direction for future research would be to explore whether these classroom management "types" and the associated instructional quality apply within different contexts. For example, it is possible that finding more relational classroom managers to predict higher ratings of instructional quality is unique to beginning urban teachers or to the ACP/CERT program. Thus, extending similar research to other teacher populations of interest could better generalize these findings or reveal whether effective management approaches are context-specific. This would include research on traditionally certified first year teachers, novice non-first year teachers, non-urban teachers, experienced teachers, or focusing on either beginning or urban teachers. Investigating these teacher populations would provide insight into whether or not these types of managers are common across settings.

Another direction for future research would be to identify whether less relational classroom managers could develop into more relational classroom managers (or visa versa). For example, future studies might examine whether professional development or an intervention on relational management could influence management beliefs and actions. Studies could randomly assign less relational classroom managers to either a control condition or to an intervention designed to teach relational approaches. Following treatment, researchers could investigate whether there are differences between groups in terms of beliefs and actions.

One final direction for future research would be extending this current study to measure teachers' classroom management experience beyond one year of teaching. My revised conceptual framework represents teachers within their first year of teaching; however, this framework could be tested whether it would apply to teacher development over a different span of time. Teachers, in fact, could develop differently over the course of multiple years and prioritize other aspects of the classroom not found in this study. Given that one limitation of this study was that programmatic surveys were collected within a full year and the qualitative data were collected throughout one semester, future studies could replicate this work to better represent teachers' beliefs and actions from throughout a full year of teaching. Additionally, studies could expand the data collection over the course of a different period of time, such as from pre-service to the first year of in-service teaching, or a longer period of time, such as the first two years (or more) of in-service teaching.

Influences on classroom management development. As described throughout the findings, this study suggests that the quality of feedback was much more important than the source of feedback. Program/school personnel who frequently observed teachers, provided immediate debriefs with specific information that teachers could implement, and offered teachers alternative methods of classroom management tended to be the most influential. However, a limitation of my study is that teachers' reports about which forms of feedback seemed influential may not have been the same as those that were actually influential. Future research then might continue to investigate characteristics of quality feedback and its impact on classroom management development. One possibility would be to design experimental or quasi-experimental studies that randomly assign teachers to different feedback conditions and test whether, as a result of receiving different forms of feedback, teachers demonstrate more comprehensive classroom management skills.

Conclusions

149

Classroom management has been a persistent challenge for beginning teachers over the years (Headden, 2014). Beginning teachers have many responsibilities and demands that tend to overwhelm them throughout their first year (Westling, 2010), and even though researchers have a comprehensive understanding of classroom management and have identified some research-based strategies, many of these beliefs and actions seemingly are not being transferred into urban classrooms (Milner, 2014). Adequately preparing and supporting teachers to succeed on this pedagogical skill can ease their transition into the classroom (Humphrey & Wechsler, 2008), help to retain them in the profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003), and raise student achievement and socio-emotional development (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

This descriptive, mixed method study of first year urban teachers indicates that beginning teachers are not solely focused on discipline, as literature tends to suggest (e.g., Kaufman & Moss, 2010), but they can have a more comprehensive approach to managing classrooms. Less relational classroom managers focused mostly on behavioral and academic aspects of the classroom while more relational classroom managers exhibited an understanding and implementation of classroom management that emphasized the relational aspect of the classroom in addition to the behavioral and academic aspects; qualitative analyses suggested these latter teachers were more effective managers. Moreover, classroom managers who reported relational beliefs on surveys also tended to receive better observational evaluations. This study also found that the quality of feedback, more than the source of feedback, influenced first year teachers' development as classroom managers. These findings have implications for designing teacher education - namely, that teacher educators develop teachers to have a more relational understanding of classroom management by providing specific and timely feedback that offers alternatives to current practice. Moreover, the study suggests that teacher educators should focus more deliberately on helping teachers to learn from their mistakes throughout classroom experience.

Beginning teachers must continue to be properly prepared and supported so that urban classrooms can thrive. While my study does not investigate whether teachers can develop into "more relational" classroom managers, it does offer some direction for how beginning teachers could improve their classroom management. Specifically, it suggests that beginning teacher be taught that classroom management includes relational aspects of the classroom alongside behavioral and academic, and that developing management beliefs and actions that attend to relational dimensions of the classroom is critical. First year teachers may be beginners in the profession, but they can be more effective classroom managers.

Appendices

Appendix A: CERT Programmatic Pre-Survey
<u>Pre-Survey of Demographic & Teaching Practices</u>

Dear Participant,

      The purpose of this survey is to learn more about [teachers'] beliefs and attitudes of different areas of teaching [CERT] program wants to learn about your background and prior knowledge of urban environments, classroom management, and subject matter so that we can better tailor our program to help you grow as an educator. Data from this survey will be repackaged to help seminar leaders, field instructors, and program managers to create more individualized instruction and evaluation. This survey consists of previously existing questions (from Ronfeldt & Reininger, 2009; Moje, 2008; Martin, 2010) and originally created questions.

      The researchers have taken steps to minimize the risks of this study. Even so, you may still experience some risks related to your participation, even when the researchers are careful to avoid them. These risks may include questions that may be sensitive or uncomfortable. To reduce the risk, you may choose to not respond to any of the questions or end participation at any point during the study. Additionally, there is a chance that the information you provide could be unintentionally disclosed. To reduce this risk, the researchers will use a number ID for each individual with the identifier key will be encrypted on a password-protected laptop.

      We plan on publishing the results of the study but will not include any information that would identify you. There are some reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provided as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly, including the [University] Institutional Review Board. To keep your information safe, the researchers will make sure your name is not attached to any data but the number ID will be used instead. The data you provide will be on a password-protected laptop and be retained indefinitely for future research. The data, however, will not be made available to other researchers for related studies following the completion of this research study and will not contain information that could identify you.

