THE IMPACT OF DIFFERENT TEACHER EDUCATION COURSES ON THE BELIEFS AND PROBLEM-STUDENT COPING STRATEGIES OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

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I hereby certify that the work embodied in this thesis is the result of original research and has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other University or Institution

(Signed) K. Fullerton
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ABSTRACT

The results of this cross-sectional study involving 102 entering primary teaching candidates and 104 exiting graduating primary preservice teachers from four different teacher education institutions revealed both stability and change in the beliefs of these two groups of prospective teachers about various aspects of teaching. Beliefs that tended to remain stable related to student control (i.e. giving students greater autonomy about making decisions about managing their own behaviour); their sense of personal teaching efficacy (i.e. their ability to make a positive impact on student learning); and general teaching efficacy (i.e. the ability of teachers in general to overcome the adverse effects of the home environment and family background). Those beliefs that appeared to change as a result of the teacher education intervention included their perceptions of the teacher's role, their management efficacy and their views on teacher control. Final year preservice teachers displayed more confidence in their ability to manage students and gave more emphasis to instruction, as opposed to socialisation, than first year preservice teachers. In addition, they believed that teachers should make the decisions about managing the instructional process. There were also institutional differences, with the beliefs of preservice teachers from religious institutions giving more emphasis to socialisation as part of the teacher's role but less emphasis on the teacher controlling the instructional process than their secular counterparts. With respect to strategies used to cope with problem students the responses of the two groups of preservice teachers were generally more similar than different. These strategies appeared to be based more on commonsense psychology resulting from their own personal experience as school students rather than well developed theories of discipline. Limitations of the study were

discussed and suggestions were made for improvements in teacher education in light of the research findings.

CHAPTER ONE

APPROACH TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The researcher in this study is a final year preservice primary teacher. On entry to the teacher education course she had confidence in her ability to teach but was not aware of some of the uncertainties that she would confront during her teacher education experiences. She had a view of teaching that emphasised the affective and interpersonal aspects of teaching with the development of self-esteem of students as a priority. With respect to classroom management she felt that this was achieved by relating to primary students as equals and that the teaching process was perceived primarily as being one of parenting or nurturing. To be a good teacher one had to be caring, understanding, patient, and be able to relate well to young students. Believing that she possessed these qualities she was naively confident about her future success as a teacher.

Her experiences in the first two years of the teacher education course reinforced her beliefs about teaching rather than causing change. Most of the early course work was theoretical in nature and helped cultivate a humanistic orientation to teaching. A small number of opportunities were provided to interact with students in small groups but the structure of these activities was such that they posed no discipline problems. In many ways they were really scaled down teaching situations which enabled preservice teachers to be introduced to instruction in a non-threatening manner. The only other teaching encounters were in peer microteaching situations where the researcher had to teach a small group of her fellow students. Again, this experience provided no great threat as all

of her peers were highly supportive of each other as they were all confronted by the same task. The real challenges came during the three short practice teaching sessions that were experienced in schools. The first practice teaching session involved kindergarten students and this experience did little to change the researcher's early beliefs about teaching. The researcher was placed with a teacher who exemplified all the characteristics that the researcher held about the qualities of a good teacher. The next two practice teaching sessions were with upper and middle primary grades which were composed of cooperative, well-mannered and diligent students. To further enhance the researcher's sense of efficacy about her teaching, both teachers of these two sets of students were extremely competent teachers who gave a tremendous amount of support to the researcher in her limited and successful encounters with teaching.

At the commencement of the researcher's third year of the teacher education course she was scheduled to undertake a short practice teaching session prior to the commencement of her course work. From her earlier positive experiences in working with students she had high expectations of the next opportunity to teach. From the outset of this practice teaching session she became immediately aware that this teaching experience was going to be different as the class contained a small number of students with Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD). For the first time she was introduced to the harsh realities of teaching. She had heard of the "ripple effect" from her course work on preventative management but now she was actually observing it as it occurred in her own classroom. Even though she had achieved high grades within those subjects which covered the major theorists on discipline she was at a loss as to which strategies she

should use in coping with these problem students. Most of the discipline theorists in her course work had emphasised general techniques (such as behaviour modification procedures or Glasser's 10-step procedure) rather than specific responses tailored to specific types of students or situations. At the completion of the practice teaching session the researcher wondered what other uncertainties in teaching awaited her. Her own personal sense of teaching efficacy had just been battered and she still had not found solutions to her disciplinary problems.

Consequently, when the researcher was provided with an opportunity to conduct some research of her own on teaching she found the selection of a topic quite easy in light of the trauma experienced during that practice teaching session. She wanted to know what other types of problem students were likely to confront prospective primary teachers and what strategies they might use to address them. Moreover, since her beliefs about classroom management and teacher role had changed with her sense of personal teaching efficacy she wanted to find out whether other preservice teachers experienced similar changes. Hence, this study is focused upon the changes in the beliefs of preservice teachers that resulted from their four years of experience in learning to teach.

1.2 Structure of the Study

The first chapter describes the events that stimulated the researcher's interest in the beliefs of preservice teachers about their teaching efficacy, management, teacher role definition, and how to cope with problem-student types. In the next chapter the literature related to these aspects of teaching is reviewed. The design and methodology for

gathering and analysing data are then described. Following this the results are presented and discussed, with suggestions for further research and for teacher education. In the final chapter, the researcher reflects on the outcomes of the research in relation to the issues raised in the initial chapter of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

The quality of education has become a major concern, both nationally and internationally, because of the social and economic benefits that can be derived from a better skilled and educated workforce. One response to the concern has been the development of policies directed at improving the quality of teacher education (e.g. Holmes Group Report, 1990; Adey's Draft National Guidelines on Initial Teacher Education, 1995).

In an attempt to assist with this improvement many researchers are now focussing their efforts on factors related to the effectiveness of teacher education courses. One set of factors that has received increasing attention from researchers is the role played by attitudes and beliefs in understanding teachers' thought processes, classroom practice, change, and learning to teach (Richardson, 1996). It is the intention of this study to investigate the changes in the beliefs of preservice teaching with a view to obtain a greater understanding of how prospective teachers learn to teach.

2.2 Purpose of Study

Good and Tom (1985) suggest that researchers should examine the way in which a sense of efficacy is affected by teacher education courses. At the same time, Doyle (1986) has suggested that one of the two major tasks of teaching is to establish and maintain order in

the classroom. This task is very problematic for beginning teachers, especially given the increased number of behavioural problems in schools created by their changed student population. Research by Veenman (1984) has indicated that classroom management is the major concern of beginning teachers. Hence, it would seem important to examine how teacher education courses affect the beliefs of student teachers about their efficacy and how they ought to manage students and cope with chronic behavioural problems.

It is the primary purpose of this study to examine the impact of a small number of teacher education courses on the beliefs of their student teachers by comparing the beliefs of entering and graduating students with respect to efficacy, management, teacher role definition and coping with problem students. Although this study will be technically naturalistic in that the experimental conditions will not be imposed, different courses of teacher education and stages of training can, in essence, be regarded as constituting treatments of sorts with beliefs about the various aspects of teaching being the dependent variables.

2.3 Learning to Teach

The way in which beginning teachers learn to teach has attracted increasing attention from researchers in recent years. The literature on teacher education and the teaching profession identifies an array of sources of learning that are potentially available to teachers and prospective teachers which can enhance their competence in the classroom. For example, Clark, Smith, Newby and Cook (1985) in reviewing the research on the origins of teaching behaviours concluded that "a person's teaching repertoire originates

from a variety of sources, many of which are tangential to or outside of the training program itself" (p.49). Smylie (1989) attempted to assess systematically teachers' perceptions of a wide range of learning sources available to them and the relative efficacy teachers attributed to these sources in providing knowledge and skills needed in their particular teaching situations. From the fourteen sources that the elementary teachers were asked to evaluate in terms of their effectiveness in developing and improving their teaching competence the teachers ranked their direct experience as a teacher as being the most important source. This source ranked significantly higher than the next most valuable group of sources which included consultation with other teachers, observation of other teachers, study and research pursued independently, and consultation with specialists. It was certainly interesting that the undergraduate courses in their fields of specialisation and their undergraduate courses in education were ranked tenth and fourteenth respectively with the differences in the rankings being statistically significant.

In attempting to explain these findings in relation to university course work, Smylie (1989) made reference to the research of Lortie (1975) who maintained that teachers generally viewed the university education course work as too theoretical and not sufficiently practical to inform and guide their classroom practice. University course work primarily conveys propositional knowledge as global advice without developing meaning or skills to adapt it to specific classroom events and contexts (Shulman, 1986). Nor does this course work assist teachers to analyse their own classrooms or their own practice and experiences (Good & Brophy, 1991). In fact, Veenman (1984) maintains that at the time of his research beginning teachers felt wholly unprepared by their

preservice university course work for the realities and problems they encounter in their first classroom experiences. Most experienced teachers remember their practice teaching as being the most relevant and effective part of their university training. However, the effectiveness of learning from this experience appears to be limited, in large part, because of the infrequent occurrence of feedback sessions that relate their formal pedagogical education to their experiential learning (Koehler, 1985).

Zeichner and Gore (1990) in their review of the literature on teacher socialisation also concluded that the formal aspects of teacher education courses "are not very powerful interventions" (p. 338). With respect to the influence of the field-based experiences the authors maintained that they have differential effects with there being little understanding of the specific factors that influence teacher learning. Richardson (1996) also contended that preservice teacher education, except for the practice teaching element, was a weak intervention "sandwiched between two powerful forces - previous life history, particularly that related to being a student, and classroom experience as a student teacher and teacher" (p. 113).

Kagan (1992a) in her review of the professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers is more critical of teacher education courses because of their failure for not adequately addressing what she considers to be the primary tasks of teacher preparation courses. These tasks are: (a) acquiring knowledge of pupils; (b) using that knowledge to modify and construct their personal images of self as a teacher; and (c) developing standard procedural routines that integrate classroom management and instruction.

Wideen, Mayer-Smith, and Moon (1998) in their critical analysis of the research on learning to teach disagree with Kagan's (1992a) conclusions because they believe that the process of learning to teach should be based on a theory that is radically different from that which has traditionally underpinned research and courses in teacher education. They do, however, agree with Kagan (1992b) in that teacher education courses should focus more closely on what prospective teachers already **know** and **believe** about teaching.

Kagan (1992b), in reviewing three studies of the role played by pre-existing beliefs and images early in teacher education courses, reported that although the contexts of the studies differed the findings were basically the same. Each of the studies "document the central role played by pre-existing beliefs/images and prior experience in filtering the content of educational course work" and "testified to the stability and inflexibility of prior beliefs and images" (p. 140).

This is not to suggest that teacher education programs do not bring about changes in the behaviour and thinking of preservice teachers. Dunkin, Precians, and Nettle (1994), in a cross-sectional investigation examining the effects of formal teacher education upon the cognitions of prospective teachers relating to teaching, found two significant differences between first and third year preservice teachers in relation to references to various dimensions of teaching and the types of knowledge influencing their choices in these dimensions. Of the four dimensions of teaching used for reference, first year preservice teachers were found to make significantly more references to interpersonal relationships

as being important to enhancing student learning than their third year counterparts. With respect to the thirteen types of knowledge used which influenced their choices the third year preservice teachers referred significantly more to contextual variables than the first years. Because of the absence of supporting data no attempt was made to explain the findings. However, as only two of the seventeen variables investigated revealed differences between the two groups of preservice teachers, it would seem to indicate that the effect of the teacher education course was not strong.

In a follow-up study Nettle (1998) spoke of stability and change in the beliefs of preservice teachers when examining the effects of practice teaching upon their beliefs. Whilst the beliefs of the majority of first year preservice teachers remained unchanged after practice teaching he found that those who did change moved from an affective orientation to a task orientation. He also found that the likelihood of this shift in orientation was dependent upon the beliefs of supervising teachers. The shift was more likely to occur when the supervising teacher's own orientation toward teaching was task oriented, or conversely, less likely to occur if the supervising teacher had an affective orientation. In discussing these results, stability in preservice teachers' belief was attributed to the influence of prior beliefs that preservice teachers brought with them to their teacher education courses.

Nettle (1998) also maintained that the influence of teacher education on preservice teachers' beliefs was much more varied that Kagan's (1992a) conclusions suggested. He cited a number of studies which reported changes in the beliefs of preservice teachers.

These changes related to their views of teaching and learning (Bramald, Hardman, & Leat, 1995), knowledge of classroom events (Carter & Gonzalez, 1993), concerns (Guillaume & Rudney, 1993), attitudes towards the humanistic approach to teaching (Kyriacou & Cheng, 1993), perceptions of diversity (Ross & Smith, 1992), pedagogical content knowledge (Rovegno, 1992) and classroom management (Winitzky & Kauchak, 1995). More recently, however, Tillema (1998) indicated that the literature on learning to teach repeatedly pointed to "the stability and even inertness of preservice teachers' beliefs, as an outcome of specific programmes on interventions aimed at belief change". (p. 217)

2.4 Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

a. Definition

Teaching efficacy (TE) is a type of self efficacy and, as such, it is a self perception, not an objective measure, of teaching effectiveness (Ross, 1998). As a psychological construct, teacher efficacy was first introduced in the Rand Corporation evaluations of projects funded by Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977, cited in Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Two items based on Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory were used in these evaluations to determine teachers' levels of efficacy. The first item, "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" reflected Rotter's notion of **external control**. Rotter's notion of **internal control** was reflected in the second item; "If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or

unmotivated students." A teacher's level of efficacy (i.e. **teaching efficacy**) was determined by computing a total score of their responses on a 6-point Likert scale to each of these items. Since then researchers have attempted to develop longer, more comprehensive measures of TE based on Rotter's theory (e.g. Teacher Locus of Control, Rose & Medway, 1981; Responsibility for Student Achievement, Guskey, 1981; and the Webb Efficacy Scale, Ashton, Olejnik, Crocker, & McAuliffe, 1982, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998).

More recent studies on TE have been based on Bandura's (1977) cognitive social learning theory which proposed a future oriented view of TE as it was based on the expectations of teachers. Bandura maintained that motivation was affected by both **outcome expectations** (i.e. judgements about the positive or negative consequences of performing some action) and **efficacy expectations** (i.e. the individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing the actions to achieve the goal). The efficacy question is, "Do I have the ability to perform the action to accomplish the task?" i.e. "I believe I can/cannot do it." The outcome question is, "If I accomplish the task will the consequences be positive or negative?" "I believe that if I do it the outcomes will be positive/negative" (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, p.210). Furthermore, outcome and efficacy expectations were regarded as being interrelated as efficacy expectations precede and help form outcome expectations (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

b. Measurement

Gibson and Dembo (1984) developed a more extensive and reliable measurement of TE, beginning with the Rand formulation, but incorporating Bandura's ideas of efficacy and outcome expectations (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998). This is reflected when they wrote: "If we apply Bandura's theory to the construct of TE, outcome expectancy would essentially reflect the degree to which teachers believed that the environment could be controlled, that is, the extent to which students can be taught given such factors as family background, IQ, and school conditions. Self efficacy beliefs would be teachers' evaluations of their abilities to bring about positive student change" (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, p. 570). Outcome expectations and efficacy expectations were subsequently named as general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy by Gibson and Dembo (1984).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) developed a 30 item measure of TE. Factor analysis of these items produced two factors, one which was called Personal Teacher Efficacy (PTE) (alpha = .75), was assumed to reflect self-efficacy, and the other called General Teacher Efficacy (GTE) (alpha = .79), was assumed to measure outcome expectancy. Because acceptable reliability resulted from only 16 of the original 30 items further research resulted in a revised scale of 16 items (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Using the Gibson and Dembo items, other researchers have confirmed the existence of two factors (e.g. Soodak & Podell, 1993; and Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) with alphas ranging from .75 to .81 for PTE

and from .64 to .77 for GTE. Scores also tended to be stable as Ross (1994) found test-retest correlations over an eight month period of .61-.67 and .55-.81 for the two scales. Although studies of TE have consistently found two separate factors involved in TE there has been some confusion and debate about the meanings of the factors. There appears to be general agreement on the first factor (i.e. PTE) but the meaning of the second factor (ie GTE) has been questioned. Emmer and Hickman (1991) called the second factor "external influences" which appears to be similar to Rotter's construct of external control. Others, such as Soodak and Podell (1996), agree with Gibson and Dembo's (1984) assumption that it measures outcome efficacy. The reasoning seems to be that if the individual teacher believes he or she can accomplish the outcome then teachers in general should be able to achieve the outcome. Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) disagree with this line of reasoning because an individual's assessment of his or her ability to achieve the outcome is different from his or her assessment of the ability of teachers in general to achieve the outcome. Guskey and Passaro (1994) maintain that Emmer and Hickman's (1991) "External Influences" is a better label for what current GTE items measure.

More recently, the teacher self efficacy construct has been extended to an area of classroom management and discipline by Emmer and Hickman (1991). These researchers pointed out that only two items in the Gibson and Dembo scale appeared to relate to efficacy beliefs about classroom management. The results of their research supported a conception of teacher efficacy being more differentiated than the two factor model used by Gibson and Dembo (1984). Not only did their findings replicate the two subscales of Gibson and Dembo (1984), but they also created a third and independent

factor consisting of items dealing with classroom management and discipline. This more differentiated conception of teacher efficacy should be useful in studying what role efficacy plays in teacher development and in strategies for dealing with misbehaving students.

c. Correlates

Some intriguing findings have resulted from the more comprehensive measures based on Rotter's (1966) theory. TE has been found to be positively related to student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998), teacher willingness to implement innovation (Smylie, 1988), reduced stress among teachers (Parkay, Olejnik & Proller, 1988, cited in Ross, 1998), willingness to stay teaching rather than resign (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982 cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998), and less negative affect when teaching (Ashton, et al., 1982, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998).

Research findings on TE based on Bandura's theory are reasonably consistent with those based on Rotter's theory although the correlations are not large. In addition PTE has been found to be higher for female teachers, except in subjects with strong male profiles (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988) and to rise with experience (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993), especially following the first practice-teaching sessions with preservice teachers. (Housego, 1992; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). Also, teachers with a higher PTE have a stronger commitment to the profession (Caladarci; 1992) and are more likely to continue in the career and seek further training. Hence, graduate teachers have been found to have

higher PTE than undergraduate teachers (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). Related to this experiential factor is the finding that preservice teachers with greater experience in non-instructional settings are more likely to overestimate their teaching abilities (Weinstein, 1988). In contrast to the positive relationship of experience with PTE, GTE (i.e. belief in the capability of teachers to overcome environmental obstacles to learning), tends to decline with teaching experience, especially in the early years, including preservice (Brousseau, Book & Byers, 1988; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; 1993).

Although evidence on the effect of workplace variables (grade, social class, and class size) on TE is mixed, some relationships have been demonstrated consistently. It has been found that PTE is higher in elementary schools, in schools and classes with higher ability (Fuller & Izu, 1986; Evans & Tribble, 1986) and orderly students (Smylie, 1988). Teacher workload, stress and burnout have been negatively related to PTE (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, & Bassler, 1988). On the other hand, collaborative and participatory school cultures (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1987) and leadership actions which are responsive to teacher concerns and which are perceived to be useful by teachers (Brissie, et al., 1988; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) have been found to be positively related to PTE.