      [Contact Information]

I agree to participate in this study:
Name (Last, First):
Date:

I do NOT agree to participate in this study:
Name (Last, First):
Date:

<u>Demographic Information</u>
1. What is the zipcode where you grew up that you most associate with?
    a. 5 digit open numeric
2. What was your undergraduate major?
    a. Open
3. What was your undergraduate minor(s)?
    a. Open
4. Have you had previous teaching experience aside from summer training?
    a. Yes (Check all that apply)

         i.   Teacher assistant
        ii.   Substitute teacher
      iii.   Student teaching
      iv.   Tutor
       v.   Volunteer
      vi.   Other:
   b. No

5. Have you had a paid position that works with children? If yes, what job or position have you held?
   a. Yes
       i. Open Response
   b. No

6. Type of school you are currently teaching in
   a. Public
   b. Charter
   c. [State Operated School]
   d. Private
   e. Other:

7. What district is your school a part of?
   a. Open

Please answer the following questions about your anticipated plans for the future.

1. How long do you plan to work in education after [ACP] (in any capacity)?
   a. Not at all
   b. 1-2 years
   c. 3-5 years
   d. 6-10 years
   e. 11 or more years

2. How long do you plan to teach after [ACP]?
   a. Not at all
   b. 1-2 years
   c. 3-5 years
   d. 6-10 years
   e. 11 or more years

3. How long do you plan to teach in any other urban school after [ACP]?
   a. Not at all
   b. 1-2 years
   c. 3-5 years
   d. 6-10 years
   e. 11 or more years

Pedagogical Preparation
How well prepared do you feel to …
Scale: Unprepared, Somewhat prepared, Adequately prepared, Well prepared, Very well prepared
1. plan effective lessons?
2. perform routine administrative tasks (e.g., take attendance, make announcements, etc.)?
3. manage class time to complete necessary tasks in the time available?

4. manage students' behavior?
5. manage classroom routines?
6. assess students' work?
7. interact with students' parents/families?
8. interact with the school administration?
9. deliver meaningful, engaging, and relevant lessons?
10. teach your subject matter?
11. use technology in classroom instruction?
12. adapt and use curriculum and instructional materials?
13. target instruction to individual students?
14. work with children with special needs?
15. respond to non-academic challenges facing individual students?
16. work with English language learners (ELL/LEP/ESL)?

Classroom Management
Directions: For each statement below, please mark the response that best describes what you do or would plan to do in the classroom. There are no right or wrong answers, so please respond as honestly as possible.
Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3=Slightly disagree 4=Slightly agree 5= Agree 6=Strongly agree
1. I nearly always intervene when students talk at inappropriate times during class. (BM1)
3. I strongly limit student chatter in the classroom. (BM2)
4. I nearly always use collaborative learning to explore questions in the classroom. (IM2)
6. I engage students in active discussion about issues related to real world applications. (IM3)
10. I nearly always use group work in my classroom. (IM5)
12. I use student input when creating student projects. (IM6)
15. I firmly redirect students back to the topic when they get off task. (BM8)
17. I insist that students in my classroom follow the rules at all times. (BM9)
18. I nearly always adjust instruction in response to individual student needs. (IM9)
21. I strictly enforce classroom rules to control student behavior. (BM11)
23. If a student's behavior is defiant, I will demand that they comply with my classroom rules. (BM12)
24. I nearly always use a teaching approach that encourages interaction among students. (IM12)

Please answer these open-ended questions completely. There is no right or wrong answer.
1. What is classroom management? Why is it/is it not important?
2. What more do you feel like you need to learn about classroom management to be more effective? Please be as specific as possible.
3. Describe (or imagine) a time when you used an effective classroom management skill and how that impacted the classroom.
4. From where/who did you learn your most effective classroom management strategies?
5. Does classroom context (e.g., student demographic, school structure, community) play a role in classroom management? Why or why not?

Consider your current teaching context (e.g., grade level, subject, students). You prepared two main activities for one class period. The first half of the class is primarily lecture-based on a new concept, with students taking notes on the material. The second half of the class, you will have the students

work in small group stations, between 3-4 students per group.

1. In the middle of the lecture, you notice two students in the back of the room throwing a ball of paper at each other every time you turn you back. No other students in the class notice. List two different strategies that would help to resolve this situation.

2. After explaining what each station is about, you release the students to go to their designated station. Only a handful of students get up from their desks, with a large contingent of students chatting with one another and discussing non-academic related items. List two strategies that you could attempt to manage the class.

Beliefs About Urban Student
This section asks you to reflect on your expectations and skills. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by marking the appropriate response at the right of each statement. Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3=Slightly disagree 4=Slightly agree 5= Agree 6=Strongly agree

1. The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background.
2. If students aren't disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline at school.
3. When I really try, I will be able to get through to most difficult students.
4. A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.
5. If parents would do more for their children, I could do more.
6. If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.
7. If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him/her quickly.
8. If one of my students couldn't do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.
9. If I really try hard, I will be able to get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.
10. When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment.

Please answer these open-ended questions completely. There is no right or wrong answer.
1. Urban students generally score lower on achievement tests in comparison to their suburban counterparts (National Center for Education Statistics, 1996). List two reasons why you believe this gap in educational achievement exists.
2. The per pupil expenditure in Michigan urban public schools is nearly double that of any other Michigan public school districts (MDE, 2012). Given additional funds, how could urban schools best allocate money to improve student achievement?
3. Should teachers adapt to how students are used to learning or should students adapt to teachers to best improve achievement? Explain and consider how to address teachers/students who are not willingly to adapt.

Consider your current teaching context (e.g., grade level, subject, students). You are teaching a new concept and wanted to assess the information that they have learned. You create a new activity that has students move to different areas of the room according to their answers. You explain the

directions to the students, in which one student complains, "Why don't we just tell you our answers instead of moving around?" Other students agree. What are different ways you could respond to the students and to the lesson?

Subject Specific Knowledge
In this section, we ask you to rate statements that indicate what you believe and know about reading, writing, teaching, and learning in your content area (e.g., science, mathematics, social studies). You should think of each question in relation to classes and content area you are currently teaching. Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3=Slightly disagree 4=Slightly agree 5= Agree 6=Strongly agree

1. A teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading abilities.
2. Teachers should teach content and leave reading instruction to reading teachers.
3. Knowing how to teach reading in your content area should be required for teaching certification.
4. Teachers should be familiar with the theoretical concepts of the reading process.
5. Only teachers of English should be responsible for teaching reading comprehension.
6. Every teacher should teach students how to read material in their content area.
7. The primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge.
8. A teacher should be responsible for helping students comprehend at an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read both symbols and print.
9. Teachers should help students learn to set purposes for reading and how to monitor their own success.
10. Teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to provide.
11. Teachers who want to improve students' interest in content area reading should model their own use of reading to obtain information or to solve problems in that content area.
12. How clearly a content text is written matters most in how a reader comprehends a content passage.
13. Text reading in a content area requires a special understanding of how language is used in that specific content area.
14. Content teachers are responsible for teaching technical content vocabulary.
15. Content teachers are responsible for teaching students to learn words of many different types to help develop their understanding of content.