The consequences of TE have a direct effect on teacher and student outcomes. Higher PTE has been found to be related to the use of teacher techniques that are more innovative and challenging (Guskey, 1988; Rose & Medway, 1981; Hoover-Dempsey, et al., 1987; 1992) and classroom management problems that promote student responsibility

(Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990). Podell and Soodak (1993) have also found that teachers with higher PTE display more willingness to work with students with learning and/or behaviour problems rather than refer these students to special education. Also, PTE has a positive impact on students' cognitive and affective growth (Anderson, et al., 1988; Woolfolk, et al., 1990). If teacher efficacy has such a positive effect upon these activities of the classroom, then it is important to examine aspects of its development among preservice teachers.

2.5 Beliefs about Classroom Management

a. Definition

For purposes of this research it is important to distinguish between the terms 'classroom management' and 'classroom discipline.' Although these terms are often used interchangeably, the two terms are not the same. The literature generally defines classroom management as a broad umbrella that includes, but is not limited to, discipline concerns (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). The breadth of management concerns for teachers is evidenced by Charles (1983) who lists three areas of classroom management sometimes overlooked in relation to management. These areas include aspects that require attention before the school year begins (e.g. classroom preparation), the first days and weeks of school (e.g. seating, routines, traffic patterns and rules) and continual attention (e.g. curriculum selection and organisation and record keeping and reporting).

However, most classroom practitioners almost exclusively relate management to student conduct. Research has focused on ways to prevent potential management problems in

the classroom and how to cope with minor disruptions when they occur (Fullerton, 1993). Discipline is usually related to ways of coping with continued and serious student disruptions. The response to these disruptions calls for more diagnostically oriented approaches to coping with the problems (Fullerton, 1993).

b. Measurement

Although classroom management is regarded as an important construct for understanding teaching, research efforts to explore the effects of classroom management are limited by the quality of instruments available to measure teacher perceptions and beliefs about this construct. Some of the instruments used in research include the Pupil Control Ideology (Willower, Eidell, & Hoy,1967, cited in Packard, 1988), the Problems in School Inventory (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981), the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory (Tamashiro, 1980, in Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986) and the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (Martin & Baldwin, 1993). In addition to these scales Emmer and Hickman (1991) drew attention to the efficacy aspect of classroom management. They developed items to measure this aspect and added them to the Gibson and Dembo (1984) scale.

The Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) is a scale based on an ideological continuum ranging from custodial to humanistic approaches to management. The Beliefs on Discipline Inventory (BDI) is based on a combination of psychological interpretations which are placed on a continuum ranging from non-interventionist to interventionist. The Problems in School Inventory (PSI) is based on cognitive evaluation theory and assesses the

orientations of individuals in solving social and behavioural problems in schools along a continuum from controlling to autonomous. The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (ABCC) measures broader concepts of classroom management. It includes three dimensions of classroom management; namely, person, instruction, and discipline. The person dimension includes what teachers believe about students as persons and what they do to enable students to develop as individuals. The instructional dimension incorporates what teachers do to enable students to learn, such as the establishment and maintenance of classroom routines, physical room arrangement. The discipline dimension entails the use of behaviours that teachers use to set standards for behaviour and to enforce those standards.

c. Correlates

In reviewing the research on PCI studies Packard (1988) identified four major categories of correlates. The categories included: (a) personality correlates; (b) organisational correlates; (c) experience correlates; and (d) behavioural connections and outcomes. In terms of personality high PCI scores have been found to correlate positively with such factors as locus of control (.92), authoritarianism (.84), attitudes about and use of corporal punishment (.78), traditional family values (.77), dogmatism (.76) and subject matter emphasis (.68). Strong negative correlations have been found with feelings of inadequacy (-.79), progressive educational attitudes (-.63) and student autonomy (-.57). In relation to these findings Packard (1988) maintains that such correlations vary too much between other studies examining the same personality factors to be too definite about the relationships.

In terms of organisational correlates the most obvious explanation is that threatening conditions contribute to higher PCI scores. There is some evidence that teachers in more threatening circumstances have higher custodial PCI scores. For example, higher custodial scores have been found to be related to low SES schools, boys' schools, public schools, large schools and secondary as opposed to primary schools. Again, however, the results are not uniform and depend heavily on cross-sectional studies (Packard, 1988).

The threat hypothesis is evident again when Packard (1988) examined the role of experience on PCI scores. The line of reasoning in relation to experience is that as individuals move into the role of teacher and find themselves confronted with threatening students in a threatening atmosphere, they will become more and more custodial. Beginning teachers also learn from experienced teachers to view the environment, particularly students, as threatening. Moreover, official and informal group expectations place pressure on new teachers to act in more custodial ways. There is some evidence from PCI research which indicates that beginning teachers become more custodial with initial experience and they tend to remain that way. For example, Packard (1988) cites many studies of preservice teachers that report increases in PCI scores with increase experience in practice teaching. The impact of practice teaching on the beliefs of student teachers is discussed in a later section of this study.

There appears to be a relatively stable association between PCI scores and student feelings. Higher PCI scores appear to be related to less positive student attitudes and

reports on relationships with teachers. For example, Deci, et al. (1981) using the PSI reported that students of autonomy oriented teachers perceive their teachers as being more supportive and they, themselves, as being more intrinsically motivated and having higher perceived levels of confidence. However, Packard (1988) maintains that much remains unexplained about the relationship between PCI and a number of factors. In particular, there are some puzzling findings on gender differences. For example, because females tend to have more humanistic PCI scores than males it does not necessarily mean that students automatically prefer classes with female teachers.

Woolfolk, et al. (1990) in examining teacher's orientations toward management control and student motivation found that the greater the teacher's sense of PTE, the more humanistic the teacher's student control orientation. Also, it was found that the teacher's belief that teaching can be successful, even with difficult and unmotivated students (i.e. GTE), was related to a more humanistic student control orientation and greater teacher support of student autonomy in solving classroom problems. Teachers who believed that students must be controlled and cannot be trusted were found to be more likely to believe that extrinsic rewards are necessary to motivate students. Similar results were found with preservice teachers by Woolfolk and Hoy (1990). These results are discussed subsequently .

2.6 The Development and Modification of Beliefs

Because this study examines the beliefs of prospective teachers entering and graduating from teacher education programs it makes sense to consider how efficacy and

management beliefs develop and how they might be changed or strengthened at critical stages in the careers of prospective teachers. This is important as the research findings discussed have indicated that a teacher's sense of efficacy plays a powerful role in schooling.

a. Characteristics of Entering Teacher Candidates

Whilst there is little research data on TE and management beliefs for entering teacher candidates there is quite a deal of research on their confidence, self-assurance, and optimism. Irrespective of how confidence in teaching is measured it is generally high for entering teacher candidates with male secondary teacher candidates being the highest (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). Although female secondary teachers have a lower level of self-confidence than males they expect that they will gain more from the teacher education course (Kalaian & Freeman, 1994). Overall, however, entering teacher candidates believe that there is not much they can learn in preservice education except during their practice teaching experiences (Book, Byers & Freeman, 1983) and that learning to teach can only be accomplished through experience (Richardson-Koehler, 1988). There is also some evidence that self-confidence ratings vary as a function of age or institution (Brookhart &Freeman, 1992). Weinstein (1990) used the label, "unrealistic optimism", to describe the high levels of confidence among entry level candidates but found that their ratings of their teaching skills decreased after the introductory course work. It was suggested that the decrease in ratings was caused by the fact that during the introductory course work students had an opportunity to compare themselves with other teacher candidates who were equally talented.

This sense of "unrealistic optimism" was also apparent with entering teacher candidates in a study conducted by Benz, Bradley, Alderman & Flowers (1992). They found that entering teacher candidates and college faculty had higher senses of efficacy in their ability to motivate problem students than experienced teachers. They suggested that both situations might be explained by the actual distance away from the real world of day-to-day classroom teaching of the personnel involved.

b. Beliefs of Preservice Teachers

Many preservice teachers appear to underestimate the complexity of the teaching task and overestimate their ability to cope with many events simultaneously. At times they become disappointed with the gap between the standards they have set for themselves and actual performance. Consequently, some engage in self-protective strategies by lowering their standards in order to reduce the gap between the requirements of excellent teaching and their self-perceptions of teaching competence (Weinstein, 1998).

There is some evidence that course work and practice teaching have differential effects on personal and general teaching efficacy. Course work seems to affect GTE in a positive way (Watters & Ginns, 1995, cited in Ross, 1998). This was evident in a study conducted by Woolfolk & Hoy (1990) where preservice teachers who had not experienced practice teaching found a positive relationship between GTE and a humanistic orientation to pupil control. When this data were further analysed using a more complex statistical procedure a significant interactive effect between GTE and PTE

and orientation to pupil control was found. Using canonical correlations it was found that preservice teachers with both high GTE and PTE were more humanistic in their control orientation than those with low PTE. A similar result was reported by Saklofske, Michaluk & Randhawa (1988, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998) with liberal arts majors. On the other hand, those student teachers with low GTE and high PTE were found to be more custodial than those with low PTE.

However, in another study (Hoy & Woofolk, 1990) where preservice teachers had actual teaching experience during practice teaching, it was found that the perspectives of preservice teachers became more controlling as they progressed through their practice teaching session. They became significantly more custodial in their pupil control orientation (as measured by the PCI) as well as more controlling in their orientation toward solving social problems (as measured by the PSI). Moreover, their GTE decreased as their sense of PTE increased. Similar students who were preparing to teach but who had not experienced practice teaching did not experience these changes in their teaching perspectives during the same time.

McCormack (1998) also found a significant decline in GTE of preservice teachers after a ten week internship but PTE remained stable. Furthermore, she reported changes in the management style of preservice teachers in relation to instructional management but no significant changes in people and behaviour management. With respect to instructional management they became more controlling in matters relating to the classroom

environment, associated routines, monitoring learning behaviour and feedback to students.

Emmer and Hickman (1991), using their extension of the Gibson and Dembo (1984) instrument, found that the scores on the efficacy subscales of preservice teachers nearing the end of their practice teaching were correlated with preferences for using positive strategies for classroom management (ie strategies aimed at increasing or encouraging desirable student behaviours through praise, encouragement, attention and rewards). The subscales were found not to relate to strategies that attempted to eliminate behaviours by using time-outs, punishment or reprimands. Preservice teachers were also found to be more likely than experienced teachers to seek outside help in dealing with problem students. Also during practice teaching preservice teachers with higher PTE have been rated more positively on lesson presentation skills, questioning behaviour and classroom management by supervising teachers (Saklofske, et al., 1988, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998).

With respect to beliefs about classroom management McLaughlin (1991a) concluded that the central dilemma for preservice teachers is the conflict between wanting to care and, at the same time needing to control students when managing their classrooms. This dilemma appears to be consistent with Brophy's (1988) suggestion that preservice teachers hold two main beliefs or misconceptions that can interfere with learning to manage classrooms. These misconceptions relate to believing that the key to classroom management is the establishment of authority through punishment, commands or threats

and holding the idealistic belief that their own love of children will lead to warm and friendly relationships without the need for authority. In a study based on the work of Brophy (1988), Johnson (1994) attempted to determine the extent to which the beliefs of preservice teachers matched three conceptions of effective management. These conceptions were as follows: rule based, which emphasised the importance of establishing and consistently enforcing rules, well paced lessons and monitoring student behaviour; personal power and authority, which emphasised commanding respect through forceful directions and fear; and nurturing, which emphasised warm friendly relationships and gaining student liking as a means of eliminating misbehaviour. This study found that rule based conceptions of management predominated amongst the preservice teachers as being the most important in their ability to control classes.

Martin and Baldwin (1992) compared the beliefs about classroom management of experienced teachers with preservice teachers and found that preservice teachers were significantly less interventionist. Swanson, O'Connor, and Cooney (1990) also reported that preservice teachers were less directive and obtrusive compared with experienced teachers who made more use of punishment, time-outs, and other disciplinary measures. However, as with efficacy beliefs, practice teaching appears to be a significant factor in a shift in beliefs about classroom management. As mentioned previously, as preservice teachers begin to teach their attitudes and beliefs shift, becoming more pessimistic and controlling (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). McCormack (1998) also found that final year female preservice teachers became more interventionist with their instructional management strategies at the completion of a ten week internship. A similar shift was

found in a study by Etheridge, James, and Bryant (1981, cited in Martin & Baldwin, 1992) who found that prior to practice teaching there was a significant difference between preservice teachers and their supervising teachers regarding their management strategies. However, at the conclusion of practice teaching the beliefs of the preservice teachers became more interventionist and the differences between the preservice and inservice teachers were no longer significant. As mentioned earlier, Nettle (1998) found that the orientations of preservice teachers to teaching were influenced by their supervising teachers during practice teaching.

c. Beliefs of Beginning Teachers

Few studies have been carried out with the efficacy beliefs of first-year teachers. It would appear that efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers are related to stress and commitment to teaching, as well as satisfaction with support and preparation. Beginning teachers with high PTE experience less stress, are more optimistic about remaining in teaching, are happier with the adequacy of support, and rate the quality of their teacher preparation courses more highly (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998).

d. Beliefs of Experienced Teachers

Efforts to influence the expectations of experienced teachers through skill development through inservice courses have yielded mixed findings. What appears to be critical in all of these courses is that the courses do not deviate too far from the teachers' preferred practices and that opportunities are provided to share experiences with peers who have

had some prior experience with the new approaches and for follow up in the classroom (Ross, 1998).

e. Changing Beliefs

As mentioned previously, research has suggested that on entry to teacher education courses prospective teachers already have highly entrenched beliefs about what constitutes good teaching and learning and that these beliefs act as a kind of "filter" through which all the theoretical content in teacher education is interpreted. Numerous studies (e.g. Kagan, 1992b and Weinstein, 1990) have testified to the stability and inflexibility of these beliefs and the important role that they play in the prospective teacher's image of self as a teacher.

Even practice teaching, which has consistently been valued by both preservice and inservice teachers as being the most important aspect of their professional preparation (Batten, Griffin, & Ainley, 1991) and has been regarded as the strongest factor in changing beliefs (Zuzowsky, 1995 cited in Tillema, 2000), does not appear to change the beliefs of preservice teachers except to make their beliefs about management and teaching more custodial and task oriented. Most studies researching into the impact of practice teaching, however, have revealed that the deep-seated personal beliefs and characteristics remain unchanged after practice teaching (e.g. McLaughlin, 1991b).

McCormack (1998) suggested a number of reasons for the failure of practice teaching to change the beliefs of preservice teachers. These included the short duration, lack of a

common knowledge base and pedagogical language for all participants to understand and to use in assisting the professional growth and socialisation of preservice teachers. It has also been suggested that the failure of teacher educators to make an impact on the beliefs of preservice teachers is due to their lack of agreement about the desirable attributes and beliefs about teaching. This situation probably reinforces, rather than challenges, the beliefs that the preservice teachers already hold (Brousseau & Freeman, 1988).

The difficulty in changing the beliefs of preservice teachers is evidenced in the research carried out by Bird, Anderson, Sullivan, and Swidler (1993). In a course designed specifically to challenge the beliefs of preservice teachers about teaching and learning the researchers found it difficult to establish a satisfactory working relationship with the preservice teachers and to organise productive interactions between their current beliefs and to provide feasible alternatives in their eyes. It would appear that any teacher education course attempting such a task would face similar problems in changing the beliefs of its preservice teachers. One reason for this is that the literature on belief change provides no full agreement on the conditions under which existing beliefs can be effectively challenged (Dunkin, 1996).

f. Summary: Modification of Beliefs

In reviewing the research on changes in the beliefs of preservice teachers Richardson (1996) indicates that the context of schooling and classroom experiences are the most powerful influences. However, she warns that changing beliefs at the preservice level is quite complex as preservice teachers lack practical knowledge and it is very difficult, if not impossible, to assist them in linking their beliefs to teaching practices. The beliefs

that they hold when they begin their teacher education courses have not been tested in the classroom and they are not aware of the role that these beliefs will have on their actions as teachers. Nevertheless, she maintains that if preservice teachers are provided with opportunities to master a range of teaching competencies that they perceive as being successful and if they are placed in teaching situations with competent role models then there might be some changes. The truthfulness of this statement can be tested, to some extent, by comparing the differences between entering teacher candidates and graduating teachers in their beliefs and in the actions that they employ in coping with behavioural problems.

2.7 Behavioural Problems in Schools

The main anxieties and concerns of entering teacher candidates relate to their adequacy as teachers, their ability to maintain discipline and being liked by students (Pigge & Marso, 1987, cited in McCormack, 1998). Problems with discipline is a concern expressed by most beginning teachers. For example, Veenman (1984) synthesized a total of 91 studies that focused on the self-reported concerns of beginning teachers and found the concerns, in order of frequency mentioned, included classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, and dealing with parents. He concluded that "classroom discipline was the most seriously perceived problem area for beginning teachers" (p.153). At the same time, a recent meta-analysis of factors influencing student learning identified classroom management as the most important factor (Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1993).

Managing classrooms in the 1990's and beyond will be an even more demanding task than in the 1980's when the Veenman research was conducted because of the changing nature of student population. Teachers are now being asked to include a wider range of students in their classrooms. In addition to students with special needs teachers also have to cope with an increasing number of students who come to school with personal, social, and emotional needs that have a negative impact on their ability to benefit from the learning environment (Jones, 1996). Many of these students are suffering from significant emotional problems stemming from out of wedlock birth, poverty, parent divorce or separation, adult neglect and abuse, and homes affected by alcohol or drug abuse. For example, Sarantakos (1996) reported a 42% increase in one-parent families from 1982 to 1992 in Australia whilst in USA nearly 55% of children born in the 1990's will experience their parent being divorced or separated with one in four children living in a step-family arrangement (Jones, 1996).

In USA a study conducted by the Center for Educational Statistics (1987, cited in Jones, 1996) teachers estimated that 7% of their students had habitual behaviour problems; there was a 44% increase in disruptive classroom behaviour in schools compared with figures taken 5 years earlier; and 29% of teachers considered leaving teaching because of student misbehaviour. Also 58% of a large sample of teachers "ranked 'individual students who continually misbehave' as the number one cause of job related stress" (Feitler & Tokar, 1992). Teachers spend significantly more non-academic time attending to students who continually misbehave and have 60%-90% more student-or teacher-

initiated interactions with these students (Thompson, White, & Morgan, 1982, cited in Jones, 1996).

Studies in academic time-on-task present further concerns about the importance of classroom management and discipline in teaching. A study of 132 teachers in six elementary schools reported that students were on-task in academic learning time for only 32.2% of the school day (Rich & McNelis, 1988: cited in Jones, 1996). Jones (1996) also reported another study which indicated that approximately half of the teacher's actions are involved in organising and arranging students for instruction (22%), dealing with misbehaviour (14%), and handling individual problems (12%). Wragg (1984) has reported similar findings in British schools.

a. Approaches to Addressing Behavioural Problems

It has only been 30 years since discipline rose to the top of teachers' concerns and attention has been directed to promote good student behaviour by means other than intimidation and punishment (Charles, 1996). Around the 1960's behaviour modification emerged as a way to shape desired behaviour through reinforcement. Later, in the 1970's, there was a shift from how to respond to student behaviour to how to prevent or reduce unproductive student behaviour (Jones, 1996). This shift was initiated by Kounin's (1970) benchmark research which was expanded by other researchers such as Evertson and Emmer (1982).