Please answer these open-ended questions completely. There is no right or wrong answer.

Question 1: It is the beginning of the year and you have just been hired to teach an introductory class in your content area (i.e., Algebra, Biology, English 1, US History) to ninth-grade students. Your building principal welcomes you to the school and then informs you that she will expect your first unit plan and accompanying lesson plans one week before classes begin. **What kind of information would you need to know in order to begin your planning?**

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Question 2: What would you need to know about the students you'll be teaching?

Try to address each of the questions below in your response:

•How will you decide the level of information that your ninth-grade students will be able to handle?

•What will be your student learning objectives for the unit?

•How will you know throughout the unit whether your students are learning what you are teaching?

•How will you know at the end of the unit whether your students have learned what you taught?

•What will you do if you find that students are struggling with a concept or a skill in your class?

•What would you want to know about your students' cultural/racial/ethnic backgrounds?

•What would you want to know about your students' linguistic and text-based experiences?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Teacher Stress Inventory
Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3=Slightly disagree 4=Slightly agree 5= Agree 6=Strongly agree

1. There is little time to prepare for my lessons/responsibilities.
2. There is too much administrative paperwork in my job.
3. There is too much student work to grade.
4. I do not have enough time to reflect on my teaching practice.
5. Resources for teaching are difficult to locate within the school.

I feel frustrated...
6. ...because of discipline problems in my classroom.
7. ...because some students would better if they tried.
8. ...attempting to teach students who are poorly motivated.
9. ...when my authority is rejected by pupils/administration.
10. My colleagues support me when needed.
11. My administration supports me when needed.
12. I do not have the proper preparation for my current position.
13. I cannot reach the personal standards I have set for myself
14. I cannot reach the expectations that Teach for America expects of me.
15. I cannot reach the standards that the University of Michigan sets for me.
16. I feel professionally isolated when I am at my school.

Are you willing to volunteer for potential interviews or observations regarding your answers or ideas related to this survey? These volunteer opportunities will include cash incentives.
Yes/No

Appendix B: CERT Programmatic Post-Survey
Post-Survey of Demographic & Teaching Practices

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this survey is to learn more about [teachers'] beliefs and attitudes of different areas of teaching [CERT] program wants to learn about your background and prior knowledge of urban environments, classroom management, and subject matter so that we can better tailor our program to help you grow as an educator. Data from this survey will be repackaged to help seminar leaders, field instructors, and program managers to create more individualized instruction and evaluation. This survey consists of previously existing questions (from Ronfeldt & Reininger, 2009; Moje, 2008; Martin, 2010) and originally created questions.

The researchers have taken steps to minimize the risks of this study. Even so, you may still experience some risks related to your participation, even when the researchers are careful to avoid them. These risks may include questions that may be sensitive or uncomfortable. To reduce the risk, you may choose to not respond to any of the questions or end participation at any point during the study. Additionally, there is a chance that the information you provide could be unintentionally disclosed. To reduce this risk, the researchers will use a number ID for each individual with the identifier key will be encrypted on a password-protected laptop.

We plan on publishing the results of the study but will not include any information that would identify you. There are some reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provided as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly, including the [University] Institutional Review Board. To keep your information safe, the researchers will make sure your name is not attached to any data but the number ID will be used instead. The data you provide will be on a password-protected laptop and be retained indefinitely for future research. The data, however, will not be made available to other researchers for related studies following the completion of this research study and will not contain information that could identify you.

[Contact Information]

Full name:

I agree to participate in this study:
   a. Yes
   b. No

Corp Member Year:
   a. 2011
   b. 2012
   c. 2013

Pedagogical Preparation
Nearing the completion of your first year of teaching, how well prepared do you feel to …
Scale: Unprepared, Somewhat prepared, Adequately prepared, Well prepared, Very well prepared
17. plan effective lessons?
18. perform routine administrative tasks (e.g., take attendance, make announcements, etc.)?
19. manage class time to complete necessary tasks in the time available?
20. manage students' behavior?

21. manage classroom routines?
22. assess students' work?
23. interact with students' parents/families?
24. interact with the school administration?
25. deliver meaningful, engaging, and relevant lessons?
26. teach your subject matter?
27. use technology in classroom instruction?
28. adapt and use curriculum and instructional materials?
29. target instruction to individual students?
30. work with children with special needs?
31. respond to non-academic challenges facing individual students?
32. work with English language learners (ELL/LEP/ESL)?

Classroom Management & Content Literacy
Directions: For each statement below, please mark the response that best describes your actions or your thoughts about teaching.
Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3=Slightly disagree 4=Slightly agree 5= Agree 6=Strongly agree
33. I nearly always intervene when students talk at inappropriate times during class. (BM1)
34. I strongly limit student chatter in the classroom. (BM2)
35. I nearly always use collaborative learning to explore questions in the classroom. (IM2)
36. I engage students in active discussion about issues related to real world applications. (IM3)
37. I firmly redirect students back to the topic when they get off task. (BM8)
38. I insist that students in my classroom follow the rules at all times. (BM9)
39. I nearly always adjust instruction in response to individual student needs. (IM9)
40. I strictly enforce classroom rules to control student behavior. (BM11)
41. I nearly always use a teaching approach that encourages interaction among students. (IM12)
42. A teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading abilities.
43. Teachers should teach content and leave reading instruction to reading teachers.
44. Knowing how to teach reading in your content area should be required for teaching certification.
45. Teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to provide.
46. Content teachers are responsible for teaching technical content vocabulary.

Please answer these open-ended questions completely. There is no right or wrong answer.
1. What is classroom management? Why is it/is it not important?
2. What more do you feel like you need to learn about classroom management to be more effective?
3. Describe (or imagine) a time when you used an effective classroom management skill and how that impacted the classroom.
4. From where/who did you learn your most effective classroom management strategies?
5. Does classroom context (e.g., student demographic, school structure, community) play a role in classroom management? Why or why not?