With the changes in the student population and the increased public concern about discipline in schools (Elam, Rose & Gallup, 1994, cited in Charles, 1996) other educators, psychologists and psychiatrists have undertaken to develop more effective approaches to school discipline (Charles, 1996). Among some of the best known and useful approaches have been Dreikurs' "Logical Consequences," Canter's "Assertive Discipline," Glasser's "Control Theory," Gordon's "Problem Ownership Approach," and Curwin and Mandler's "Discipline with Dignity." Most of these approaches appeared in the 1970's but have been revised so as to incorporate concepts from the three major discipline approaches; namely, preventative, behavioural, and counselling (Jones, 1996). These approaches are now incorporated in most teacher education courses as units of study.

b. Types of Behavioural Problems

Whilst there is an increasing concern about discipline in schools, little research has been directed at the types of misbehaviour with which teachers have to deal. Charles (1996) identifies five broad types of misbehaviour but does not specify his source. These types of misbehaviour, in order of seriousness, include aggression (physical and verbal attacks by students on the teacher or other students); immorality (acts such as cheating, lying, and stealing); defiance of authority (refusal, sometimes hostile, to do as the teacher requests); class disruptions (talking loudly, calling out, walking around the room, clowning, tossing objects and the like); and goofing off (fooling around, not doing assigned tasks, dawdling and daydreaming). Duke and Meckel (1984) also identified a set of common problems without specifying their source. Their problems included

attendance; incomplete assignments; smoking, drinking, and drugs; fighting and aggressive behaviour; student disrespect toward other students; and student disrespect toward teachers. Neither of these authorities relate their identified problems to the level of schooling; ie elementary or secondary. In addition, with the exception of certain applications of behaviour modification principles, there has been very little research focusing on dealing with these problems and, in particular, on techniques that might be feasible and effective for the ordinary classroom teacher.

c. Types of Behavioural Problems in Elementary Schools

One study which addressed these shortcomings was conducted by Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981). These researchers gathered data from 98 experienced school teachers in 44 inner-city schools. These teachers were distributed fairly evenly across grades K-6 and all were nominated by their principals as being either outstanding or average in their ability to deal with difficult students. From this set of data 12 types of "problem" student were identified that concerned, frustrated, or worried teachers in some way. These types included failure syndrome, perfectionist, under-achieving, low-achieving, hostile aggressive, passive aggressive, defiant, hyperactive, short attention span, immature, peer-rejected, and shy/withdrawn students. (See Appendix 3.d for descriptions of these problem students.) These behavioural types overlap, to some extent, with those used in the Teacher Tolerance Scale (TTS) developed by Safran and Safran (1984) to assess the tolerance of elementary teachers to observable problem behaviours. The two behavioural areas which they found to be least tolerated by teachers were aggression and poor peer cooperation, both outer-directed behaviours. In terms of

least tolerance the other behaviours were impatience, inattention, work organisation, socially withdrawn, irrelevant thinking, blaming, confusion, need for direction, and failure anxiety.

Brophy and McCaslin (1992) in examining the oral reports of experienced teachers on how they would cope with the twelve types of problem students identified by Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) found that teachers chose the following strategies:

Shy/withdrawn: Denial that a problem exists; statements that nothing can be done; minimise stress or embarrassment; provide support through proximity, voice control, or eye contact; kid gloves treatment; build and use a personal relationship; change the social environment.

Passive aggressive: Extinguish or ignore undesirable behaviour; get peers to pressure or punish.

Hyperactive: Minimal intervention/redirect; inhibit through proximity, voice control, or eye contact; eliminate external source of problem; change physical environment or isolate; involve medical experts.

Distractible: Minimal intervention/redirect; eliminate source of problem; change task; change physical environment or isolate; provide academic help.

Defiant: Inhibit through physical proximity, voice control, or eye contact; time out to extinguish the behaviour or simply to remove the student from the situation; threats and punishment; involve parents or authority figures to pressure or punish.

Hostile aggressive: Time out to allow the student to calm down; behaviour contracts; counselling to produce insight; group work; involve parents or school authority figures to provide support or help.

Immature: Personal criticism and blame; encourage or provide positive expectations.

Perfectionist: Appeal/persuade; direct modelling; indirect modelling; comfort or reassurance; kid gloves treatment.

Failure syndrome: Support through physical proximity, voice control, or eye contact; praise, encouragement, and positive expectations; build self-concept; change task; provide academic help.

Underachiever: Rewards; contracts.

Rejected by peers: Indirect modelling; eliminate source of problem; counselling to produce insight; change social environment; group work; involve peers to support help.

In terms of the rationales for the strategies observed across problem types the most frequently reported rationale (i.e. encourage/support) was mentioned more often for failure syndrome, perfectionist, and shy/withdrawn students but seldom for passive-aggressive or defiant students. In contrast the second most frequently reported rationale (i.e. control/suppress) had the opposite pattern. Also, instruction, training, modelling or helping were mentioned frequently only for immature and shy/withdrawn students; helping the student cope with the problem only with hyperactive students; treating

external causes only for hyperactive, distractible, and rejected students; and persuasion only for perfectionists.

2.8 Beliefs about Teacher Role

a. Definition

Good and Brophy (1991) also argued that a broad range of differences in the classroom behaviour of teachers could be expected to flow from teachers' role definitions ie their general beliefs about what they should accomplish as teachers and what tasks and functions they would need to perform in order to do so. The two important aspects of teacher role that they identified were **instruction** (i.e. presenting academic content and supporting students' learning) and **socialisation** (i.e. fostering the personal adjustment of students, promoting good group relations, and preparing students to be good citizens).

b. Correlates

In comparing instructors with socialisers from classroom observations Brophy (1985) found that socialisers focused more than the instructors on dealing with the behavioural and personal problems of students but were not necessarily more successful in doing so. There were also extensive differences between socialisers and instructors in their responses to the vignettes. As with classroom observations, the pattern of responses suggested that socialisers focused more on working with problem students but they were not necessarily more effective in doing so. They were more likely to redirect blame for problem behaviour by mentioning such factors as poor parenting or social environments, to acknowledge that some problems could have been caused by their own inappropriate

behaviour and to try and help through supportive techniques. They were also less likely to criticise or punish (although it was noted that punishments mentioned by instructors usually involved staying in after school, restitution, or referral to the principal rather than physical punishment or other punitive reactions that might seem inappropriate). These differences seem to indicate that socialisers displayed greater tolerance of, and willingness to work with, problem students. However, it was also found that socialisers were more likely to "diagnose" problem students publicly, discuss their behaviour during class meetings to reduce peer support for such behaviour, and even generate peer pressure against it.

The responses of the socialisers were consistent with their expressed role definitions as they indicated a willingness to go beyond teaching-learning concerns in order to get to know students as individuals and try to promote their personal adjustment and socialise their interpersonal behaviour. This emphasises the fact that measures of teachers' role definition reflect teachers' classroom styles and orientations. Also, given the apparent linkage between the role definitions of socialisers and the humanistic orientation to classroom management it would be anticipated that there would be some relationship between teacher role definitions and beliefs about classroom management.

In addition to identifying these patterns of responses by experienced teachers to coping with these problem students Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) raised questions about the preparedness of teachers to cope with these problems. Relatively few of the teachers in their sample had specific knowledge of, let alone training in, behaviour modification,

mental health consultation nor strategies for dealing with problem students. The question of the preparedness of teachers to cope with problem students is another purpose of the study. By comparing the strategies used by entering and graduating preservice teachers in coping with these problem students it should be possible to gauge how effective teacher education courses are in addressing some of the shortcomings in teacher preparation identified by Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981).

2.9 Conclusion and Specific Research Questions

In Chapter One the researcher indicated that her beliefs about various aspects of teaching had changed when, during one of her practice teaching sessions, she was confronted with a small number of students who were chronic behaviour problems. She also expressed concerns about her inability to access strategies derived from her management and discipline course work which she could have used to cope with the problem students. At the same time, she doubted whether these strategies were tailored sufficiently to be effective with the particular problem-student type that she had encountered.

The review of the literature has indicated that the beliefs of preservice teachers are very resilient and seldom change. This is contrary to the researcher's personal experience. Consequently, it is the intention of this study to:

(i) examine the stability or change in the beliefs as implied by the data collected from first and final year preservice primary teachers;

(ii) gauge the impact of teacher education upon the preservice teachers' beliefs and, at

the same time, examine the differential effects of religious and secular teacher education institutions on these beliefs;

(iii) examine preservice teachers' responses to vignettes related to specific problem-student types in classroom situations.

The specific beliefs to be examined include those relating to teaching efficacy, management, teacher role definition and strategies and rationales used to cope with different types of problem students.

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study investigates the impact of four different primary teacher education courses upon preservice teachers' beliefs about teacher efficacy, management and discipline. The study allows a comparison between first and final year preservice teachers across these dimensions. The three instruments used (See Appendices 2.a, 2.b and 2.c) were adapted from studies conducted with experienced teachers (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Martin, Yin & Baldwin, 1997; Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1981). Hence the results obtained with the preservice teachers can be compared with those obtained with experienced teachers. This chapter discusses the research design, describes the three instruments employed in the study and describes the nature of the analysis of the data. The chapter also examines the various settings from which the subjects were drawn and provides a description of the four teacher education courses as offered by the four institutions (designated A-D).

3.2 Study Design and Data Collection

This study was cross-sectional in nature, and hence data was gathered from, firstly, graduating students after the completion of their internship and toward the end of their final semester of studies and secondly, from entering students during the first semester of their teacher education program. The principal methods of inquiry incorporated three questionnaires to obtain attitudinal and belief data and structured self-reports on coping strategies preservice teachers would use with problem students. These questionnaires

were chosen from the literature and were used with experienced teachers, but do not appear to have been used to generate data from preservice teachers. All the instruments used in this study were chosen because of the reliability and validity as measures of classroom management and efficacy beliefs and because they were all well researched (McCormack ,1998) and used in other studies (McCormack, 1998; Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Brophy & McCaslin, 1992).

3.3 Subjects and Settings

Data were gathered about four primary teacher education courses at different institutions and from 206 first and final year preservice teachers who were students at those institutions. An outline of the aims, structure, practice teaching arrangements and units of study in management and discipline of each course is outlined below.

a. Institution A

The course of Institution A aimed, within its relevant Christian tradition, to develop reflective, educated, culturally aware and responsive individuals who are able to function effectively as beginning teachers in a variety of settings. Particular emphasis was given in the course to responding to the need for increased discipline studies and content pedagogical content knowledge. This emphasis was reflected by the two principal areas of study in the course; namely Discipline Studies and Professional Studies.

There were 40 units of study within the course, each worth 10 credit points. There were18 units of Discipline Studies composed of sequences of Education (4 units),

Theological Studies (3 units), Curriculum-focused Studies (6 units) and Electives (4 units). For Professional Studies there were 18 units composed of Curriculum Studies (11 units), Teaching Studies (3 units), and Field Experience (4 units). In addition, there were 5 School-specific units which could be taken as specialisations in particular curriculum areas, or as specialisation in other areas such as TESOL or LOTE, or as additional discipline studies.

The Teaching Studies units included 2 units on Teaching and Classroom Management for 3 hours per week for one semester each. One unit focused on basic teaching skills and elementary classroom management and discipline. The other unit gave particular emphasis to models of teaching and management.

The Field Experience units involved 25, 15, 20, and 40 days of continuous practice teaching in schools at years 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively and totalling to 100 days overall.

b. Institution B

The aim of this course was to develop individuals who displayed self awareness, a sensitivity to the needs of learners, an awareness of the social context and issues related to education together with their implications. To achieve this aim the course was divided into four areas of study: a major in Discipline Studies (22 credit points); Education Studies (22 credit points); Curriculum Studies (52 credit points); and Professional Experience (11 credit points, including a Teaching Internship worth 4 credit points).

The Education Studies area included one unit which focused on classroom management (4 hours per week for one semester). This unit of study examined a range of traditional theories and techniques for coping with behavioural problems (e.g. conflict resolution strategies and ADHD) and special programs for managing more severe problems and case management techniques. Twenty days of Field Experience was provided at each of the first 3 years of the teacher education course, with 40 days being provided in the final year. In total, 100 days of Field Experience was provided.

c. Institution C

The course at the institution aimed to develop the whole person by emphasising a commitment to Christian values, the importance of analytic and reflective thinking, a concern for the individuality of the student, academic and professional excellence, and the development of autonomy and responsibility. The course, which was composed of 120 credits was divided into 6 areas: Core or Religious Studies (12 credits); Cognate or Discipline Studies (15 credits); Educational Studies (32.5 credits); Pedagogical Studies (10.5 credits); Curriculum Studies (39 credits); and Required Content Subjects (12 credits).

Part of one unit of Pedagogy was devoted to preventative management skills whilst one full unit of Pedagogy focused on models of classroom discipline for 3 hours per week for one semester.

Practice teaching involved 10, 25, 30 and 40 days of continuous teaching at schools at years 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. Ten of the days for years 2, 3 and 4 were placed at the beginning of the school year with the remaining days being placed in the middle of the school year. There was a total of 105 days overall.

d. Institution D

This course aimed to develop knowledge in students and provide them with practical experience in many aspects of their professional role as teachers. In particular, it aimed to provide insights into teaching and curriculum development through practical links with local schools and professional organisations so that students would be prepared for the many challenges that face them, such as the application of technology across the curriculum.

The course was a Double Degree whereby half of the course is devoted to Discipline Studies and the other half to Professional Studies. Initially, the course focused on Discipline Studies with an increasing emphasis on Educational Studies as students progressed through the course.

There were no units of study devoted specifically to classroom management and discipline. There was an elective unit in the final year of the course.

The Field Experience component of the course involved two periods of 20 days and one 50 day period of continuous teaching in schools at years 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The 50

days of teaching was interrupted by a short school vacation period. There were no units of study devoted specifically to classroom management and discipline.

The course profiles of the four teacher education institutions with the course credits deleted for practice teaching are illustrated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
COURSE PROFILES OF FOUR TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

	Institution			
Studies	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
Discipline	28%	23%	22%	57%
Electives	14%	-	-	-
Education	11%	19%	27%	32%
Religion	8%	-	10%	-
Curriculum	30%	54%	33%	11%
Pedagogy	6%	-	7%	-
Management	3%	4%	1%	-
Field Experience Days	100	100	105	90

3.4 Instruments

a. Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire (See Appendix 2.a)

This questionnaire was developed by Emmer and Hickman (1991), which was itself an expansion of an original questionnaire developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984). The items in the original Gibson and Dembo questionnaire factored into two scales. The first, labeled "Personal Teaching Efficacy" consisted of items related to the respondents' belief about their knowledge of a range of teaching techniques and about their own ability to effectively employ these techniques so as to enhance student learning. The second Gibson and Dembo scale labeled "General Teaching Efficacy" reflected the belief

that the teacher's impact on students is limited by external influences, such as family background and home. These two scales were shown to be factorially distinct, and to conform to a conception of efficacy as two complementary beliefs: that the teacher is skillful and that the skills can lead to desirable outcomes.

In addition to these two dimensions Emmer and Hickman (1991) developed a separate self efficacy scale for classroom management and discipline, which was partially distinct, both behaviourally and conceptually, from the other two scales. Emmer and Hickman (1991) added the items of this third scale to those of the Gibson and Dembo (1984) questionnaire to create a new questionnaire. In doing this they argued that only two items on the Gibson and Dembo (1984) instrument appeared to tap behaviour management self-conceptions directly. They claimed that because a considerable amount of teacher attention is focused on behavioural outcomes that are not linked immediately to student learning but rather to achieving cooperation and order, an understanding of teacher decision-making and behaviour may require knowledge of efficacy in management and discipline, in addition to the two more global teaching efficacy constructs measured by the Gibson and Dembo (1984) scales. In other words, Emmer and Hickman (1991) argue that it might be more informative to examine teacher efficacy in critical subareas rather than regard teachers as high or low in overall teaching efficacy. This study accepts this argument and therefore it was decided to use the expanded Emmer and Hickman (1991) questionnaire which could well provide information about these three aspects of teacher efficacy; namely, management efficacy, personal efficacy and general efficacy (See Appendix 3.a). The subscales used to measure these three

types of teacher efficacy were found by Emmer and Hickman (1991), to have acceptable internal consistency and test-retest reliability. As can be seen in Appendix 2.a, each item was set against a 6 point Likert scale.

b. Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory (See Appendix 2.b)

The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory was used to gather data on the beliefs of preservice teachers about classroom control. This inventory was developed by Martin and Baldwin (1992) from 48 items drawn from the Inventory of Classroom Management Style (ICMS) which itself represented a major revision on Tamashiro's Beliefs on Discipline Inventory (BDI) (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Martin and Baldwin refined the questionnaire to 29 Likert scaled items that divided into three dimensions (or scales) relating to beliefs about classroom management. These dimensions were labeled Instructional Management, Behaviour Management and People Management (See Appendix 3.b). It was decided to use this instrument because it viewed classroom management as a multi-faceted approach which examined what teachers believe about students as persons, what teachers do to enable students to learn, and what teachers do in terms of discipline.

c. Teachers' Role Definition (See Appendix 2.c)

Preservice teachers were also asked to define their role as teachers as described by the tasks or functions that teachers assign to themselves as necessary or appropriate to the performance of their duties as teachers. The reason for this is that teachers often disagree in their beliefs about the roles which the teachers should play and the priorities they

should assign to these roles (Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1982). Two of the more generally recognised and accepted aspects of the teacher role are instruction (presenting academic content to students and supervising their mastery of it) and socialisation (fostering students' personal mental health and adjustment, promoting good group and interpersonal relations, and preparing students to be good citizens in the society at large). To gather data on the beliefs of preservice teachers about their role definition of teachers they were asked which of the following best characterised their approach to teaching:

1. much heavier emphasis on instruction versus socialisation
2. somewhat more emphasis on instruction versus socialisation
3. somewhat more emphasis on socialisation versus instruction, or
4. much heavier emphasis on socialisation versus instruction.

d. Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale (See Appendix 2.c)

The Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale (CBPS) was obtained from an investigation conducted by Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) and focusing upon teachers' thinking about behaviour management strategies for coping with "difficult" or "problem" students. Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) used academics and experienced teachers to generate and classify descriptions of typical problem behaviours commonly seen in American elementary schools. The list of 75 troublesome behaviours was winnowed down to 12 independent and common behaviours by the elimination of duplication, sharpening of terminology and the elimination of uncommon behaviour. The list of the problem-student types exhibiting these behaviours can be seen in Appendix 3.d. They provided the key to coding student responses to the vignettes used in this study. While

they were often defined in such a way as to make them mutually exclusive, several such behaviours could coexist in the same student (for example, distractibility/short attention span and motoric hyperactivity involve different behaviours but were often seen in the same individual, and both or either of these could be combined with hostile aggressive behaviour, underachievement, or other patterns, as well). However, the patterns were different enough to be described separately without difficulty, even where multiple patterns existed in the same individual. Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) argued that if teachers saw these behaviours as independent then they may well use different strategies to try and cope with them.

Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) constructed twenty four vignettes to depict typical behaviours of 12 problem behaviour types, two vignettes for each problem type. So that the depicted events would seem realistic, the behaviours were described within contexts and in terms familiar to primary teachers and to be of a type likely to occur at any grade within the K-6 range. The researchers wanted the depicted problems to be sufficiently troublesome and noticeable that most teachers would feel obligated to respond to them. These features of the vignettes were designed in combination to make sure that teachers would understand the problem that the researchers had intended (both the specific problem depicted and the implication that it was part of a larger chronic pattern) and yet respond to it as if it had occurred in their own classrooms.

Students depicted in the vignettes were given common names that identified them as male or female, but were not identified in any other way. Pilot work suggested that it

was necessary for students to be identified by name for realism, not in an attempt to study how teachers' responses differed according to student gender (many more vignettes would be required). It was easy for teachers to talk about "Tom" or "Mary" rather than about someone known only as "a student." What is more, names were assigned to vignettes according to the gender distribution of the problem behaviour in the student population. Both hostile-aggressive, low achiever, defiant, and hyperactive students were identified as boys because the majority of students given these labels are boys. The other problems were distributed more evenly across the two genders. The reason for this was so that vignettes representing these problems included one boy and one girl.