Consider your current teaching context (e.g., grade level, subject, students). You prepared two main activities for one class period. The first half of the class is primarily lecture-based on a new concept, with students taking notes on the material. The second half of the class, you will have the students work in small group stations, between 3-4 students per group.

1. In the middle of the lecture, you notice two students in the back of the room throwing a ball of paper at each other every time you turn you back. No other students in the class notice. List two different strategies that would help to resolve this situation.

2. After explaining what each station is about, you release the students to go to their designated station. Only a handful of students get up from their desks, with a large contingent of students chatting with one another and discussing non-academic related items. List two strategies that you could attempt to manage the class.

Appendix C: Program Outcomes Not Included in Field Instruction Rubric

Additional Program Outcomes

6. Assess student learning
   a. Multiple forms of assessment
   b. Criterion for assessment
   c. Data tracking

7. Design intentional teaching and learning units
   a. Unit plans
   b. Lesson development

8. Relate and communicate effectively with parents, families, and community   a. Communicates with families and communities

9. Reflect on practice and leadership, and contribute professionally to the learning community
   a. Reflect on lessons and practice
   b. Builds relationships with colleagues
   c. Professional development

Appendix D: Total Data Collected By Participant (Date)

Participant	Ms. Babkin	Ms. Chatman	Mr. Frank	Mr. Sand	Mr. Vante
Pre-Survey	X (9/10/13)	X (9/12/13)	X (9/10/13)	X (9/14/13)	X (9/29/13)
Post-Survey	X (5/15/14)	X (8/30/14)	X (8/30/14)	X (5/15/14)	X (5/15/14)
Weekly Recording #1	X (2/24/14)	3/5 (3/6/14)	4/5 (4/14/14)	4/5 (2/10/14)	X (2/10/14)
Weekly Recording #2	X (5/12/14)	2/5 (4/28/14)	4/5 (5/12/14)	3/5 (5/5/14)	X (4/28/14)
Weekly Recording #3	3/5 (6/2/14)	2/5 (6/2/14)	0	X (6/2/14)	X (6/2/14)
Field Visit #1	X (5/7/14)	X (3/19/14)	X (4/29/14)	X (4/29/14)	X (3/18/14)
Field Visit #2	2 hours (6/2/14)	X (5/13/14)	X (6/5/14)	2 hours (5/28/14)	X (5/12/14)
Journal Entries Completed	7	1	3	6	5
Interview #1	X (12/4/13)	X (11/21/13)	X (4/10/14)	X (12/4/13)	X (12/5/13)
Interview #2	X (6/23/14)	X (6/19/14)	X (6/17/14)	X (6/23/14	X (6/16/14)

Note: X = Complete set of data

Appendix E: Classroom Management Interview Protocol
Introduction
   I appreciate your willingness to come today and participate in this interview. This study seeks to learn more about teachers' thoughts, feelings, and attitudes about classroom management. Please do your best in verbalizing affirmation and answers as we discuss information with one another. There is no judgment involved with your answers; I appreciate honest and authentic answers to best understand how teachers think about classroom management. If at any point, you feel uncomfortable and do not wish to participate, you may skip a question or stop the interview.

   I will be following this script of questions that I have laid out. I would be glad to clarify or rephrase questions, however I want to learn about your thoughts. If you care for my opinions about certain questions, if you could wait until the conclusion of the interview, I can (selectively) answer them at that point. Are there any questions before we begin?

   Researcher's note: red text refers to questions from the pre-survey. They are meant to build on the participants' answers that were provided.

Interview Questions
1.   Could you please state your name and what you teach?
2.   If you had prior experience with teaching, could you expand on what that prior experience was?

Management Beliefs
3.   How do you define classroom management?
  a.   Classroom management is…
4.   What impact do you believe classroom management has on a classroom?
5.   How important do you think classroom management is, relative to other teaching practices that you need to learn as a beginning teacher?
  a.   Why?
  b.   Practices such as lesson planning, attendance, differentiation, etc…
6.   Do you feel like effective managers can be prepared or is it a primarily innate skill?
7.   Is there a relationship between what you know or learn about classroom management, and how you enact classroom management?
  a.   Is your knowledge of management and your action of management related?
  b.   Can you act what you know or are you unable to act what you know? Or is it a matter of knowing more?
  c.   Or is there a disconnect between the two? Why or why not?
8.   Why does a student misbehave?
  a.   Do your students misbehave? Why?

Management Strategies
9.   What is your general approach to managing the classroom?
10. What are effective classroom management strategies that you employ?
  a.   Explain more…
11. When you think of different management strategies, are there specific categories or sets of strategies that you group together?
  a.   What are those groups?
  b.   What do they accomplish?
12. Are there effective management strategies that you have seen or heard that you would want to implement?
  a.   Explain more…
  b.   If so, why haven't you been able implement these strategies that others do?

Management Supports

13. Can you name different supports (i.e., people, books, internet) that have helped you learn about classroom management?
    a. Can you expand on the supports you listed from your pre-survey?
14. Can you describe how those supports helped you become a better manager?
    a. Are they doing/saying specific things?
    b. Does frequency of this person play a role?

Management Intervention

15. How could you have been better prepared to be a better manager when you first entered your classroom?
16. How could you currently be better supported to improve on your management skills?
    a. Are there strategies that would have been better learned through preparation and some that is better through experience?

That is the completion of this interview. I appreciate your time and your honest responses. Do you have anything else you would like to add?
- Turn off recording
- Ask for any additional questions
- Set up and clarify observation procedures
    o Is there a need for recording equipment?
    o Please record 1 class period, focusing the camera primarily on you if possible.
    o Feel free to choose a class that best shows you utilizing different management strategies
    o I will collect, review, and make observations
    o I will provide you the observations that I see; if you want to separately debrief or review my observations, that is available
        ▪ Note: I will need to balance my role as a researcher and as a teacher educator. That means I will need to potentially filter some of what I say with you during that debrief. Upon completion of data collection from you, I will gladly have a lengthier discussion if desired.