With the increasing focus on cognitive processes, especially within the social constructivist perspectives the gathering of verbal report data was regarded as being more appropriate for this aspect of the study. However, instead of being interviewed, the subjects of this study were presented with 12 of Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981) vignettes and asked to respond in writing (See Appendix 2.c). They were also asked to record reasons as to why they would use the chosen strategy. Finally, they were asked to describe the student, but this data was not used in the study.

3.5 Data Analysis and Methods

In order to answer the research question posed in Chapter Two, both quantitative and qualitative types of analyses were used to examine the data. All the data gathered on the beliefs of preservice teachers were analysed using quantitative methods whilst the self-report data on coping with problem students were analysed using qualitative techniques.

The frequencies involving gender, year of course and type of institution were examined using Cross Tabulation. The significance of any differences in frequencies generated were checked using Chi-square.

Principal Component factor analyses using SPSSx varimax rotation were applied to data generated by the "Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire" and the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory. The objective of varimax rotation is to produce independent scales. For this reason items which load onto two or more scales with a loading difference of less than 0.2 were omitted. Further, in order to maximise common variance of the items loading onto a single factor, those items which had a loading of 0.2 or less were omitted. Items were deleted one at a time and at each step, the reliability of the scale was checked to ensure that reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was optimised by the removal process.

The factors were turned into scales by reversing and recoding any items with negative loadings and averaging all item scores across the factor for each respondent. Thus, each respondent received a measure on each scale (providing data were not missing).

The number of factors to be reproduced was to be determined by the use of an Eigen Value - Factor plot - the so called 'Scree Plot' (Cattell, 1966; Norusis, 1990). This graph indicates the total variance per factor, and a 'jump' in variance per factor indicates the number of factors to be extracted.

A series of Pearson product-moment correlations were generated to investigate any relationship between the year of course and the beliefs of the preservice teachers. In addition, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was carried out to determine if the year of course had a significant effect on changes in the beliefs of entering preservice teachers with graduating preservice teachers.

In order to analyse the self-reports of the preservice teachers the coding strategies developed by Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) were applied to the data. These strategies were adapted from sources of expert advice to teachers developed from content analysis of samples of transcripts of teachers' responses to the vignettes. Codes included 41 coping strategies which were sub-divided into 11 general strategies; and 17 motivational strategies. Details of these coding strategies can be found in Appendix 3.c. Coding was carried out by a coder who specialised in classroom management at a tertiary institution but, who did not participate in the data collection nor in any of the subsequent analyses. No attempt was made to check the reliability of the coded responses of the subjects by having another person code the responses because of the amount of time involved in coding the self-reports. The codings of the qualitative data were expressed as frequencies and converted to percentages which, in some cases, were graphed so that comparisons could be made between first year preservice teachers and fourth year preservice teachers and experienced teachers. This procedure was repeated for each vignette in terms of the strategies used and the rationales expressed. To facilitate interpretation of the data the 12 vignettes were grouped into three levels of problem-ownership which Gordon (1974) has suggested is important in examining classroom

conflicts (See Appendix 3.e). Primarily teacher-owned problems included Vignettes 2, 6, 9 and 10. In each of these vignettes, the student's actions threaten the teacher's need for authority and control. Primarily student-owned problems included Vignettes 4, 5 and 12. Here, the students have general problems of self-devaluation, feelings of inadequacy, or internal conflicts. These frustrate progress toward their own goals but do not directly prevent the need satisfaction of the teacher. Vignettes 1, 3, 7, 8 and 11 present shared problems. In these vignettes, the students do not directly threaten the teacher's authority, but they have difficulty living up to the demands of the ideal student role and, in the process, create management or control problems for the teacher.

3.6 Summary

In summary, this study aimed at gaining a cross-sectional view of the efficacy and management beliefs of first and final year preservice teachers and their perceptions of the role of a teacher. It also invited them to respond to a variety of in-classroom management situations. In doing this the study sought to measure the impact of teacher education courses through the use of a variety of quantitative and qualitative measures which involved preservice teachers in four teacher education institutions. Measures were taken from first year preservice teachers on entering their teacher education course and these measures were compared with the same measures taken from fourth year preservice teachers who were graduating from their teacher education course. The analysis made use of conventional methods for qualitative and quantitative data and was so directed to allow conclusions to be drawn and implications for teacher education and future research

to be made. The next chapter details the results and analysis of all of the data gathered from these preservice teachers.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS: BELIEFS OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses upon the presentation and analyses of data arising from the responses of first and final preservice teachers to three related instruments; Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire (See Appendix 2.a), attitudes and beliefs about classroom control (ABCC) inventory (See Appendix 2.b) and Teachers' Role Definition (See Appendix 2.c). It begins by presenting a profile of the respondents who come from four NSW institutions. It then investigates the data arising from the employment of the questionnaires that sought responses about beliefs in relation to teaching efficacy, management and teacher role.

4.2 Demographic Profile of Participants

A total group of 206 initial and final year primary preservice teachers from different primary teacher education courses at four different institutions participated in the study. Analysis of the demographic data (Table 4.1) indicates a larger number of female preservice teachers than male preservice teachers. This trend is evident in all of the institutions studied and would seem to be typical in most primary teacher education courses. It should be noted that there are no first year subjects for Institution A. The ages of the participating subjects are not provided because the Ethics Committee that reviewed the research proposal directed that this information be deleted from the study.

Table 4.1

RESPONDENTS BY YEAR, GENDER AND INSTITUTION

		Year of Course		
Institution	**Sex**	**First**	**Fourth**	**Total**
A	Male	3	2	5
	Female	15	19	34
B	Male	-	-	-
	Female	-	12	12
C	Male	5	8	13
	Female	16	14	30
D	Male	11	6	17
	Female	52	43	95
Total		102	104	206

4.3 Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire: Scale Analysis and Confirmation

Data generated by the first of two instruments employed to measure preservice teacher beliefs on the Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire were analysed to confirm the existence of the three scales as reported by Emmer and Hickman (1991). Data from the 35-item questionnaire was subjected to a scree test and principal components factor analysis (SPSSx, 1988, pp. 484-498) with varimax rotation. The result of the scree test, which is illustrated in Figure 1, indicated the presence of three substantial factors which were further refined by the elimination of low loading items and items which loaded onto two or more factors. The loadings of the items on to the factors are indicated in Table 4.2. It should be noted that all items loaded at greater than 0.3 on the intended scales.

Subscale scores were generated from the factors by averaging the response weighting across the items of each factor for each respondent. Items with negative weights were recoded and the intent of the belief statement for those items was reversed. Thus, each

subject was allocated three subscale scores representing his/her responses to the three dimensions of teacher efficacy.

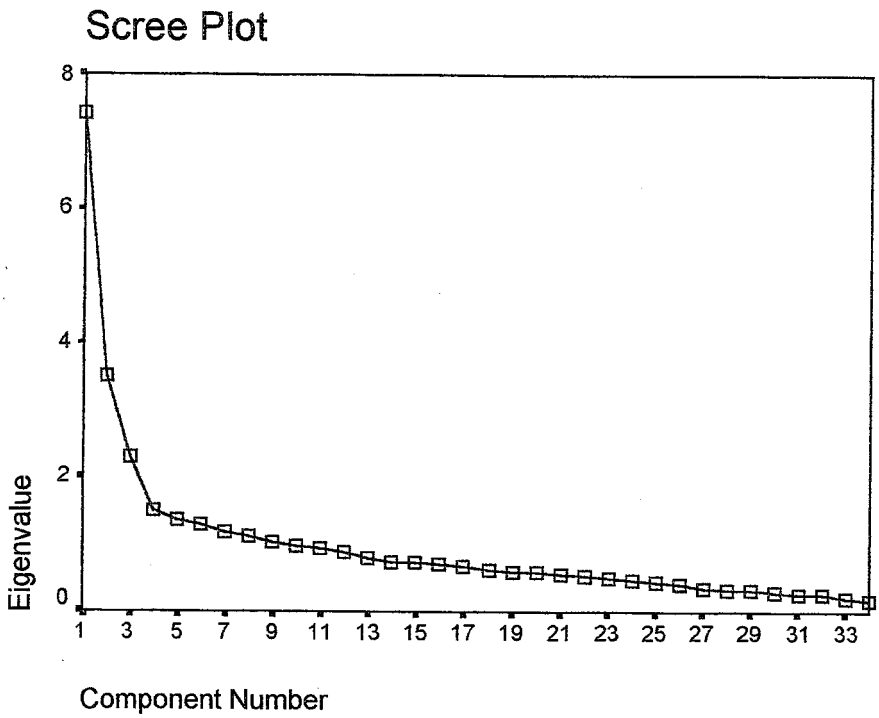

Figure 4.1 - A plot of the Eigenvalues against factors extracted from Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire

Table 4.2
FACTOR LOADINGS FOR TEACHER EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Item	Factors		
	1	2	3
Management Efficacy Alpha = 0.89			
35. I have very effective classroom management skills.	0.79		
27. If students stop working in class, I can usually find a way to get them back on track.	0.76		
5. I know what routines are needed to keep activities running efficiently.	0.74		
34. I am confident of my ability to begin the year so that students will learn to behave well.	0.69		
9. I know what kinds of rewards to use to keep students involved.	0.68		
2. If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	0.67		
7. I can communicate to students that I am serious about getting appropriate behaviour.	0.64		
28. 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.	0.63		
25. I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class.	0.60	-0.24	
13. When a student is having trouble with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	0.59		0.22
4. I find it easy to make my expectations clear to students.	0.56		
17. When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult students.	0.55		0.29
18. I am unsure how to respond to defiant students.	0.54	-0.28	
16. I always know how to keep track of several activities at once.	0.52	-0.27	
11. There are very few students that I don't know how to handle.	0.49		
8. If one of my students couldn't do an assignment I would be able to accurately assess whether it was at the correct level of difficulty.	0.46		
General Teaching Efficacy Alpha = 0.78			
20. I find some students impossible to discipline effectively.	-0.34	0.66	
30. Teachers have little effect on stopping misbehaviour when parents don't cooperate.		0.63	
19. A teacher is very limited in what can be achieved because a student's home environment is a large influence on achievement.		0.61	
32. Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.		0.57	
6. There are some students who will not behave no matter what I do.	-0.22	0.55	
14. Student behaviour in classrooms is influenced more by peers than the teacher.		0.54	
26. If parents would do more with their children at home, I could do more with them in the classroom.		0.51	
29. Home and peer influences are mainly responsible for student behaviour.		0.51	
3. The hours in my class have little influence on my students compared to the influence of their home environment.		0.48	-0.26
33. Compared to other influences on student behaviour, teachers effects are very small.		0.46	
10. If students aren't disciplined at home, then they aren't likely to accept it at school.		0.44	
24. The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.		0.38	
12. If a student doesn't feel like behaving, there's not a lot teachers can do.		0.37	
Personal Teaching Efficacy Alpha = 0.68			
15. When a student gets a better grade than usual, it is probably because I found better ways of teaching that student.	0.21		0.77
21. When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.			0.76
23. If a student masters a new concept quickly this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching the concept.	0.33		0.64
1. When the student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.			0.58
31. The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.			0.40

The first factor included 16 items related to a sense of competence in classroom management. The subscale resulting from this factor was labelled "Management Efficacy" and was found to have a reliability of 0.89 as measured by Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (SPSSx, 1989). This factor implied a confidence in classroom management skills, an ability to keep students on task, a knowledge of effective routines, a confidence to commence the year well and a knowledge of an effective reward system (See Table 4.2).

The second factor included 13 items that related to beliefs about the social and environmental limitations that face the classroom teacher. The subscale resulting from these items was found to have a reliability of 0.78 and was labelled "General Teaching Efficacy" as the items reflected beliefs in the ability of teachers to overcome external limitations affecting student learning.. These beliefs included a feeling that some students cannot be disciplined; that without parental cooperation some students are beyond teacher discipline; that teachers are often limited by the home environment and that even good teaching abilities may not influence all students (See Table 4.2).

The final subscale of this first portion of the questionnaire consisted of 5 items that revolved around instructional efficacy. The reliability of this subscale was found to be 0.68. The subscale was labelled "Personal Teaching Efficacy" as the items reflected the ability of the teacher to make an impact on student learning. These items implied that good teaching abilities can influence student grades; that teacher effort can be rewarded

by increased student grades and that home experiences can be overcome by effective teaching (See Table 4.2).

Emmer and Hickman's (1991) analysis of data generated by the same instrument produced three subscales which were similar to those resulting from this study and measured the same dimensions. They labelled their factors "Classroom Management/Discipline," "External Influences" and "Personal Teaching Efficacy." The respective reliabilities of these three subscales, as reported by Emmer and Hickman (1991), were 0.81, 0.79 and 0.69. These results confirmed the findings of Emmer and Hickman (1991) and a comparison to their findings was made (See Appendix 4.a). The first factor, which Emmer and Hickman (1991) referred to as the Classroom Management/Discipline factor, contained items relating to the teacher's self perception of competence in the area of management and discipline. Items 2, 8, 13, 17, and 28, which loaded on to this factor, were items which loaded on to Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE) subscale. All of these items, except for Item 2, seemed to be more related to an instructional theme than to a management theme. Because of this Emmer and Hickman (1991) moved Items 8, 13 and 28, from subscale 1 to 3 as these items were originally part of Gibson and Dembo's PTE subscale and their content was more in keeping with that dimension. (NB They should have moved Item 17 also as it was part of the Gibson and Dembo PTE subscale).

The second factor consisted of items reflecting a belief that influences other than the teacher determines student outcomes. The results from this study indicated that many of

these items were consistent with those found in the second factor of the Emmer and Hickman (1991) scale and the Gibson and Dembo (1984) scale. Emmer and Hickman (1991) named this subscale External Influences because this set of factor items reflected the relative influence on student behaviour of events or characteristics beyond the teacher's control. Gibson and Dembo (1984) called this factor "Teaching Efficacy" which supposedly measured Bandura's (1997) notion of "Outcome Efficacy." It should be noted that the Emmer and Hickman (1991) scale included some additional items to the Gibson and Dembo (1984) scale to enhance this factor's definition. The only discrepancy between the loadings on this factor obtained from the present study from those studies of Emmer and Hickman (1991) and Gibson and Dembo (1984) was with Item 26 (See Appendix 4.a). In this study, this item loaded onto Factor 2, as was the case with Gibson and Dembo (1984), but it loaded onto Factor 1 with Emmer and Hickman (1991).

4.4 Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control Inventory

The second instrument employed to measure the beliefs about preservice teachers was the Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory (Martin, Yin & Baldwin, 1997). A principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation (SPSSx, 1988, pp. 484-498) was conducted to confirm the existence of three scales in the inventory, developed and modified by Martin, et al. (1997). The 29 items from this instrument were subjected to a scree test (Figure 4.2) which indicated that a two factor solution was better suited to the data gathered by this study.

These two factors were extracted and refined and their final form can be seen within Table 4.3. Items which loaded strongly onto the first factor implied that teachers should allocate materials, choose the topics to be studied, plan lessons, structure daily routines and that students would be successful if they listened to those in authority. Examination of the items loading on to this factor indicated that there was a high degree of teacher control and direction and, as a consequence of this, the factor was named Teacher Control. Items which loaded strongly onto the second factor implied that teachers should give students freedom to follow their own interests, choose materials and learning topics, structure daily routines and evaluate the quality of their own work. In contrast to Factor 1, the items loading on to this factor indicated a high degree of student autonomy in making decisions about management in the classroom and was named Student Control. Computation of Cronbach's alpha (SPSSx, 1988 p. 875) indicated acceptable reliabilities with a coefficient of 0.81 for Factor 1 and 0.70 for Factor 2.

Subscale scores were generated using unit weights for each of the items identified in the factor analyses as having a loading of 0.3 or greater and 2 subscale scores were created for each subject in the study.

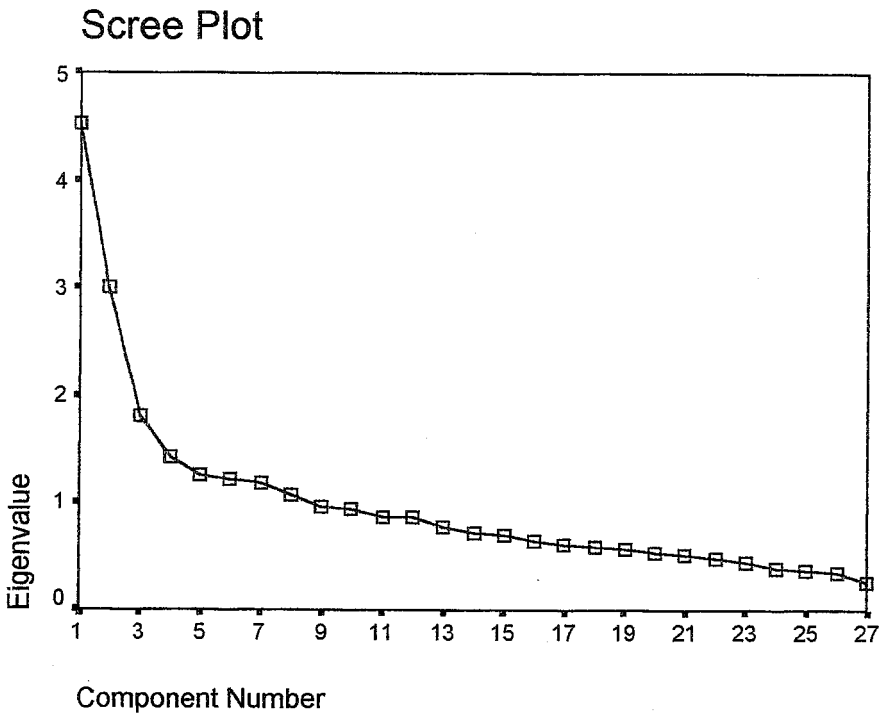

Figure 4.2 - A plot of Eigenvalues against factors extracted from the Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory

Table 4.3
FACTOR LOADINGS FOR THE ABCC INVENTORY ITEMS

Item	Factors	
	1	2
Teacher Control Alpha = 0.81		
10. The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning.	0.64	
8. I believe the teacher should decide what topics students study and the tasks used to study them.	0.60	0.28
27. I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.	0.59	
17. I believe students need the structure of a daily routine that is organised and implemented by the teacher.	0.58	
21. I believe students will be successful in school if they listen to the adults who know what's best for them.	0.57	-0.20
9. During the first week of class, I will announce the classroom rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules.	0.57	0.27
11. When a student bothers another student, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it.	0.56	
29. I believe class rules are important because they shape the student's behaviour and development.	0.56	
14. I believe teachers should require student compliance and respect for law and order.	0.54	
24. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide drill and practice of skills learned in the classroom.	0.53	
1. I believe the teacher should direct the students' transition from one learning activity to another.	0.49	
13. While teaching a lesson on library skills, a student begins to talk about the research she is doing for her book report. I would remind the student that the class has to finish the lesson before the end of the class period.	0.45	-0.25
2. I believe it's important to continuously monitor students' learning behaviour during seatwork.	0.41	
25. I believe that students need direction in how to work together.	0.35	
Student Control Alpha = 0.70		
7. I believe students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests.		0.61
26. Students in my classroom are free to use any materials they wish during the learning process.		0.56
3. I believe students should create their own daily routines as this fosters the development of responsibility.		0.55
22. I believe students should choose the learning topics and tasks.	0.23	0.53
20. I believe students should judge the quality of their own work but should rely on what the teacher tells them.		0.53
28. I believe friendliness, courtesy, and respect for fellow students is something that students have to learn first-hand through free interaction.	-0.28	0.48
18. I allow students to select their own seats.		0.47
15. When moving from one learning activity to another, I allow students to progress at their own rate.		0.46
23. During the first week of class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules.		0.42
12. I believe class rules stifle the student's ability to develop a personal moral code.		0.38
16. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, then I would replace it with one that students think is fair.		0.35
4. When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward.		0.33
6. Students naturally feel good about themselves when they behave appropriately; there is no need for me to say or do anything.		0.28

The results from this study did not support the validity of the constructs found by Martin, et al. (1997) and later confirmed by McCormack (1998). Martin, et al. (1997) also used a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation and found three scales, which they labelled Instructional Management, People Management and Behaviour Management. A comparison of the results from the present study with the earlier studies is reported in Appendix 5.a. All the items which were found to load on the Instructional Management factor by Martin, et al. (1997) and McCormack (1998) were found to load on to the Teacher Control factor in this study. However, the items which loaded on to the Student Control factor were a mix of the People Management and Behaviour Management factors from the Martin, et al. (1997) study. An examination of the "Student Control" factor items indicated that the items were written in non-interventionist language and that they implied a sense of ownership and responsibility for making decisions and managing their own behaviour on the part of students. This may be part of the reason that the two factors of Martin, et al. (1997) coalesced in the analysis of the present data.