Identifying Classroom Management Strategies

This form is used to track what classroom management strategies you use throughout the whole day. What constitutes a strategy is based according to your beliefs about classroom management. Please complete this form each day, entering strategies that you use. If you use less than five, do not feel obligated to fill out five. If you use more than five, please submit additional entries as needed. I suggest filling it out as the day progresses if possible so you don't forget throughout. Similar strategies should be listed again each day but not multiple times within one day. If you have any questions, please email kwok@umich.edu

Name:

Date:

Strategy #1

What strategy did you use?

Why did you use that strategy?

Did your strategy work?

How do you know?

Strategy #2

What strategy did you use?

Why did you use that strategy?

Did your strategy work?

How do you know?

Strategy #3

What strategy did you use?

Why did you use that strategy?

Did your strategy work?

How do you know?

Strategy #4

What strategy did you use?

Why did you use that strategy?

Did your strategy work?

How do you know?

What reactions do you have about your management practice today?

What reactions do you have about your students/classes today?

Appendix G: Categorization of Classroom Management Units
Purpose: Find relevant units from the raw data.
- Identify relevant units of classroom management data from raw data. A unit for this study is defined as an explanation of a classroom management belief; the description and/or attempt of a spoken or non-verbal strategy to control student behavior, engagement, or interaction; or an explanation of how an influence supported the teachers' development in classroom management.
- Label the unit of data with one of three categorical codes about classroom management:
  - Belief- a complete statement about what the teacher thinks about classroom management. This can be about classroom management in the abstract, through personal experiences, or how teachers may have ideally wanted to manage a situation. Beliefs can also include groups of practices that the teacher implements that could accurately describe the thought process of having that particular group of practices. It is better to error on making belief units too large to capture a full idea or an entire episode because it can be multiple coded.
    - "Classroom management is the ability to manage student behavior toward productive, curricular tasks."
    - "My class was disorderly, it didn't matter what I had in my lesson plans, or what group activities I had or what I was doing. It was my number one priority."
    - "And the other part was that I think on some level I disagree with it. It seems like from a behaviorist perspective in psychology, conditioning is entirely reliant on context. If you take a subject out of that environment, if you take a student out of the classroom, they won't behave the same way as out of the classroom."
  - Action- teachers' descriptions or observations of a specific repeatable action to control student behavior, engage students in learning, or build/facilitate interactions in the classroom. More specifically, classroom management actions can be preventative and reactive techniques to control student actions by promoting appropriate classroom behavior while discouraging misbehavior; actions that teachers use to engage students in content by using content to draw student attention or drawing student attention to content; or actions include facilitating positive interactions in the classroom by building relationships. Actions can be verbal or non-verbal, and are independent of one another. These are actions only performed by the focal teachers.
    - "[Student], check fold (your hands."
    - Teacher snaps for one student's attention and again walks closely up to that student before returning back to the center of the classroom.
    - "There is a lot going on in this one. I was talking to them about expectations for low volume. This is how loud I am going to talk. If you talk louder over me, you're going to miss something. He was moving around a lot; I said [Student], take a break. I'll talk to you. He went out and came back in. I think it was effective when I did it but it took a lot of time to always be saying I'm talking at this level if you can't hear me and you can't hear me. I've done it in a couple other classes that I think it went pretty good. A lot of them want to hear what I'm saying and they will shush each other. And that's more effective than me yelling at them."
  - Influence- person, object, experience, or designated resource that helps the teacher develop or implement classroom management. This is any external source that measurably impacts teachers to make a positive or negative change within their

management practice. Though people may be in contact with the focal teachers, there must be a self-reported response that the participant described that changed how they thought about or implemented management.

- ▪ "[My ACP-FI] tries and she's a good person and her advice is definitely helpful but not exactly where I need it."
- ▪ "My curriculum coordinator did a lot. She helped me to build up positive feedback and stuff. Positive rewards, systems. I just messed up on my end and wasn't really consistent. She pushed me to set them up, which was helpful. I think that was the hard part."

- Data labeled as beliefs, practices, or influences are transferred into the corresponding Microsoft Excel sheet for further analysis. Place one piece of data per cell.

Appendix H: Coding Data Units
Purpose: Code categorized data using codebook
      Directions: Once data are transferred into the Excel sheet, label each piece of data with one of the following codes in an adjacent column. Use your best judgment to consider the complete idea that represents each data piece best. Make note of any discrepancies or questions that arise. Code one category of data at a time.

Beliefs: a complete statement about what the teacher thinks about classroom management.
1. **Beliefs About Managing for Student Learning of Content**: Teachers' descriptions about the importance of classroom management in helping students to learn about content. This code includes teachers' abilities to create and implement lesson plans, assessments used to measure student achievement, and finding ways to promote student learning of material. Make sure statements are in relationship to classroom management and not solely beliefs about effective pedagogy in general. *Key terminology includes lesson planning, content, and student learning. For lesson plans, this is an abstract description of how teachers deal with the skill or experience of lesson planning or the process; specific examples of a lesson plan that was used or an activity that was conducted would be categorized as a practice, not a belief.*
    a. "Classroom management is the ability to manage student behavior toward productive, curricular tasks."
    b. "But if they are performing well in the classroom but they were so crazy I would think there is something productive going on in that space. That's what I was kind going for I feel like throughout the year, it just didn't happen. That's why I was saying I was ineffective."
2. **Beliefs About Managing a Safe Classroom Environment Through Relationships:** Teachers' descriptions about how creating a safe, orderly, and organized classroom environment is important for building relationships in the classroom. Teachers talk about how they intentionally build a space where students feel comfortable to engage in material or how they could facilitate student interactions. *Key terminology includes safe, orderly, and relationship building.*
    a. "I think building relationships and getting them to buy into what you're trying to do is more important. Like why are we learning math? Here's why we're learning; here are our goals. Are you using this algebra and geometry in the life? Maybe not. I'm when I tell you how you are and I'm going to give you examples of how you could or will and you need to buy into that for me to successfully teach you algebra."
    b. "I think it's crucial to have a safe environment, a well-run classroom. If you have horrible management, you're not going to get much accomplished, you're not going to get through your agenda or your schedule for the day. If you have good classroom management, you have a welcoming environment, a safe room for all kids."
3. **Belief About Setting Up Classroom Systems:** Teachers' descriptions of setting up and enforcing different classroom systems to show how students are supposed to act. More specifically, it can include the broad explanations of how they would use consequences, procedures, incentives, and rules in the classroom. Generally, there is an implicit focus on structures to moderate student behavior. These are not the actual consequences, procedures, etc. that are used or else would classify as a practice. *Key terminology includes systems, rules, and procedures.*
    a. "What it takes to get there, maybe it's the aspect of that the beginning of the year tightening things up. Not ever standing for that, if I'm talking and your talking then there is no place for you in this classroom."

b. "They can actually make learning more effective because if you have these systems in place that make your time used well, make the best out of the resources you have they can make learning more efficient."