4.5 Teacher Role Definition

The third instrument used to gather data on the beliefs of preservice teachers was an instrument used by Brophy and McCaslin (1992) to determine whether teachers gave emphasis to instruction or socialisation as aspects of the teacher's role. The responses were given on a 4 point range that clearly defined the meanings of the two terms (See Appendix 2.c). These responses can be seen in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4
FIRST AND FINAL YEAR PRESERVICE TEACHERS CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO THEIR BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHER ROLE DEFINITION

		Year of Course		
Teacher Role Emphasis	**Coding**	**First**	**Final**	**Total**
Much heavier on instruction vs. socialisation	1		2	2
Somewhat more on instruction vs. socialisation	2	34	46	80
Somewhat more on socialisation vs. instruction	3	41	24	65
Much heavier on socialisation vs. instruction	4	3	7	10
Total		78	79	157

4.6 Themes Relating from Correlations and Analyses of Variance

a. Developments that Appear as a Result of the Teacher Education Course

The two point variable "Year of Course" distinguished between first and final year preservice teachers. The use of this variable in the correlations indicated some changes that took place over the duration of the course (See Table 4.5). Firstly, final year preservice teachers appeared to be more confident in their ability to manage classrooms than did their first year counterparts. With a correlation of $r = 0.395$ ($p<0.01$), this relationship appeared to be moderately strong. Secondly, the final year preservice teachers appeared to have a slight but significant firming of their beliefs that teachers should control the learning environment ($r = 0.263$, $p<0.01$). Thirdly, final year preservice teachers appear to give greater emphasis to instruction as opposed to socialisation in relation to defining the teacher's role than do first year preservice teachers ($r = -0.172$, $p<0.05$). Correlations between Year of Course and other variables

such as General Teaching Efficacy (r = 0.050), Personal Teaching Efficacy (r = 0.020) and Student Control (r = 0.089) were not significant.

Table 4.5
CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

Variables	Year	Inst.	ME	GTE	PTE	TC	SC	TR
Management Efficacy (ME)	.395**	.019	1.00					
General Teaching Efficacy (GTE)	.050	-.083	-.236**	1.00				
Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE)	.020	.166*	.285**	-.157*	1.00			
Teacher Control (TC)	.263**	-.272**	-.191**	-.014	-.189*	1.00		
Student Control (SC)	.089	.001	.078	.086	.056	.133	1.00	
Teacher Role (TR)	-.172*	-.180*	-.027	-.095	-.117	.007	.058	1.00

The relationship between Year of Course and Teacher Control was further examined using an ANOVA (See Tables 4:6, 7). Although the differences in mean scores for the first and final year preservice teachers (See Table 4.6) seems slight on the 4 point Likert range of the Teacher Control subscale (means of 2.0 and 2.2) the differences were nevertheless highly significant ($F=13.9$, $p<0.01$). That is, the upward shift in scores for the final year preservice teachers was not a chance occurrence. Similarly, the relationship between Year of Course and Management Efficacy was subjected to an ANOVA (See Tables 4:6,7). Again, the increase in mean values of 4.3 to 4.7 seem slight against the 6 point Likert scale. However, these differences were also highly significant ($F=35.63$, $p<0.01$). This upward shift in scores for the final year preservice teachers was not a chance occurrence.

The third relationship between Teacher Role and Year of Course also produced a significant result with a Chi-square value of 9.84 ($p<0.05$) (See Table 4.4). Although not as strong as the other two relationships with Year of Course, this relationship also, could not be explained by chance.

Table 4.6
MEAN SCORES FOR FIRST AND FINAL YEAR PRESERVICE TEACHERS ON TEACHER CONTROL AND MANAGEMENT EFFICACY

Variables	Year of Course	Means
Teacher Control	First	2.00
	Final	2.23
Management Efficacy	First	4.24
	Final	4.74

Table 4.7
F VALUES FOR ANOVAs ON SCORE DIFFERENCES ON TEACHER CONTROL AND MANAGEMENT EFFICACY FOR FIRST AND FINAL YEAR PRESERVICE TEACHERS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Teacher Control	Between Groups	2.58	1	2.58	13.88	0.000
	Within Groups	34.79	187	0.19		
	Total	37.37	188			
Management Efficacy	Between Groups	12.28	1	12.28	35.63	0.000
	Within Groups	66.49	193	0.35		
	Total	78.77	194			

b. Developments that Appear as a Result of the Nature of the Institutions

The four institutions were categorised as secular or religious. This 2 point variable (Institution) correlated negatively with Teacher Control ($r = -0.272$, $p<0.01$) and negatively with Teacher Role ($r = -0.180$, $p<0.05$) (See Table 4.5). In other words, preservice teachers from secular institutions tended to move toward a perception of the teacher's role to be one which emphasised instruction as opposed to socialisation than their counterparts from religious institutions. Moreover, secular preservice teachers gave greater emphasis to teacher control than did the preservice teachers from religious institutions. On the other hand, preservice teachers from religious institutions tended to give more emphasis to socialisation with less emphasis on teacher control in managing instruction. This would suggest that preservice teachers at religious institutions were more willing to go beyond teacher-learning concerns in order to get to know students as individuals and to try and promote their personal adjustment and socialise their interpersonal behaviour without exerting too much teacher control. In contrast to this, preservice teachers from secular institutions appear to be more concerned about presenting academic content and focusing on student learning with the teacher taking responsibility in the management of the instructional process. The mean scores and the results of an analysis of variance of this same data are shown in Table 4.8 and Table 4.9. These results reinforce the perceptions gained from the correlations.

Table 4.8
MEAN SCORES FOR PRESERVICE TEACHERS ACCORDING TO NATURE OF THE INSTITUTION

Variables	Institution	Means
Teacher Control	Secular	2.27
	Religious	2.02
Teacher Role	Secular	2.69
	Religious	2.41

Table 4.9
F VALUES ON SCORE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SECULAR AND RELIGIOUS TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS ON TEACHER CONTROL AND TEACHER ROLE DEFINITION

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Teacher Control	Between Groups	2.76	1	2.76	14.90	0.000
	Within Groups	34.62	187	0.19		
	Total	37.38	188			
Teacher Role	Between Groups	2.91	1	2.91	7.50	0.007
	Within Groups	60.21	155	0.39		
	Total	63.12	156			

In addition to these significant relationships there was also a significant positive correlation between Institution and Personal Teaching Efficacy ($r= 0.166$, $p<0.05$) which suggests that preservice teachers at religious institutions are more confident about their ability to have a positive impact on student learning than their secular counterparts.

c. Relationships between Management Efficacy and Other Variables

There are two other relationships that arise in Table 4.5 that warrant comment. The positive relationship between Management Efficacy and Personal Teaching Efficacy ($r = 0.285$, $p<0.01$) would be expected as preservice teachers would be unlikely to believe that they could have a positive impact on the learning of students without being able to manage them effectively. The significant negative relationship between Management

Efficacy and General Teaching Efficacy ($r = -.236$, $p<0.01$) would seem to indicate that even though preservice teachers might believe that they are good managers they think that this skill alone is not sufficient to overcome the external influences that affect the behaviour of students.

The negative relationship between Management Efficacy and Teacher Control ($r = -0.191$, $p<0.01$) is a little more difficult to explain. At first sight it would be expected that the negative relationship between Management Efficacy and Teacher Control should lead to a positive relationship between Management Efficacy and Student Control. However, it could be considered that preservice teachers who were confident in their ability to manage were more relaxed about their need to control every aspect of classroom instruction. A more detailed model for a multivariate analysis of variance may show an interaction between Management Efficacy, Teacher Control, Year of Course and Institution.

4.7 Conclusion

In summary, the results from the correlations, ANOVAs, and the Chi-square analysis suggest that as preservice teachers progress through their teacher education course they become more confident in their beliefs about their ability to manage students and they believe that teachers should be responsible for the instructional management decisions in the classroom. Accompanying this change is a shift in their teacher role definition from an emphasis on socialisation to instruction. This shift in emphasis would appear to be stronger in secular teacher education institutions than religious institutions. Despite

these changes in their beliefs most preservice teachers do not believe that they can overcome many of the influences that adversely affect student learning such as poor home environment

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS: COPING WITH PROBLEM STUDENTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter examines preservice teachers' responses to vignettes relating to various behaviour management scenarios that may arise within the classroom (See Appendix 2.c). The preservice teachers' self-reports were coded through the presence and absence of various themes, concepts, and treatment strategies. The coding systems developed by Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) (See Appendix 3.c) to analyse strategies and rationales were applied to all problem-student types.

The specific strategies and rationales used by first and final year preservice teachers for coping with each type of problem student are illustrated in terms of percentages (See Appendix 6.a and Appendix 6.d). Column graphs are used to illustrate the general strategies of first and final year preservice teachers to problem-student types (See Appendix 6.b). These results are also compared with those obtained by Brophy and McCaslin (1992) with experienced teachers (See Appendix 3.f and Appendix 3.g). In addition, the most popular responses of first and final year preservice teachers to problem-student types are categorised according to general strategies and problem-ownership and compared with those of experienced teachers (See Appendix 6.c).

A comparative analysis of the results is carried out below examining each type of problem student in sequence.

5.2 Strategies for Coping with Problem Students

In addition to mentioning the most popular general strategies, this chapter makes reference to the specific techniques encompassed by the general strategies.

a. *Failure Syndrome*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) In the present study the most popular technique used by all groups of teachers was positive reinforcement. As to specific strategies both groups of preservice teachers favoured temporary special treatment whilst experienced teachers favoured praise and reward. The use of encouragement and positive expectations was favoured by teachers and final year preservice teachers but not so much by their first year counterparts. Each group of teachers differed on its second most popular strategy with first years preferring persuasive techniques, fourth years preferring making environmental changes and experienced teachers involving other adults. However, making environmental changes by changing the task was a specific strategy suggested by all groups of teachers. It should also be mentioned that the most favoured specific strategy for this type of student by teachers was attempting to build the child's self concept. Only experienced teachers sought outside help for this type of problem student. It was significant that the strategy suggested by Brophy and McCaslin (1992) i.e. modelling was one of the least chosen strategies by all groups of teachers.

b. *Hostile-Aggressive*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6b) Given that aggression is not merely disruptive but involves harm to other students, it is appropriate for teachers to take coercive action to curb it (eg, by informing the principal or parents). The use of coercive

strategies was one of the most chosen strategies by all groups of teachers. The difference between the experienced teachers and the two groups of preservice teachers was that the experienced teachers referred to these other adults for support whilst the preservice teachers wanted pressure or punishment to be applied. The other popular strategy for all groups was control through verbal communication by using threat of punishment to pressure aggressive students into controlling their behaviour. Prescribing limits, rules or expectations was also popular with teachers and final year preservice teachers. Both groups of preservice teachers also made reference to using persuasion techniques such as appealing and persuading. In using these strategies, the aim appears to be to bring sufficient pressure on the student to cause him to curb his aggression rather than being punitive. Brophy and McCaslin (1992) maintain that the key to the effectiveness of the instructive aspects of teacher response appears to be to provide aggressive students with counselling or instruction in more effective ways to handle frustration, control their temper, solve conflicts through communication and negotiation and express anger verbally rather than physically. The use of insightful techniques, involving interpersonal relationships, such as counselling, only received moderate support from all groups of teachers.

c. *Shy/Withdrawn*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) Brophy (1989c, cited in Brophy & McCaslin, 1992) reported that the problems of shy/withdrawn students were familiar with most teachers and they responded to them fairly easily using strategies that feature, support, encouragement and providing personal assistance. These strategies were evident in all groups of teachers where the two most popular strategies were (a) minimal

intervention, featuring minimising stress and embarrassment, support through physical proximity and voice control and (b) positive reinforcement using praise and reinforcement, encouragement and comfort and reassurance. The one variation from this pattern of responses was with the final year preservice teachers whose most popular strategy focused on interpersonal relationships. This strategy involved establishing close personal relationships with the student so as to build the child's self-concept and was a strategy that was also popular with experienced teachers. The third strategy choice for preservice teachers was the use of positive reinforcement which involved providing encouragement and positive expectations. The most popular specific strategy for experienced teachers was to change the social environment of the child by sitting her with peers who could give support to her.

d. *Perfectionist*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) The strategies for coping with this problem were similar to those for failure syndrome except that environmental changes and involvement of other adults were not popular strategy choices by either preservice or experienced teachers. There were two dominant strategies preferred by the preservice teachers. Over 60% of final year preservice teachers chose positive reinforcement involving the act of praise, encouragement and positive expectations whilst 60% of first year preservice teachers chose persuasive techniques involving prescribing, telling and instructing as a strategy. These strategies were also the most popular with experienced teachers. They also made reference to prescribing direct and indirect modelling and establishing interpersonal relationships. In all of these strategies teacher support, encouragement, and assistance appeared to be crucial elements.

e. *Passive-Aggressive*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) Two strategies which dominated the strategy choices of preservice teachers for coping with passive-aggressive students were also popular with experienced teachers. The most popular strategy was the use of minimal intervention by ignoring or redirecting the inappropriate behaviour. Control through verbal communication was also a popular strategy for all groups of teachers. This strategy involved the loss of privilege or some other punishment so as to remind students about rules and expectations. First year preservice teachers also chose persuasive techniques such as prescribing, telling and instructing which were not popular strategies with experienced and final year preservice teachers. It was significant that a popular strategy for experienced teachers was removal of the problem student by using time out so as to extinguish the inappropriate behaviour or give the student time to calm down and reflect. This strategy was one that very few of the preservice teachers chose.

f. *Distractible*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) Changing the physical environment by changing the distractible student's seat, either by moving him closer to the teacher, or by seating the student amongst responsible peers, or by moving the student away from the peer who gets him into trouble was a popular strategy for all groups of teachers. Also, all three groups of teachers chose minimal intervention strategies by redirecting the behaviour of the student in some way but only the experienced teachers chose to inhibit the inattentive behaviour either by physical proximity, voice control or eye contact. Again the strategies chosen by experienced teachers were a little more varied as they also

would seek academic help for the student, to remove the source of the problem and to prescribe rules and expectations.

g. *Defiant*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) The strategies adopted for coping with defiant students by all groups of teachers were the same as for coping with hostile-aggressive students. The most popular strategy, especially with preservice teachers, was involvement of other adults, usually the principal or the parents, with the view to changing the behaviour of the student by pressuring or punishing him. Only experienced teachers chose to involve outside mental health professionals. Control through verbal communication was also popular with all groups of teachers with threats and punishment being the most popular specific strategy. Prescribing limits, rules and expectations was also popular with experienced teachers.

h. *Immature*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) In coping with immature students both groups of preservice teachers chose the same general strategies. Their most popular general strategy was minimal intervention with both groups choosing to redirect the behaviour but with final year students also choosing to extinguish the behaviour by ignoring it. The other general strategy involved the use of persuasive techniques by reasoning with the student so that she could see the wisdom of behaving in a more mature fashion or by informing the student of their expectations. Experienced teachers also used both of these strategies but strategies that were marginally more popular with them included trying to change the pattern of behaviour through verbal communication using prescription or through positive reinforcement using praise and encouragement. It

would seem that experienced teachers were more prepared to be a little more critical of the immature behaviour and discourage it. The reasons for using positive reinforcement to eliminate this behaviour would seem that the experienced teachers would encourage these students and praise them when they see some evidence of improvement even though the problem has not been eliminated. It is significant to note that none of the preservice teachers chose this strategy. This would seem that these teachers did not choose this strategy because they may have thought that the use of positive reinforcement might encourage the behaviour they were trying to extinguish.

i. *Hyperactive*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) The responses of preservice teachers in coping with hyperactive students were fairly similar except that they placed different emphases upon their most popular strategies. Nearly 40% of first year preservice teachers selected persuasive techniques involving reasoning with the student, or by trying to get commitment from the student to meet agreed-on goals or by proscribing what the student should do. On the other hand, nearly 40% of final year preservice teachers wanted to stop this behaviour by making minimal interventions by redirecting the behaviour. The most popular strategy with experienced teachers was also minimal intervention using redirection. However, experienced teachers were far more prepared to involve other adults to help them determine the nature of the problem, develop responses to it, or provide support to the student. Whilst preservice teachers were quite willing to involve the parents in preventing hostile-aggressive and defiant behaviour, few of them were prepared to involve the parents for coping with hyperactive students. It would seem that the preservice teachers were possibly unaware of a necessity to include parents in

problems of this kind when it involves such things as making decisions about providing medication for the problem. It is also worth noting that the minimal intervention strategies selected by all groups of teachers for coping with hyperactive students were also chosen by them as a strategy for coping with distractible students. This is not surprising because distractibility is one of the criteria used for assessing ADHD students.

j. *Underachieving*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) Again there was a similarity between the preservice teachers and the strategies they selected to cope with underachieving students. First year preservice teachers, however, adopted a wider range of strategies than their final year counterparts. All groups of teachers chose (a) to use persuasive techniques or (b) to make changes in the environment by changing the task or the student's seat and/or (c) to control the behaviour by way of using persuasive techniques such as personal criticism or reminding the student of their expectations. In addition to these three strategies reasonable numbers of first year preservice teachers and experienced teachers chose to overcome this problem by using positive reinforcement techniques such as rewarding or to encourage students who needed to see that they were improving even though the problem had not been eliminated. Nearly 45% of final year preservice teachers chose to use persuasive techniques whilst over 30% of first year preservice teachers mentioned changes in the physical and social environment of the student. Two strategies which were popular with experienced teachers but were not so popular with the preservice teachers were the involvement of other adults, such as parents to overcome the problem and the need to establish a close personal relationship with the student to help the student solve the problem.

k. *Low-Achiever*: (See Appendices 3.f, 6.a, 6.b) Brophy and McCaslin (1992) did not report the strategies used by experienced teachers for coping with low achievers. The most popular choice for both groups of preservice teachers for coping with this problem was the involvement of other adults; notably, parents to provide assistance and support to the student. It should be noted that 75% of first year preservice teachers selected this strategy compared with 35% of final year preservice teachers. As an alternative strategy nearly 15% of final year preservice teachers opted for minimal intervention by minimising stress and embarrassment. Also, it is worthwhile noting that just over 15% of final year preservice teachers chose other strategies, other than those included in Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981) system for coding the strategies.