4. **Beliefs About Other Classroom Management Approaches:** Beliefs about other classroom management approaches that teachers may use. These are theoretical frameworks, learning theories, or the motivation for using sets of strategies that teachers have separate from behavior, academics, and relationships. These are beliefs about classroom management that do not properly fit any of the above categories. *No key terminology but these data should not be double-coded with the learning/safety/systems codes.*

    a. "Whereas in the classroom, I was more laid-back. I have a different coaching style, if a kid messes up in practice I'm on him or he's running laps. So maybe I need to bring some of that into the classroom."

Actions: teachers' descriptions or observations of a specific repeatable action to engage students in content or comply with classroom systems.

5. **Promoting Student Engagement Using Academic Content:** Teacher actions that facilitate student engagement and drawing student attention towards content. This includes finding different ways to ask students about content to make sure they pay attention, keeping students on task with work, and facilitating participation in an activity. This includes refocusing students on the work that they need to do, allotting students a certain amount of time to complete work, and a setting up of specific academic expectations.

    a. "I think I got too lazy. At the end of the year, I was spending 10-15 minutes per lesson plan, just picking textbook problems and planning a five-minute lesson, I think it works better then crazy long things that I was making. Just something in between."

    b. "[Purposely planning] denies students the ability to misbehave because they don't understand something, which generally increases their ownership of misbehavior"

6. **Setting Behavioral Expectations**: Explicit, non-verbal, or subtle ways for teachers to make sure students are acting appropriately. These include the use of specific behavioral procedures, attention getters, and ways for making sure students are positioned in a scholarly manner. These can be whole class or individual corrections that generally prioritize in the moment noise level or student focus. Procedures are routine class actions (e.g., passing out papers, transition to a different activity) to maximize the total amount of time students have to learn. This includes having students sit down, using their eyes to track the teacher, and having the appropriate materials for class.

    a. "You guys can work together, I don't really mind. You just need to be quiet and on task."

    b. "Stop. Bottoms flat. Backs straight. [student name] check. Fold your hands. Eyes are on me. Put them down."

7. **Consequences For Student Misbehavior:** These are actions that teachers take beyond giving students warnings that are the result of specific student misbehavior. This is a major result that can occur because the teacher deemed the student's misbehavior as inappropriate.

    a. One girl loudly whistled. The teacher talked to her and sent her out for 10 minutes. That girl was not too thrilled.

    b. "I think I underused parent calls; I should've done more parents calls. It should of been the third or fourth. They haven't been largely received. That's one that largely depends from student to student. For some students I called at the beginning of the

year they were fine forever. Some of them, their parents won't answer or they wouldn't care."

8. **Praising Students For Positive Behaviors:** These are primarily verbal practices that teachers use to praise or positively narrate what students are doing. It is a way to encourage an individual student and possibly suggest how other students should act. This can include both positive behavior and academic behaviors.
   a. "Pointers up. Way to go blue row."
   b. Student flips her card up for acting correctly.

9. **Establishing Class Layout & Environment:** Practices manipulating the class layout of where resources and furniture should go, particularly focusing on desk arrangement and where students should be seated. This is a prepared prior to students coming into the classroom and does not include requiring students to move seats as a consequence of misbehavior but can include the use of music.
   a. "Groups of four obviously are helpful for group work. Checking answers, team competitions, math, I love doing team competitions. But at the end of the day it was so hard to, talk now to a partner, now I'm back at the board please stop talking."
   b. "I can get backlash because I switch seats a lot. I was told them I put everybody in a certain spot for a reason. It's very strategic whether they can figure it out or not. They can usually pick up, oh I'm with my friends that's why I'm here. At the end of the day, my word is going to stand."

10. **Relationship Building Practices:** Teacher-student interactions where teachers interact with students to learn more about students or build rapport with students. These include informal conversations that teachers have with students and activities for teachers to share about their lives or learn about their students.
    a. He says one strength is that his relationships with students came naturally, with the ability to connect with them. He makes sure to not let anything become a barrier between him and his students.
    b. "Tutoring. At lunch and after school tutoring. Twice a week; that helped to build relationships with their individuals."

11. **Other Practices:** Other practices not listed above but are used by teachers to appropriately manage the classroom. An example is a practice that builds procedural or academic competition for students into the classroom.

Influences: person, object, or designated resource that helps the teacher develop or implement classroom management.

12. **Alternative Certified Program:** Support and specific advice about classroom management given from ACP more broadly and teachers' field instructors.
    a. After lunch, Mr. Vogel has a meeting with his ACP-FI to create an action plan.
    b. "That was it within [ACP]. My [ACP-FI] brought a guest once or twice just to see my classroom and a friend who was doing a study like you are doing. I think she was from [another university]. Even from all of her criticisms and negative advice, she felt like I was doing a good job. She had people here to look and to observe me. He had a person who was teaching here for next year come and watch. Like a 2014 core member to observe the culture and environment. There are other schools like ours. We're not the best but were definitely not the worst."

13. **School Personnel:** Any support from school personnel about classroom management. This ranges from other teachers, curriculum or instructional coaches, administration, or professional developments held by the school.

a. "My curriculum coordinator did a lot. She helped me to build up positive feedback and stuff. Positive rewards, systems. I just messed up on my end and wasn't really consistent. She pushed me to set them up, which was helpful. I think that was the hard part."

b. "I think my first impression, I was too friendly. That's what other teachers were saying to me. You can't be their friend; you're being too nice."

14. **Classroom Experiences**: Any other influence that occurred in school but are not directly from school personnel. This includes experience with current students, parents, or student scores/data. Influences from students would include typical behavior on average that requires the teacher to make an intentional change rather than a momentary or reactionary result from misbehavior.

a. "The checks and the color change [behavioral systems] are not very effective for either of them. Both of them respond fairly well to proximity [so she] went by to stand by one of their desks"

b. "Trial and error"

15. **Other Influences**: Includes CERT staff, books that teachers may have read, or experiences that teacher may have had.

Appendix I: One-Way T-Tests of 1ˢᵗ Year CERT Teacher Sample (n=87) and the Sample of Teachers Who Completed Belief Questions (n=58)

Variable	Obs	Mean (Std. Dev.)	Obs	Mean (Std. Dev.)	t-statistic (p-value)
Elementary Teachers	87	0.51 (0.50)	58	0.50 (0.50)	-0.21 (0.83)
Teaches in Public School	85	0.06 (0.24)	58	0.07 (0.26)	0.33 (0.74)
Teachers in Charter School	85	0.76 (0.43)	58	0.76 (0.43)	-0.18 (0.86)
Teachers in State Operated School	85	0.18 (0.38)	58	0.17 (0.38)	-0.02 (0.98)
Previous Teaching Experience	86	0.56 (0.50)	58	0.52 (0.50)	-0.21 (0.83)
Paid Experience Working With Children	86	0.66 (0.48)	58	0.66 (0.48)	0.06 (0.95)

Action Questions (n=49)

Variable	Obs	Mean (Std. Dev.)	Obs	Mean (Std. Dev.)	t-statistic (p-value)
Elementary Teachers	87	0.51 (0.50)	49	0.51 (0.51)	0.21 (0.84)
Teaches in Public School	85	0.06 (0.24)	48	0.08 (0.28)	0.61 (0.55)
Teachers in Charter School	85	0.76 (0.43)	48	0.79 (0.41)	0.46 (0.65)
Teachers in State Operated School	85	0.18 (0.38)	48	0.13 (0.33)	-1.07 (0.29)
Previous Teaching Experience	86	0.56 (0.50)	48	0.52 (0.50)	-0.51 (0.61)
Paid Experience Working With Children	86	0.66 (0.48)	48	0.67 (0.48)	0.06 (0.96)

Influence Questions (n=57)

Variable	Obs	Mean (Std. Dev.)	Obs	Mean (Std. Dev.)	t-statistic (p-value)
Elementary Teachers	87	0.51 (0.50)	57	0.51 (0.50)	0.18 (0.86)
Teaches in Public School	85	0.06 (0.24)	56	0.07 (0.26)	0.36 (0.72)
Teachers in Charter School	85	0.76 (0.43)	56	0.77 (0.43)	-0.06 (0.96)
Teachers in State Operated School	85	0.18 (0.38)	56	0.16 (0.37)	-0.32 (0.75)
Previous Teaching Experience	86	0.56 (0.50)	56	0.52 (0.50)	-0.60 (0.56)
Paid Experience Working With Children	86	0.66 (0.48)	56	0.66 (0.48)	0.03 (0.97)

Note: * $\rho<0.05$. ** $\rho< .01$. *** $\rho < .001$ of values.

Appendix J: An Excerpt From a Memo About Case Participant Beliefs

Code 2
Initial thoughts
- Much of the relationship piece is the teacher getting to know the students. But there's also allowing the student to get to know the teacher and students knowing each other.
  a. Safe environment
     i. Comfort, respect, whole group, trust
     ii. Students treating each other correctly
  b. Building relationships, getting to know them
     i. Is this definitely a belief? Does it coincide with a practice?
     ii. Love
     iii. Caring for students; love and logic
     iv. Individualizing students
  c. Other

I think this is decently straightforward with only dealing with a handful of main ideas. There is an idea of a safe environment, which can create comfort for students. This safe environment probably has similarities to the learning environment but focuses more on respect and listening to others. There is a belief that building relationships is important. I think a major difference between the two sub-codes will be doing things for the class versus doing things for the individual student.

A. **Creating a safe environment for students.** I think this is the foundation of what teachers try to accomplish. The safe environment consists of ways to get the classroom to be a place where students feel comfortable (to learn) and to be a community that can work together. Students need to respect their peers and positive interactions should be fostered between students. There is a trust from the students that teachers set things up with their best interests in mind and have boundaries set up for a particular reason.
   a. "I think it's crucial to have a safe environment, a well-run classroom. If you have horrible management, you're not going to get much accomplished, you're not going to get through your agenda or your schedule for the day. If you have good classroom management, you have a welcoming environment, a safe room for all kids."
   b. "I think it makes learning possible because if students aren't safe they can't do anything."
B. **Having students feel safe by building positive relationships.** This can occur through a variety of ways but it's primarily driven through care and love for individual students. The teachers believe that they should get to know each student, which could then help to find out what interests them and how they could best be managed. There is also an aspect of respect between one another where teachers make themselves more personable and relatable to students by fostering individual conversations and positive teacher-student interactions. Finally, there is an aspect of viewing students as individuals rather than vessels that need to learn. Teachers believe they need to prioritize that each student needs and responds differently through instruction and personal interactions.
   a. "My approach I feel this year and it probably comes off, I treat everybody as an individual instead of this big unit. I know which kids have a lot of energy and I know which kids can move and not be distracted and which kids learn and by their move. I kind of approach managing things based on each kid."
   b. "Build it off of relationships and respect. Have my students perform for me because they know that I count on them and that I believe in them and that I am working for them. I

try to reinforce the understanding that when I asked for silence it's not a punishment not because I like the sound of my own voice but because we need to this as a group."

Appendix K: A Summary Excerpt From a Memo About the Relationship Between Beliefs and Actions

Relationship #1: Teachers have academic and behavioral beliefs and use academic and behavioral actions.

All teachers have beliefs, regardless if it is a definition or approach, which are about managing the academic and behavioral areas of the classroom. Teachers believe that managing student behavior through structures such as procedures and consequences can lead to student learning of academic content.

Additionally, teachers frequently manage the classroom using academic and behavioral actions. The academic actions include preparing engaging activities and refocusing student on their work while behavioral actions include using attention getters to yelling at students to be quiet.

This finding is important in understanding the baseline beliefs and actions that all teachers have and use, respectively. All case participants heavily focus on academics and behavior when thinking about and implementing management.

Relationship #2: Teachers with secondary beliefs often use more secondary actions.