5.3 Problem Ownership

The general strategies employed by preservice teachers to cope with the problem-student types differed according to level of ownership (See Appendix 6.c). Teacher-owned problems involved control through verbal communication or the involvement of other adults. There was frequent reliance on punishment and the involvement of the principal or parents with a view to pressure or punish the students. These responses were similar to those of experienced teachers.

In contrast, students presenting student-owned problems were responded to by using persuasive techniques with reasoning being more popular with final year preservice teachers and prescribing what to do being more popular with first year preservice teachers. Changing the task and seeking academic help were the most frequently

mentioned strategies for the low achiever by both groups of preservice teachers whilst the involvement of other peers by way of group activities and the provision of class support was the most frequently mentioned strategy for the student rejected by peers. Again, the responses of experienced teachers were fairly similar.

Finally, the responses to teacher-student shared problems fell in between the bounds of responses already described and, to some degree, yielded a third distinctive pattern of response strategies. Minimal interventions were frequently used as were environmental changes by way of changing the task or the student's seat. Seeking academic help was frequently mentioned for the low achiever as temporary special treatment was for failure syndrome.

5.4 Summary: Coping Strategies

Of all the strategies available for these group of teachers, the most popular strategies were the use of minimal intervention, positive reinforcement, control through verbal communication, persuasive techniques, and involvement with other adults. The least popular strategies were modelling, removal and peer involvement. Modelling was not popular with any group of teachers whilst experienced teachers were more prepared to control problem students by way of removal from the classroom. For both first and final year preservice teachers the most popular strategies for coping with problem students were using minimal intervention and persuasive techniques. In contrast to these groups, the most popular strategies for experienced teachers were positive reinforcement and the involvement of other adults, such as parents and executive members of staff. With

respect to problem ownership, similar discernible patterns of responses existed for the various groups.

5.5 Rationales for Strategies Used to Cope with Problem Students

In terms of rationales for the strategies (See Appendix 6.d) the most popular, in order of frequency, were control/suppression, encourage/support and the promotion of morality development. With experienced teachers the most popular rationales were encourage/support followed by control/suppression. With the preservice teachers control/suppress was mentioned most frequently with the hostile-aggressive, passive-aggressive, defiant, distractible, underachieving and immature students whilst encourage/support was used with failure syndrome, shy/withdrawn, perfectionist and low achieving. Control/suppression was also used by experienced teachers for these same problem students except for the low-achieving problem-student type. Even though control/suppression was the most popular rationale used by preservice teachers the percentage of first year preservice teachers giving this rationale was somewhat higher for each problem-student type. The respective percentages for first and final year preservice teachers for each problem-student type were as follows; underachieving (52% and 39%), hostile-aggressive (54% and 37%), defiant (59% and 29%), passive-aggressive (49% and 39%), hyperactive (35% and 2%), and distractible (73% and 42%). Given that control/suppression was less popular with experienced teachers than with preservice teachers and that it was less popular with final year preservice teachers than first year preservice teachers it would seem that this rationale declines with experience.

When the rationales were categorised in terms of problem ownership (see Appendix 6.e), the rationale given for all the teacher-owned problems (i.e. underachieving, hostile-aggressive, defiant and passive-aggressive) was control/suppression. On the other hand, the rationales given for student-owned problems (i.e. low-achieving, rejected by peers, perfectionist) were encourage/support and promoting morality. The rationales for the shared problems were a mix of all three of the previously mentioned rationales. Furthermore, an examination of the pattern of the most popular rationales in Appendix 6.e indicates that even though the rationales of the two groups of preservice teachers are most alike the rationales for final year preservice teachers are more similar to those of experienced teachers than their first year counterparts.

The most popular rationales used by both first and final year preservice teachers were very similar for each problem student type. In addition to the three dominant rationales (i.e. control/suppress, encourage/support, and promoting morality) both groups of teachers wanted to change beliefs of the failure syndrome students (39.7% of first year preservice teachers and 18.3% of final year preservice teachers) and the perfectionist students (20.0% of first year preservice teachers and 21.3% of final year preservice teachers). Instructional interference was a rationale used for the strategy chosen by the preservice teachers for passive-aggressive students (38.0% of first year preservice teachers and 45.8% of final year preservice teachers) and low-achieving students (31.4% of first year preservice teachers and 30.6% of final year preservice teachers). Instructional interference was also a popular rationale for final year preservice teachers (29.8%) for coping with distractible students. Making students responsible for their own

actions, which is something recommended by many of the theorists in coping with problem students, was only used twice as a popular rationale. This was used by final year preservice teachers (25.0%, compared with 8.6% of first year preservice teachers) for underachieving students and by first year preservice teachers for defiant students (18.5%, compared with 12.7% of final year preservice teachers).

5.6 Conclusion

With respect to the strategies used to cope with problem students the responses of the two groups of preservice teachers were more similar than different. The strategies tended to be based more on common sense psychology, resulting from their own personal experiences as school students rather than well developed theories of discipline. Hence, it would appear that internalisation of management instruction in tertiary classes was not taking place. The popularity of control/suppression rationale with preservice teachers explaining why they used particular strategies would suggest that coping with problem students is a major concern for them (Veenman, 1984), especially when it is considered that encourage/support was the most popular rationale with experienced teachers. However, the control/suppression rationale was significantly stronger for first year preservice teachers with six of the problem-student types. Also, the rationales provided by the final year preservice teachers were more similar to those provided by the experienced teachers than those provided by the first year preservice teachers. These differences between first and final year preservice teachers could be interpreted as evidence of professional growth and increased management efficacy which could be attributed to the teacher education course intervention.

In comparison to preservice teachers, experienced teachers use a much wider range of management and rationale options. This could have been related to both their wider experience and their confidence in the classroom. It could also have been a result of the different data gathering procedures as the experienced teachers were interviewed whereas the preservice teachers had to make a written response in limited space. Further, there appeared to be a difference in the way experienced teachers used other adults. Along with a greater willingness to remove problem students from the classroom, experienced teachers appeared more willing to use others (principals or senior teachers) in ways that allowed them to continue their task of instruction/management of the remaining students. In contrast, preservice teachers tended to use other adults as support for the student. Parents would be involved in ways that support the student's development in learning, behaving or self-esteem.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, for each area of study, attention is given to describing how the results relate to other studies, the limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research. The chapter concludes by making some suggestions that might inform and strengthen teacher education practice in light of the findings from the study.

6.2 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a correlational-type process in which belief statements are clustered according to the manner in which the respondents react to them as they complete the questionnaire. If the questionnaire taps a general body of beliefs that is commonly held within a community, then these clusters of belief statements can be thought of as describing or defining broad themes or dimensions that lie within that body of beliefs. The validity of the questionnaire is determined by how well the belief statements describe these underlying dimensions. Through the use of a Likert scale, the belief statements defining these dimensions can be turned into subscales which return measures of the strengths with which individual respondents hold these beliefs. If the questionnaire is reliable, then trialling the questionnaire with a new group of respondents from within the community may well mean that there will be changes in the weightings assigned to each belief statement, but no essential change to cluster membership. That is, the clusters will still describe the same dimensions within the body of beliefs.

6.3 Dimensions in Beliefs about Teacher Efficacy

The three dimensions related to teaching efficacy that emerged from this study as a result of the use of the Emmer and Hickman (1991) questionnaire were labelled Management Efficacy (ME), General Teaching Efficacy (GTE) and Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE). These dimensions were: the belief that the individual teacher can manage the instructional environment (ME); the belief that there are factors which are beyond the teacher's control in relation to student learning (GTE); and the belief that the individual teacher is able to successfully instruct students within the classroom (PTE). Differing measures on the resulting subscales imply differing belief strengths within these dimensions.

These were essentially the same efficacy themes that were identified by Emmer and Hickman (1991). They labelled these themes Classroom Management/Discipline, External Influences and Personal Teaching Efficacy. Although there has been some controversy over the wording of the items loading onto the differing factors (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990), the dimensions described by the items still appear to be constant. Two of these dimensions relate to personal confidence in managing or instructing students and the third dimension relates to beliefs about the ability of teachers, as a group, to overcome adverse environmental influences on student learning.

6.4 Dimensions in Beliefs about Classroom Control

Two clear dimensions emerged from the factoring of data gathered by the implementation of the Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory.

These were a Teacher Control (TC) dimension and a Student Control (SC) dimension. The first dimension implied that the teacher should make the decisions and give directions with respect to instruction and the second implied that students should be allowed greater autonomy in making decisions about classroom behaviour and management.

These results differed from those obtained by Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1997), and later confirmed by McCormack (1998), who obtained three factors; namely, Instructional Management, People Management and Behaviour Management. The Instructional Management subscale from the Martin, et al. (1997) study is essentially the same as the TC subscale from the present study and certainly provides a measure on the same dimension. This means, of course, that the SC subscale from the present study actually combines the People Management subscale and the Behaviour Management subscale from the Martin, et al. (1997) study.

The difference in the findings of this present study and Martin, et al. (1997) does indicate a potential problem in validity. One possible way in which future research could validate the TC and SC subscales would be to compare them with other studies which measure similar dimensions. Such studies might include measures of custodial orientation as measured by the Pupil Control Inventory (Willower, Eidell & Hoy, 1967, cited in Packard, 1988) or orientations toward control versus autonomy in solving social problems as mentioned by the Problems in School Inventory (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman & Ryan, 1981). According to Hoy and Woolfolk (1990), these two scales tap different

aspects of teacher control ideology with the Problems in School Inventory dealing with approaches that teachers might use to improve the social and academic performances of students and the Pupil Control Inventory being concerned with maintaining order in the classroom.

6.5 Relationships between the Beliefs of Preservice Teachers and Year of Course

The results from the study indicated both stability and change in the beliefs of preservice teachers. Variables that exhibited change included beliefs about Management Efficacy (ME), Teacher Control (TC), and Teacher Role (TR). Beliefs about Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE), General Teaching Efficacy (GTE), and Student Control (SC) did not change significantly. The changes in ME and TC beliefs appear to be consistent with the finding of other researchers (Housego, 1992; Packard, 1988; and Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990) who found that student teachers became more custodial in student control orientation as well as more controlling in their orientation towards social problem solving after practice teaching. It would appear that the process of socialisation experienced by final year preservice teachers in their practice teaching sessions during their teacher education courses is important in reshaping the control perspectives of preservice teachers as they are confronted with the harsh realities of teaching. In the Hoy & Woolfolk (1990) study the preservice teachers who had practice teaching experience were compared with a control group who had not experienced practice teaching. The control group became more humanistic and autonomous in their orientations to control during course work whilst the other group of preservice teachers were practice teaching. This could possibly

indicate that university course work (without any practice teaching experience) makes preservice teachers more idealistic about teaching.

Another significant difference between first and final year preservice teachers was in relation to their definitions of teacher role. Preservice teachers became more oriented towards an instructional role, as opposed to a socialisation role, as they progressed through their teacher education courses. This shift in orientation is similar to the shift, reported by Nettle (1998), from an affective orientation to a task orientation by preservice teachers after practice teaching. Also, in another study (Dunkin, Precians, & Nettle, 1994) it was reported that task orientation, particularly in the structuring dimension, was closely related to ideas about teacher control of the learning in classrooms. This linkage fits nicely with the previously discussed differences between first and final year preservice teachers in relation to teacher control. Nettle (1998) commented that the significant shifts in the beliefs of preservice teachers found in his study would be contrary to the hopes and expectations of many teacher educators who present humanistic, open, reflective approaches to teaching. He cited one study which indicated that the reflective approaches presented in course work failed to eventuate in practice because of the practical realities and constraints that faced preservice teachers when teaching (Kyriacou & Cheng, 1993, cited in Nettle, 1998). Other studies of teacher education courses have also indicated that teacher education courses with a constructivist perspective on teaching and learning have found difficulty changing the beliefs of preservice teachers because their beliefs, derived from their life experiences, have reduced their receptiveness to constructivist ideas (Holt-Reynolds, 1992 and

Hollingsworth, 1989). The results from this present study would support Nettle's (1998) comments as they provide no evidence which contradicts the results of a survey of over 4,000 teacher educators and preservice teachers which found that "student teaching and cooperating teachers were the most powerful sources of influence on teacher candidates in their initial socialisation experience". (Su, 1992, p. 254).

Related to the point made by Nettle (1998) is that the changed beliefs of preservice teachers reported in this present study seem to be inconsistent with the beliefs about management and control presented in most teacher education courses. Typically, emphasis is given to cultivating student autonomy and self-responsibility in behaviour control as opposed to various forms of external control. Beliefs about ME and TC, as investigated in this study, appeared to involve a fairly high degree of external control but did not seem to reflect the need for personal power and authority. Instead, they tended to emphasise consistency in enforcing rules, well paced lessons and monitoring student behaviour. Hence, the two conflicting misconceptions of the need for authority and nurturance that Brophy (1988) suggested preservice teachers possess do not appear to be evident in the beliefs of final year preservice teachers in this study. This interpretation of the results is consistent with the findings of Johnson (1994) who indicated that preservice teachers' conceptions of management were more rule based.

Some comments need to be made on the beliefs that appeared to remain stable throughout the teacher education course. These beliefs included GTE, PTE and SC. As mentioned in Chapter Two, research indicates that GTE tends to decline with teaching

experience, especially in the early years, including practice teaching. However, in the present study, no significant differences were found between first and final year preservice teachers in their beliefs about GTE. This result might possibly be explained by the changing student population in schools from which prospective teachers have graduated to enter their teacher education courses. In school they had witnessed the increasing number of students coming to school with personal, social, and emotional needs that have a negative effect on their ability to benefit from their school education. In light of these recent experience with these students it might be expected that their beliefs about GTE might be relatively low.

Related to the previous interpretation of explaining the stability of beliefs about GTE is the significant negative correlation found in this study between PTE and GTE. This finding is consistent with research findings of other studies (Hoy & Woolfolk 1990; McCormack, 1998). Teaching students in the classroom is quite different to overcoming a negative home environment or lack of ability. Moreover, the home and family of students can become a basis for rationalising the inability of preservice teachers to reach a few difficult students. Preservice teachers might come to believe that teachers can change some students but not others. Teaching may then be redefined in terms of teaching the students who present no problems to them and controlling the problem students who undermine their efforts. This explanation, of course, is speculative and has not been researched. It could also be explained by students with a high PTE having a more realistic view of the ability of teachers to overcome factors external to the school which adversely affect student learning. Again, interpretation of these results is difficult

because of the different interpretations given to GTE; that is, does GTE refer to the teacher's beliefs of his or her ability to overcome external influences on student learning or to the ability of the teachers in general to overcome these influences? If GTE measured the ability of teachers in general then the negative relationship between PTE and GTE could be interpreted as preservice teachers believing that they haven't got the ability to overcome the impact of the negative home environments on students but believe that experienced teachers, in general, can achieve this.

Although the stability of beliefs about PTE and SC might be a concern about many teacher educators, the results from this study seem to be in accord with Fuller and Brown's (1975) developmental model of teacher concerns. They suggest that preservice teachers in the first stage have no real concerns as they tend to have idealistic views about their teaching. They then move to the second stage where their idealised concerns are replaced by concerns about survival and class control. Hence, beliefs about ME and TC would become paramount at this stage. It is only in the latter two stages do teachers display concerns about their teaching performance and about the learning, social and emotional needs of their students. It is at this stage where their beliefs about PTE and SC would become more prominent with teachers as they would then be in a position where they would no longer be threatened about concerns of survival and classroom control. At this stage they can really concentrate on student learning and make students responsible for their own behaviour.

6.6 Relationships between the Beliefs of Preservice Teachers and Institution

Significant differences were found between the beliefs of preservice teachers at secular and religious teacher education institutions about TC, TR and PTE. Preservice teachers at religious institutions tended to give more emphasis to socialisation and less emphasis to teacher control in managing instruction. In addition, there was an indication that they had a higher sense of PTE. Factors that could possibly explain the different institutional effects could relate to the size of the institution and the organisational features related to the courses. Both of the secular institutions were larger than the religious institutions with the larger secular institution having a primary preservice enrolments of between 800 and 1000 preservice teachers, compared with 100 primary preservice teachers in each of the religious institutions. Also, the preservice teachers at the religious institutions undertook their studies as cohort groups whereas the use of a cohort design was not applied at the larger secular institution. Howey and Zimpher (1989), in studying the characteristics that appear to contribute to effective teacher education courses identified multiple benefits attached to the concept of cohort groups. They found that preservice teachers who were in cohort groups demonstrated a collective sense of pride and public accountability which was not as evident in institutions which did not use this design. Moreover, faculty who worked with cohort groups indicated more sense of accountability in their own teaching with groups that they had known relatively well over a period of time. They reported that teaching in this way is quite different to meeting with a diverse group of preservice teachers who are being serviced across a number of university faculties and who only come together at particular points of time in the course.

Other research studies indicated that PTE increases with experience (e.g. Ross, 1998) but in this study it remained stable. However, there was a significant positive correlation between PTE and teacher education institution. Preservice teachers who attended religious teacher education institutions tended to have higher PTE scores. The increase in PTE scores reported by Hoy and Woolfolk (1990), were also obtained from preservice teachers who were attending a religious teacher education institution. Woolfolk, et al. (1990), in explaining the relationship between high PTE and a humanistic control orientation with experienced teachers, suggested that teachers in religious schools tended to connect their own sense of efficacy with more humanistic beliefs in controlling students, whereas teachers in secular schools do not associate these areas of belief. The results from this present study suggest that preservice teachers from religious teacher education institutions are less controlling than those from secular institutions and give more emphasis to socialisation as part of the teacher's role. In other words, the connection between PTE and beliefs in humanistic control that Woolfolk, et al. (1990) suggests exists with teachers in religious schools could also be present in religious teacher education institutions.

6.7 Relationships between Management Efficacy and Other Variables

In relation to the significant correlations between ME and GTE, PTE, and TC it would seem worthwhile to follow the lead of Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) who demonstrated the value of the use of multivariate analysis in specifying complex relations among variables. In studying prospective teachers' efficacy beliefs and orientations towards control they would have mistakenly concluded that PTE was unrelated to student control orientation

but when analysing their data using canonical correlations they found that the preservice teachers who had high PTE and high GTE tended to be more humanistic in their beliefs about controlling students compared to those who had high PTE but low GTE and were more custodial . They also pointed out that studies that simply combine the two dimensions of Teaching Efficacy (TE) into one measure fail to look for interactive effects between the variables and are likely to miss important relationships. The use of different measures of TE and different methods of data analysis do create problems in interpreting the results of TE studies, at least insofar as drawing conclusions about TE from study to study is concerned.

6.8 Strategies and Rationales for Coping with Problem Students

The findings for this study raise a number of issues concerning preservice teachers' perceptions of and strategies and rationales for coping with problem students. The descriptive data provide information about the thinking of two groups of preservice teachers, at different stages of preparation about these issues. One group of preservice teachers had just commenced its teacher education course, whereas the other group had completed it. A major conclusion was that the responses of these two groups of teachers were generally more similar than different irrespective of the teacher education course that they had experienced and, whether or not, they had actually experienced any formal preparation for teaching. Thus, it would appear that preservice teachers, irrespective of their stage of training or teacher education course, develop and work from generally similar ideas about chronic student behaviour problems and how to cope with them. Typically, their approaches are loosely connected ideas that appear to have developed

from their "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975) as school students and from their limited teaching experience rather than from well-articulated theories provided in their formal teacher education course work. The personal theories that they had developed were very similar to those of experienced teachers and could be similar in some ways to the research-based strategies recommended by experts but not as completely developed nor as explicit. However, the data seem to indicate that prospective teachers have formulated these theories prior to commencing their teacher education course and that they have remained unchanged throughout their teacher education course.