Developing in classroom management could be the presence and use of "secondary areas of management." Secondary areas include caring about student safety, building student relationships, and adjusting the classroom layout. Teachers' beliefs about secondary areas of management are most frequently mentioned in their approaches.

Teachers vary in their use of secondary actions but, on average, use more secondary actions to manage the classroom over time. Teachers either increased their use of one secondary action or added a secondary action that they previously did not frequently use.

The secondary actions that teachers use tend to match the areas of the classroom mentioned in their approaches. A teacher that described their management approach about a secondary area of the classroom was more likely to frequently used that type of action in their classroom. There were some discrepancies.

175

Appendix L: An Excerpt From a Memo About Beliefs Over Time

Ms. Chatman
Time Period 1
Beliefs: Ms. Chatman has a foundational belief about the importance of classroom management in driving students behaviors for academic success. She believes that "classroom management is an essential prerequisite to student achievement. It means providing structure to the learning environment through clear goals, rules and expectations and systems of consequences that encourage adherence to expectations. It is important, first and foremost, because students want discipline in their learning environment. It is also essential to student achievement which is necessary for our students to succeed in their lives." She is very straightforward and confident in her understanding about classroom management.

She approaches management through the understanding of students as boundary pushers, testing to see if they can get away with different types of behaviors. She believes that if she successfully set up "our systems, our rules, our sets of consequences, our rewards, firmly, then from there, everything will flow. It is the foundation, basically." She holds on to the idea of systems driving how students should behave and how she should manage, particularly concerning behavior. Though she avoids trying to be stern and authoritative in her desire to control behavior. Instead, she tries "to be very positive all the time. Obviously I can't be positive all of the time but I try to infuse my management with a lot of…empowering kids to love those systems." She wants to make sure students find value in behaving correctly and that it's not a means of her trying to control the system. She hopes that students have an internal motivation.

Time Period 2
Beliefs: At a foundational level, Ms. Chatman describes classroom management similarly by defining it as "setting up systems so that students can succeed and students can learn and reach their full potential." She continues to go in depth about how the systems and behavioral aspects are managed through procedures so that learning can student learning can happen. However, she also acknowledge that she's "evolved a little bit in understanding, or seeing classroom management as character development, setting habits for success beyond just my classroom for my year…Those are tools that will help someone succeed in what they want to achieve, getting through high school getting through college and being a professional." She recognizes that management is not just managing behavior and getting students to learn content but it also includes trying to instill academic habits for the present and future. She wants the students to be life-long scholars and not focused on immediate success for the sake of this class.

Ms. Chatman's approach prioritizes the systems that they have in the school and classroom, such as the color chart system, but recognizes that there is something beyond the system. She continues to believe that the systems are to build "a sense of urgency and a sense of mission in the class…then academic success can grow out from that." She wants to build a sense of investment, or empowerment, in the students so that they understand the value of learning and building habits, rather than it being a means of controlling for controlling's sake.

Appendix M: Difference Between Reported and Observed Actions By Case Participant
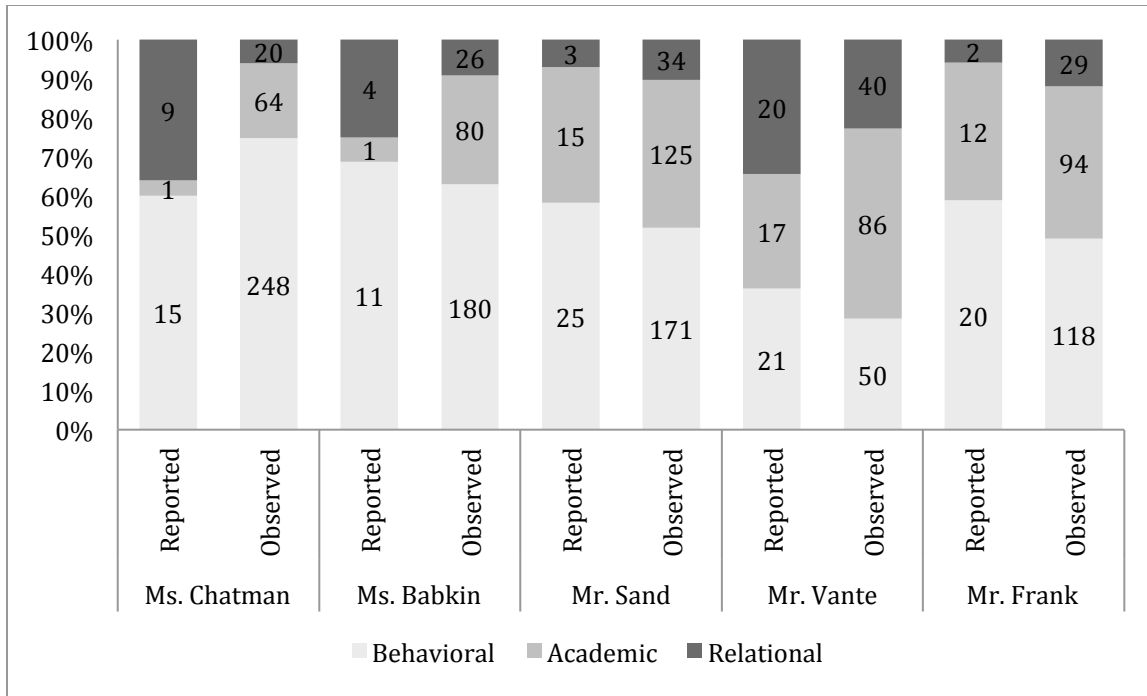
Appendix N: Chi-Square Tests of Teachers' Behavioral, Academic, and Relational Beliefs and Actions (n=87)

	Non-Behavioral Actions	Behavioral Actions	Total
Non-Behavioral Beliefs	6	9	15
Behavioral Beliefs	15	57	72
Total	21	66	87
$\chi^2 = 2.49$ (0.115)			

	Non-Academic Actions	Academic Actions	Total
Non-Academic Beliefs	8	0	8
Academic Beliefs	66	13	79
Total	74	13	87
$\chi^2 = 1.55$ (0.213)			

	Non-Relational Actions	Relational Actions	Total
Non-Relational Beliefs	37	5	42
Relational Beliefs	38	7	45
Total	75	12	87
$\chi^2 = 0.24$ (0.622)			

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