6.9 Problem Ownership

Some mention should also be made of the strategies used by the preservice teachers in coping with the types of problem students when categorised according to the concept of problem ownership. Gordon (1974) suggested that when coping with teacher-owned problems the teacher should communicate through "I" messages followed by negotiation of commitments for change in behaviour. For coping with student-owned problems he suggested active listening, empathy, and other non-directive therapy techniques. These techniques were rarely mentioned by the preservice teachers in this study. They tended to respond sympathetically to student-owned problems, by usually with a combination of prescriptive advice and positive reinforcement rather than active listening. For teacher-owned problems they were more likely to respond by asserting power by way of threats and punishment or involving other adults to pressure or punish rather than to engage in problem solving negotiations. Although the problem ownership concept may have been

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useful in analysing the responses of the preservice teachers, it was not used consciously by them and certainly not in the way Gordon recommended.

6.10 Limitations of the Study

Brookhart and Freeman (1992) identified four major limitations of the current research literature on characteristics of entering teacher candidates which are relevant to this present study. These characteristics include the dependence on survey methodology, confinement to a single institutional context, failure to consider differences that are likely to exist among subpopulations, and the atheoretical nature of the research.

The over emphasis on survey methodology was countered to some extent in this present study by the use of self-report to gather data on how preservice teachers cope with problem students. However, it is reasonable to question whether the items used in this study actually captured the preservice teachers' perceptions and beliefs about teaching. Orientations to teaching are difficult to measure and subject to socially desirable responses (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). Surveys, however, are useful in providing snapshots of the current beliefs of preservice teachers but more qualitative research is needed in the area of beliefs about teaching and classroom management. There is also a clear need for observational studies of preservice teachers in their practice teaching sessions so as to examine the links between beliefs and practice.

This study could not be criticised because of using a single institution design. Data were gathered from four different teacher education institutions even though the data from one

institution were limited to a small number of final year preservice teachers. However, the use of a cross-institutional design does provide a reasonable level of confidence about the generalisability of the findings from this study.

One other strength of the study was that it adequately distinguished its subpopulations. Too often studies of this kind portray preservice teachers as a homogeneous group of individuals. This study focused on primary preservice teachers who attended secular and religious teacher education institutions. Although gender was not a focus of this study, the gender distribution in each institution, except for the institution with the limited sample, was approximately the same. As appropriate subpopulation comparisons in the data were made, the findings of this study should provide a reasonable understanding of the significance of institutional differences and the extent to which the findings from one institution are likely to generalise to another.

In response to the criticism of research of this nature as being atheoretical the results of this study about the thoughts and beliefs of preservice teachers can be linked to the growing body of research on learning to teach. Much of this research has focused on the stability and change in the beliefs of preservice teachers. Moreover, conceptual frameworks for teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998) and belief change (Tillema, 1994) have been developed to which the findings of this study could be linked. It should also be pointed out that the findings of this study were linked to Fuller and Brown's (1975) developmental model of teacher concerns earlier in this discussion.

Several other limitations of this study should also be noted.

a. The study examined classroom management and discipline from only one perspective i.e. how preservice teachers cope with types of problem student. Such an approach does not directly provide information from the preservice teachers on insights that they have obtained from their formal education on classroom management research in relation to preventative and corrective techniques used for coping with minor disruptions. For example, significant differences were found between first and final year preservice teachers in their beliefs about management efficacy.

b. Whilst the self-reports enabled the preservice teachers to respond to the vignettes in their own words they did so in writing rather than orally. Indirectly, this restricted the responses of the preservice teachers and the comparisons with the experienced teachers could be invalidated, to some extent, by this fact. One obvious repercussion from the different data gathering procedures was that the responses of the experienced teachers to the vignettes were far more varied than those of the preservice teachers.

c. Although the vignettes were revised several times by Brophy & Rohrkemper (1981) so as to make them as familiar and realistic as possible the data came from self-reports and not from classroom observations. Although the vignettes simulate classroom events, they lack the rich context that surrounds classroom interactions where the participants know one another and share a history of experiences together. It could be assumed that the responses of preservice teachers to the vignettes would be better than their actual classroom responses to the problem students partly because of social desirability

motivation and partly because it is usually easier to formulate an effective response in writing than in the classroom. It would be informative, however, to study preservice teachers actual problem solving behaviour by recording classroom events and then playing them back to the preservice teachers and giving them an opportunity to explain their thinking and motivation.

d. Only one vignette was used for each type of problem student. There is really a need to use another vignette for each type of problem student so as to check the reliability of responses. Also, it is suggested that the vignette for the Hostile-Aggressive student be redesigned. In its present state there was some minor confusion between the nature of the problem illustrated in this vignette. A small number of preservice teachers focused on the telling of tales in their responses as opposed to responding to the hostile and aggressive behaviour of the student.

6.11 Recommendations for Further Research

One potential area for future research is to investigate the relationship between the beliefs of preservice teachers and the strategies that they use to cope with problem students. This type of research could answer such questions as to whether or not beliefs about teacher role definition, different types of efficacy and management styles influence the coping strategies used by preservice teachers. No attempt was made to investigate these linkages in this study.

It should be pointed out that this study was cross-sectional in nature and longitudinal studies should be conducted within and across teacher education institutions during the course and over the first several years of teaching. In this way the development of efficacy beliefs could be mapped and the efficacy impact of different education courses and practices could be assessed. It would be valuable to have a greater understanding of the factors that facilitate or inhibit the development of efficacy and management beliefs among preservice teachers. Evidence from this study and other studies would suggest that the impact of course work varies according to whether or not the preservice teachers have experienced practice teaching. More research could be done with preservice teachers to understand what aspects of their course work contribute to their classroom successes and disappointments and how these factors interact with the socialising influences of their school climates to produce enduring beliefs about their teaching efficacy and management.

In addition to quantitative research, qualitative research should also be carried out so that the events and influences preservice teachers attribute to the development of their efficacy beliefs could be explored. Quantitative measures only provide a snapshot of efficacy beliefs of teachers at a particular point in time. These snapshots are valuable but interviews and observational data could provide a far more detailed description of the growth of beliefs about various aspects of teaching. It should also be remembered that the links between these various beliefs and classroom practices also needs to be established which in turn, need to be linked with student performance. As yet, important

as beliefs are we have no guarantee what kind of beliefs relate to effective classroom teaching and student learning. (Kagan, 1992b)

6.12 Implications for Teacher Education

Although one of the teacher education institutions involved in the study mentioned "reflection" in its aims many teacher education courses are now focussing on changing beliefs by way of "reflection-on-action". Richardson (1996) indicates that changes in beliefs can only be considered as no more than change, not learning nor improvement. Kagan (1992b) also questions how teacher education courses can justify having aims directed at the course as developing highly individualised belief systems. This raises the questions of what beliefs should be developed. Teacher educators need to become more explicit about what are valued beliefs.

Establishing relevant and valued beliefs, however, is a more difficult task than what it might appear. In one study (Brousseau & Freeman, 1988) it was found that the teacher education course had little or no impact on the beliefs of graduating preservice teachers. The causes given for this result included lack of consensus among faculty staff as to what beliefs were appropriate and the ways in which they should be shaped and the failure of some faculty staff to challenge inappropriate beliefs.

From the findings of this study and other studies it is evident that preservice teachers beliefs about management become more controlling as they are confronted with the realities of teaching during practice teaching. In many instances their orientation to

classroom management would be inconsistent with the beliefs encouraged in the teacher education course. Moreover, this orienation to control might be a stage through which teachers progress. The challenging questions to be asked are "Should these beliefs be changed?" and if they are to be changed, "How should the beliefs be changed?"

In relation to changing beliefs Bandura (1997) maintains that beliefs about teaching and personal teaching efficacy are likely to remain unchanged unless compelling evidence interferes and causes them to be evaluated. Hence, if it can be established that the beliefs are inappropriate then it is important to change the inappropriate beliefs at the preservice level to ensure lasting dividends. He suggests four sources of information which can bring about change; mastery experience, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences and physiological arousal. Of these four sources mastery experiences are the most powerful.

Teacher education courses include extensive verbal input and vicarious experiences such as discussion with peers and reading books and these do little to raise self-perceptions of teaching competence. Perhaps the only experience which provides opportunities for mastery experience and physiological arousal is practice teaching. It is only in the situation of actually teaching individuals can assess the capabilities that they bring to the task and experience the consequences of these capabilities. From this it would appear that practice teaching, and other similar experiences, are the critical factors in changing the beliefs of preservice teachers. It is for this reason, perhaps, that Richardson (1996) asks why preservice teacher education courses should worry about changing beliefs. She

argues that preservice teachers lack the practical knowledge which makes it almost impossible to help preservice teachers tie their beliefs to practices.

On a more positive note, Kagan (1992b) maintains that one of the clearest attempts to effect conceptual change among preservice teachers was designed by Stones (1986) where preservice teachers brought videotapes of their teaching to be evaluated by their peers and their university supervisors. After the evaluation session preservice teachers were required to integrate and reconcile, in writing, the alternative perspectives that they received, thereby confronting and examining their existing teaching beliefs. It should also be pointed out that to reduce the chance of miseducation the preservice teachers received a rigorous orientation to pedagogical theory, which served as a framework for evaluating videotape performances. It might be worthwhile for activities like this to be included in teacher education courses to assist preservice teachers to link their beliefs to practices more effectively.

In terms of coping with problem students there is, unfortunately, little research-based information on responses to repeated and chronic misbehaviour. Most of the relevant literature is on general techniques, such as Glasser's Control Theory and behaviour modification techniques, rather than specific responses tailored to specific types of student or situations. Brophy (1988) identifies some general principles but, in terms of teacher education, suggests that the existing knowledge of preservice teachers has to be used as a building block for their professional growth. However, he points out that existing knowledge can also function as an obstacle to successful instruction, especially

when this knowledge includes belief in misconceptions that are commonly held and may even appear to be valid but, in fact, incorrect. In order to rectify such misconceptions and to counteract their potential for distorting their understanding of teaching it is important for teacher educators to place their instruction within a more comprehensive approach which is known as conceptual change in teaching. This strategy involves describing common misconceptions and labelling them as such, calling attention to key differences between the accurate conception, and listing the important mistaken inferences and errors that are likely to occur if people act on the basis of misconception rather than accurate conceptions.

To bring about conceptual change in the way described by Brophy (1988), practice teaching sessions would need to be supplemented with case literature and simulation exercises designed to fill in the gaps and provide additional instruction and practice on key strategies for preservice teachers. There would also need to be opportunities for preservice teachers to analyse and model particular teachers' management, thinking and behaviour through simulated exercises that describe particular situations that are likely to arise in classrooms. Such situations would be those similar to the vignettes used in this study where prospective teachers would be required to tell how they would handle these situations. Moreover, with the development of computer technology it should be possible to simulate change of connected decision points and provide students with opportunities to explore alternatives and to get feedback on the hypothetical results of their decisions.

In conclusion if teacher educators are to focus on teacher thinking they should be interested in how changes in belief translate to changes in practice. Furthermore, they should also be examining how these changes in belief and practice affect student learning. This calls for research that goes beyond descriptions of preservice and inservice teachers' beliefs and conceptions and toward observing the actions of teachers in the classroom and their impact on the learning of students.

CHAPTER SEVEN

REFLECTIONS

Prior to beginning this study the researcher had confidence in her ability to teach and had a view of teaching humanistic in its orientation. For her teaching was all about nurturing, understanding, having patience and being able to get on well with her students. Her early teacher education experiences did nothing to change these beliefs about teaching. These beliefs, however, came into question when she had to cope with a small number of students with Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD). After this traumatic experience she wondered what other uncertainties in teaching were ahead of her. It was these concerns about her own ability to cope with these possible uncertainties about teaching that prompted this research study.

Her involvement with the research project has deepened her understanding of teaching and the problems associated with learning to teach. It was comforting to know that other preservice teachers seem to go through a 'fantasy' stage where they dream that they can be as successful as some of the wonderful teachers that had inspired them when they were at school. However, once the preservice teachers have to face the harsh realities of teaching, the fantasy is interrupted and questions of survival replace the fantasy as one fights for one's professional life when problems with discipline emerge and intensify day by day. Like the preservice teachers in this study, the researcher has focused on developing her classroom management skills during each of her subsequent practice teaching sessions but not worrying too much about particular instructional skills or curriculum issues. She wanted to get a feeling of control in the situations in which she

was working but did not want to achieve that control in an autocratic or authoritarian way. She just wanted to establish some rules which students would follow without creating any major disruptions and which could be applied in a firm but friendly manner. Although she believes in providing students with a high degree of autonomy and knows that students would feel more comfortable if she gave them more autonomy she is still very hesitant about 'letting the reins go.' With her extended period of practice teaching during the internship she felt that she had gained control over her discipline and management problems and, for the first time, she began to focus more or less systematically, on the improvement of particular teaching strategies and on curriculum issues associated with teaching. Her confidence developed to a level where she was able to introduce cooperative learning with her students where they were given more opportunity to become more responsible for their own learning. She also began to think more about improving student learning which replaced achieving good student behaviour as the dominant concern. She realises that her journey has just begun but the results from this research have made her more confident about her future success as a teacher.

At this moment she is not sure about the causal relationship between beliefs and practice. Did the experiences from her practice teaching shape her beliefs or did her beliefs shape the manner in which she practised? It would appear that beliefs and practice constantly modify each other. This one negative experience certainly made the researcher rethink her views on teaching. However, the relationship between beliefs and educational practices is a territory in research on teaching which needs further exploration. One

thing that she is certain about is that teacher education courses need to find more innovative ways for preservice teachers to test their beliefs in practice.

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APPENDIX 1

Research consent forms:

1.a Preservice teacher

Appendix 1a

RESEARCH CONSENT FORM TO PRESERVICE TEACHER

CONSENT FORM

I, _____ agree to participate in the study 'The impact of teacher education on the beliefs of primary student teachers and strategies they use to cope with behaviour problems' on the understanding that total confidentiality will be maintained and that my name will not appear in any way in the conduct of the study.

This research project has been approved by the Avondale College Human Ethics Committee (HREC). Avondale College requires that all participants are informed that if they have any complaint concerning the manner in which a research project is conducted it may be given to the researcher, or if an independent person is preferred, to the college's HREC Secretary, Avondale College, P.O. Box 19, Cooranbong, N.S.W., 2265 or phone (02) 4980 2214 or fax (02) 4980 2118.

APPENDIX 2

Research instruments:

2.a Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire

2.b Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory

2.c Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale

Appendix 2.a

TEACHER EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

SEX: M F (Circle) STUDENT NO: ___/___/____
Day Month Year

INSTRUCTIONS:

Although this questionnaire is designed for practising teachers you should be able to respond to it from your knowledge of teachers and teaching.

The "I" refers to "you" as the teacher.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement below by circling the appropriate numeral to the right of each statement.

1. *Strongly disagree*
2. *Moderately disagree*
3. *Disagree slightly more than agree*
4. *Agree slightly more than disagree*
5. *Moderately agree*
6. *Strongly agree*

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. When the student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I find it easy to make my expectations clear to students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I know what routines are needed to keep activities running efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. There are some students who won't behave no matter what I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I can communicate to students that I am serious about getting appropriate behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		SD					SA
8.	If one of my students couldn't do an assignment I would be able to accurately assess whether it was at the correct level of difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I know what kinds of rewards to use to keep students involved.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	If students aren't disciplined at home, then they aren't likely to accept it at school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	There are very few students that I don't know how to handle.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	If a student doesn't feel like behaving, there's not a lot teachers can do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	When a student is having trouble with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Student behaviour in classrooms is influenced more by peers than the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	When a student gets a better grade than usual, it is probably because I found better ways of teaching that student.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I don't always know how to keep track of several activities at once.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	I am unsure how to respond to defiant students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A teacher is very limited in what can be achieved because a student's home environment is a large influence on achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	I find some students impossible to discipline effectively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		SD					SA
22.	Sometimes I am not sure what rules are appropriate for my students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	If a student masters a new concept quickly this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching the concept.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	If parents would do more with their children at home, I could do more with them in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	If students stop working in class, I can usually find a way to get them back on track.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	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.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Home and peer influences are mainly responsible for student behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Teachers have little effect on stopping misbehaviour when parents don't cooperate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Compared to other influences on student behaviour, teacher's effects are very small.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	I am confident of my ability to begin the year so that students will learn to behave well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	I have very effective classroom management skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 2.b

SEX: M F (Circle) STUDENT NO: __/__/____
Day Month Year

ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS ABOUT CLASSROOM CONTROL (ABCC) INVENTORY

Directions: For each item, check the option that **best** describes your beliefs or describes what you would do in the classroom. DO NOT SKIP ANY ITEMS.

1. I believe the teacher should direct the students' transition from one learning activity to another.	This statement ___ Describes me very well ___ Describes me usually ___ Describes me somewhat ___ Describes me not at all
2. I believe it's important to continuously monitor students' learning behavior during seatwork.	This statement ___ Describes me very well ___ Describes me usually ___ Describes me somewhat ___ Describes me not at all
3. I believe students should create their own daily routines as this fosters the development of responsibility.	This statement ___ Describes me very well ___ Describes me usually ___ Describes me somewhat ___ Describes me not at all
4. When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward.	This statement ___ Describes me very well ___ Describes me usually ___ Describes me somewhat ___ Describes me not at all
5. I assign students to specific seats in the classroom.	This statement ___ Describes me very well ___ Describes me usually ___ Describes me somewhat ___ Describes me not at all

6. Students naturally feel good about themselves when they behave appropriately; there is no need for me to say or do anything.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
7. I believe students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
8. I believe the teacher should decide what topics the students study and the tasks used to study them.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
9. During the first week of class, I will announce the classroom rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
10. The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
11. When a student bothers other students, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
12. I believe class rules stifle the student's ability to develop a personal moral code.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all

13. While teaching a lesson on library skills, a student begins to talk about the research she is doing for her book report. I would remind the student that the class has to finish the lesson before the end of the class period.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
14. I believe teachers should require student compliance and respect for law and order.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
15. When moving from one learning activity to another, I will allow students to progress at their own rate.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
16. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, then I would replace it with one that students think is fair.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
17. I believe students need the structure of a daily routine that is organized and implemented by the teacher.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
18. I allow students to select their own seats.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
19. When students behave appropriately, I will provide a reward of some kind such as points toward a party or free time.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all

20. I believe students should judge the quality of their own work rather than rely on what the teacher tells them.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
21. I believe students will be successful in school if they listen to the adults who know what's best for them.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
22. I believe students should choose the learning topics and tasks.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
23. During the first week of class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
24. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide drill and practice of skills learned in the classroom.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
25. I believe that students need direction in how to work together.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
26. Students in my classroom are free to use any materials they wish during the learning process.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all

27. I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
28. I believe friendliness, courtesy, and respect for fellow students is something that students have to learn first-hand through free interaction.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all
29. I believe class rules are important because they shape the student's behavior and development.	This statement _____ Describes me very well _____ Describes me usually _____ Describes me somewhat _____ Describes me not at all

Appendix 2.c

COPING WITH BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS SCALE

SEX: M F (Circle) STUDENT NO: ___/___/____
Day Month Year

SECTION A

Two of the more generally recognised and accepted aspects of the teacher role are *instruction* (presenting academic content to students and supervising their mastery of it) and *socialisation* (fostering students' personal mental health and adjustment, promoting good interpersonal and group relations and preparing students to be good citizens in the society at large).

From the list of alternatives below place a ( ) against the statement that best characterises your approach to teaching. There is no "right" answer as all approaches are equally acceptable.

( ) much heavier emphasis on instruction versus socialisation
( ) somewhat more emphasis on instruction versus socialisation
( ) somewhat more emphasis on socialisation versus instruction
( ) much heavier emphasis on socialisation versus instruction

SECTION B

Read each of the following vignettes and

a. State what you would say and do.
b. State why you would say and do this.
c. Describe the student in the vignette in your own words.

1. Joe could be a capable student, but his self concept is so poor that he actually describes himself as stupid. He makes no serious effort to learn, shrugging off responsibility by saying that "that stuff" is too hard for him. Right now he is dawdling instead of getting started on an assignment that you know he can do. You know that if you approach him he will begin to complain that the assignment is too hard and that he can't do it.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

2. This morning, several students excitedly tell you that on the way to school they saw Tom beating up Sam and taking his lunch money. Tom is the class bully and has done things like this many times.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

3. Bill is an extremely active child. He seems to burst with energy, and today he is barely "keeping the lid on". this morning, the class is working on their art projects and Bill has been in and out of his seat frequently. Suddenly, Roger lets out a yell and you look up to see that Bill has knocked Roger's sculpture off his desk. Bill says he didn't meant to do it, he was just return to his seat.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

4. Mark is not well accepted by his classmates. Today he has been trying to get some of the other boys to play a particular game with him. After much pleading the boys decide to play the game, but exclude Mark. Mark argues, saying that he should get to play because it was his idea in the first place, but the boys start without him. Finally, Mark gives up and slinks off, rejected again.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

5. Beth has average ability for school work, but she is so anxious about th quality of her work, that she seldom finishes an assignment because of all her "start-overs". This morning you have asked the children to make pictures to decorate the room. The time allocated to art has almost run out and Beth is far from finished her picture. You ask her about ti and find out she has "made mistakes" on the other ones and this is her third attempt at a "good picture".

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

6. The class is about to begin a test. The room is quiet. Just as you are about to begin speaking, Audrey opens her desk. Her notebook slides off the desk, spilling loose papers on the floor. Audrey begins gathering up the papers, slowly and deliberately. All eyes are upon her. Audrey stops, grins, and then slowly resumes gathering papers. Someone laughs. Others start talking.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

7. George's attention wanders easily. Today it has been divided between the discussion and various distractions. You ask him a question, but he is distracted and doesn't hear you.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

8. Linda is bright enough, but she is shy and withdrawn. She doesn't volunteer to participate in class, and when you call on her directly, she often does not respond. When she does, she usually whispers. Today, you are checking seatwork progress. When you question her, Linda keeps her eyes lowered and says nothing.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

9. Carl can do good work, but he seldom does. He will try to get out of work. When you speak to him about this, he makes a show of looking serious and pledging reform, but his behaviour doesn't change. Just now, you see a typical scene: Carl is making paper airplanes when he is supposed to be working.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

10. Roger has been fooling around instead of working on his seatwork for several days now. Finally, you tell him that he has to finish to stay in during recess and work on it them. He says, "I won't stay in!" and spends the rest of the period sulking. As the class begins to line up for recess, he quickly jumps up and heads for the door. You tell him that he has to stay inside and finish his assignment, but he just says "No, I don't" and continues out the door to recess.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

11. Betty seems younger than the other students in your class. She has difficulty getting along with them and is quick to tattle. She has just told you that she heard some of the boys use "bad words" during recess today.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

12. Jeff tries hard but is the lowest achieve in the class. This week you taught an important sequence of lessons. You spend a lot of extra time with Jeff and though he understood the material. Today you are reviewing. All the other students answer your questions with ease, but when you call on Jeff he is obviously lost.

WHAT I WOULD SAY

I would say _____

_____

REASON

I would say this because _____

_____

WHAT I WOULD DO

I would _____

_____

REASON

I would do this because _____

_____

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDENT

I would describe the student as being _____

_____

APPENDIX 3

Research framework and protocols:

3.a **Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire factor items (Emmer & Hickman, 1991)**

3.b **Framework for Attitude and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory dimensions (Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1997)**

3.c **Protocol for coding Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale (Brophy & McCaslin, 1997)**

3.d **Description of the twelve problem-student types included in the Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale (Brophy & McCaslin, 1992)**

3.e **Classification of vignettes in the coping with Behavioural Problems Scale in terms of Gordon's Problem Ownership (Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1981)**

3.f **Teachers' responses to the vignettes coded for strategies (Brophy & McCaslin, 1992)**

3.g **Teachers' responses to the vignettes coded for rationales/motives.**

Appendix 3.a

FACTOR LOADINGS FOR THE TEACHER EFFICACY ITEMS (Emmer & Hickman, 1991)

	Factors		
Item	1	2	3
5. I know what routines are needed to keep activities running efficiently.	.65		
9. I know what kinds of rewards to use to keep students involved.	.65		
27. If students stop working in class, I can usually find a way to get them back on track.	.63		
35. I have very effective classroom management skills.	.63		
25. I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class.	.61		
7. I can communicate to students that I am serious about getting appropriate behaviour.	.61		
34. I am confident of my ability to begin the year so that students will learn to behave well.	.61		
28. 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. **a**	.57		
4. I find it easy to make my expectations clear to students.	.56		
8. If one of my students couldn't do an assignment I would be able to accurately assess whether it was at the correct level of difficulty. **a**	.53		
2. If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly. **a**	.50		
17. When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students. **a**	.48	.29	.33
13. When a student is having trouble with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level. **a**	.44		.32
11. There are very few students that I don't know how to handle.	.34		
16. I don't always know how to keep track of several activities at once.	-.32		.33
24. Sometimes I am not sure what rules are appropriate for my students.	-.32		.27
30. Teachers have little effect on stopping misbehaviour when parents don't cooperate.		.69	
19. A teacher is very limited in what can be achieved because a student's home environment is a large influence on achievement. **a**		.67	
20. I find some students to be impossible to discipline effectively.		.62	
29. Home and peer influences are mainly responsible for student behaviour.		.59	
6. There are some students who won't behave no matter what I do.		.59	
10. If students aren't disciplined at home, then they aren't likely to accept it at school. **b**	.58	.32	
14. Student behaviour in classrooms is influenced more by peers than the teacher.		.55	
12. If a student doesn't feel like behaving, there's not a lot teachers can do.		.50	
33. Compared to other influences on student behaviour, teacher's effects are very small.	-.26	.45	
18. I am unsure how to respond to defiant students.	-.30	.43	
3. The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment. **b**		.41	
31. The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching. **b**		-.37	
32. Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students. **b**		.35	
24. The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background. **b**		.30	
15. When a student gets a better grade than usual, it is probably because I found better ways of teaching that student. **a**			.72
1. When a student does better than usual, it is usually because I exerted a little extra effort. **a**			.71
21. When the grades of my students improve, it is probably because I found more effective teaching approaches. **a**			.56
23. If a student masters a new concept quickly this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching the concept. **a**			.55
26. If parents would do more with their children at home, I could do more with then in the classroom. **b**			.37

a Item from Gibson & Dembo's Personal Teaching Efficacy factor
b Item from Gibson & Dembo's General Teaching Efficacy factor

Appendix 3.b

FRAMEWORK FOR INVENTORY OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STYLE DIMENSIONS

1. INSTRUCTION MANAGEMENT DIMENSONS - What teachers do to enable students to learn.

A. PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT
   1. territory
   2. seating
   3. materials

B. TIME
   1. how to allocate time
   2. diversions from task

C. CLASSROOM ROUTINES
   1. keeping on-task
   2. circulating
   3. feedback on performance
   4. choice of learning topic/task
   5. purpose of homework

2. PEOPLE MANAGEMENT DIMENSIONS - What teachers believe about students as persons and what teachers do to enable students to develop a persons.

A. TEACHER'S PERCEPTIONS OF THE NATURE OF STUDENTS
   1. Personal attributes
   2. Independence/capabilities of students

B. PSYCHOSOCIAL CLIMATE
   1. Personal attention/worth
   2. Opportunity for success
   3. Group spirit and purpose
   4. Classroom climate (warmth, friendliness, courtesy, respect)

3. BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT DIMENSIONS - What teachers do to set standards for behaviour and to enforce those standards.

A. RULE SETTING
   1. who sets rules
   2. importance of rules
   3. rule negotiation

B. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF APPROPRIATE/INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR
   1. handling of non-compliance
   2. handling of disruptions
   3. types of praise/reward

Reference: Martin & Baldwin, 1993

Appendix 3.c

DISCIPLINE STRATEGY CODING SCHEDULE
SAY and DO

FAILURE TO ADDRESS THE PROBLEM

0 Not a problem.
1 Nothing can be done.
2 Delegate to other authority.

MINIMAL INTERVENTION

3 Extinguish/ignore.
4 Minimal intervention/redirect.
5 Humour/tension release.
6 Minimize stress/embarrassment.
7 Inhibit through physical proximity/voice control/eye contact.
8 Support through physical proximity/voice control.

REMOVAL

9 Time out: extinction/removal.
10 Time out: calm down, reflect.

CONTROL THROUGH VERBAL COMMUNICATION

11 Diagnosing intentions eg "*I know what you are doing. You can't fool me*".
12 Using personal criticism or scolding.
13 Losing a privilege or some other punishment. *(Does not include time-out or physical isolation.)*
14 Reminding students about rules, limits, expectations ie *WHAT NOT TO DO.*

PERSUASIVE TECHNIQUES

15 Reasoning with a student to see wisdom of recommended course of action.
16 Trying to get a commitment from students to meet agreed-on goals. (*Rewards may have been promised but are not necessary for this code.*)
17 Mentioning prescribing, teaching or otherwise making sure that the student knows what is expected by either telling or eliciting this from the student *ie WHAT TO DO.*

MODELLING

18 **Modelling the desirable behaviour and drawing student's attention to it.**
19 **Reaching the student indirectly by deliberately modelling the behaviour consistently, but not drawing the student's attention to it.**

POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT

20 **Praising desirable behaviour.**
21 **Rewarding desirable behaviour.**
22 **Providing encouragement or positive expectations to encourage students who needed to see that they were improving even though they had not eliminated their problem.**
23 **Providing comfort and reassurance even to students who had become anxious or upset.**
24 **Providing, at least, temporary special treatment ("kid gloves" treatment) to student who had become upset or frustrated.**

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

25 **Stating that the problem stemmed from some source in the student's home or school social life and that they would try to eliminate it.**
26 **Using insightful technique, *such as active listening, counselling, interpreting.***
27 **Mentioning strategies designed to build up the student's self-concept, *such as praising accomplishments, calling attention to progress and arranging for success experiences.***
28 **Establishing a close personal relationship with the student and working within it to help solve the problem.**

ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES

29 **Calling for a change in task (level or type).**
30 **Speaking of changing the student's seat, providing a study carrel, or making some other change in the physical environment.**
31 **Mentioning making changes (other than physical isolation) in the student's social environment, *such as by seating the student among peers who are easy to get along with or moving the student away from a peer with whom he or she gets into trouble.***

PEER INVOLVEMENT

32 Speaking of class meetings or other group activities to discuss the problem directly or to conduct social education activities scheduled with the problem student in mind eg *lessons on dealing with frustration or conflict aimed at hostile-aggressive students or lessons or social assertiveness aimed at shy students.*

33 Involving the class as a whole or particular peers in providing support (*explaining to the class that the problem student needs their understanding and patience; appointing a peer as a buddy*).

34 Involving the peers to pressure or punish the problem student (*by actually encouraging them to do so or, more typically, by letting it be known that the class had lost some privilege because of the student's behaviour*).

INVOLVEMENT OF OTHER ADULTS

35 Contacting the parents and using them as resources in helping determine the nature of the problem, develop responses to it, or provide support to the student.

36 Contacting the parents *but* primarily to ask them to pressure or punish the student.

37 Contacting school-based authority figures (eg principal or counsellor) in an effort to be supportive or helpful.

38 Contacting school based authority figures *but* primarily to pressure or punish.

39 Referring the student to outside physicians or mental health professionals.

40 Contacting the parents but seeking to work with them as a counsellor to improve their skills for coping with the student.

41 Providing academic help (ie extra tutoring etc) themselves (ie the teacher).

DISCIPLINE STRATEGY CODING SCHEDULE
WHY

0 No reason or rationale.

1 Over all well being or survival
eg "If I don't show who's boss in that situation, I'll lose the respect of students."

2 Instruction
eg "I can't allow that sort of behaviour because it disrupts the lessons. I'm there to teach and the students are there to learn."

3 Smooth group functioning and safety
eg "I can't allow an aggressive student to injure others or create an atmosphere of fear."

4 Problem student but seeing it as being his/her responsibility
eg "My heart goes out for that type of student".

5 Problem student's welfare but emphasising the preparation of the student for a better future life
eg "If I don't do something about the problem now the student will be heading for a life of misery."

6 Welfare of society
eg "I have a responsibility as a teacher and as a citizen. Individuals like this become an intolerable burden on society."

7 Morality
"I would want to make the student see that his behaviour is unjust and that it is wrong to treat other people that way."

8 School rules.
"Rules are made to be followed; not broken."

9 Personal irritation
eg "Students like that make me angry."

10 Control/suppression of undesirable behaviour
eg "I just want to stop that behaviour occurring."

11 Shaping desirable behaviour
eg "I think that you have to reward good behaviour and punish undesirable behaviour."

12 Teaching desirable behaviour
eg "Students must be shown how to behave so that they will be able to recognise and eliminate the problem. For example, aggressive students need to be taught how to respond more maturely to frustration and how to negotiate non-aggressive solutions."

13 **Teaching ways to cope with the problem**

eg "When students feel aggressive they should count to ten or walk away from the problem until they calm down."

14 **Identifying and eliminating the cause**

eg "This problem is symptomatic of some underlying cause which must be eliminated."

15 **Increasing the student's insight**

eg "The student needs counselling."

16 **Changing the student's beliefs or attitudes**

eg "There is a need to reason with the student so that he/she can see the error of his/her ways."

17 **Encouraging and supporting the student**

eg "Unless you try and help the student develop greater confidence and a more positive self concept nothing will change".

Appendix 3.d

THE 12 PROBLEM-STUDENT TYPES

1. *Failure syndrome.* These children are convinced that they cannot do the work. they often avoid starting or give up easily. They expect to fail, even after succeeding. They

   a. are easily frustrated.
   b. give up easily.
   c. say "I can't do it."

2. *Perfectionist.* These children are unduly anxious about making mistakes. Their self-imposed standards are unrealistically high, so that they are never satisfied with their work (when they should be). They

   a. are too "perfectionist."
   b. are often anxious/fearful/frustrated about quality of work.
   c. hold back from class participation unless sure of themselves.

3. *Underachiever/alienated.* These children do a minimum to just "get by". They do not value school work. They

   a. are indifferent to school.
   b. contribute minimum work output.
   c. are not challenged by school work and are poorly motivated.

4. *Low achiever.* These children have difficulty, even though they may be willing to work. Their problem is low potential or lack of readiness rather than poor motivation. They

   a. have difficulty following directions.
   b. have difficulty completing work.
   c. display poor retention.
   d. progress slowly.

5. *Hostile-aggressive.* These children express hostility through direct, intense behaviours. They are not easily controlled. They

   a. intimidate and threaten.
   b. hit and push.
   c. damage property.
   d. antagonize.
   e. are hostile.
   f. are easily angered.

6. *Passive-aggressive.* These children express opposition and resistance to the teacher, but indirectly. It often is hard to tell whether they are resisting deliberately or not. They

   a. are subtly oppositional and stubborn.
   b. try to control.
   c. show borderline compliance with rules.
   d. mar property rather than damage.
   e. disrupt surreptitiously.
   f. drag their feet.

7. *Defiant.* These children resist authority and carry on a power struggle with the teacher. They want to have their way and not be told what to do. They

   a. resist verbally by

      1. saying "you can't make me."
      2. saying "you can't tell me what to do."
      3. making derogatory statements about teacher to others.

   b. resist non-verbally by

      1. frowning, grimacing, mimicking teacher.
      2. posturing with arms folded, hands on hips, foot stomping.
      3. looking away when being spoken to.
      4. laughing at inappropriate times.
      5. sometimes being physically violent toward teacher.
      6. deliberately doing what teacher says not to do.

8. *Hyperactive.* These children show excessive and almost constant movement, even when sitting. Often their movements appear to be without purpose. They

   a. squirm, wiggle, jiggle, scratch.
   b. are easily excitable.
   c. blurt out answers and comments.

d. are often out of their seats.
e. bother other children with noises, movements.
f. are energetic but poorly directed.
g. excessively touch objects or people.

9. *Distractible.* These children have short attention spans. They seem unable to sustain attention and concentration. Easily distracted by sounds, sights, or speech. They

a. have difficulty adjusting to changes.
b. rarely complete tasks.
c. are easily distracted.

10. *Immature.* These children have poorly developed emotional stability, self-control, self-care abilities, social skills, and/or responsibility. They

a. often exhibit behaviour normal for younger children.
b. may cry easily.
c. lose their belongings.
d. frequently appear helpless, incompetent, and/or dependent.

11. *Peer rejected.* These children seek peer interaction but are rejected, ignored, or excluded. They

a. are forced to work and play alone.
b. lack social skills.
c. are often picked on or teased.

12. *Shy/withdrawn.* These children avoid personal interaction, are quiet and unobtrusive, and do not respond well to others. They

a. are quiet and sober.
b. do not initiate or volunteer.
c. do not call attention to themselves.

Appendix 3.e

CLASSIFICATION OF VIGNETTES ON THE COPING WITH BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS SCALE IN TERMS OF GORDON'S PROBLEM OWNERSHIP. (BROPHY AND ROHRKEMPER, 1981)

Problem Ownership

Teacher-owned	Shared	Student-owned
Hostile Aggressive	Failure Syndrome	Low Achiever
Passive Aggressive	Hyperactive	Rejected by Peers
Defiant	Distractible	Perfectionist
Underachiever	Shy/Withdrawn	
	Immature	

Appendix 3.f

EXPERIENCED TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE VIGNETTES CODED FOR STRATEGIES (BROPHY & McCASLIN, 1992)

Problem-solving Strategies

0. Not a problem
1. Nothing can be done
2. Delegate to other authority
3. Extinguish/ignore
4. Minimal intervention/redirect
5. Humor/tension release
6. Minimize stress/embarrassment
7. Inhibit through physical proximity/ voice control/eye contact
8. Support through physical proximity/ voice control
9. Time out: extinction/removal
10. Time out: calm down, reflect
11. Diagnose
12. Criticize
13. Threaten/punish
14. Proscribing: limits/rules/expectations
15. Appeal/persuade
16. Contracts/commitments to goals
17. Prescribing/telling/instructing/ eliciting
18. Direct modeling
19. Indirect modeling
20. Praise
21. Reward
22. Encouragement/positive expectations
23. Comfort/reassurance
24. Kid gloves
25. Eliminate source of problem
26. Counseling/producing insight
27. Build self-concept
28. Establish relationship
29. Change task
30. Change physical environment/isolation
31. Change social environment
32. Group work
33. Involve peers for support
34. Involve peers to pressure/ punish
35. Involve parents for support or problem solving
36. Involve parents to pressure/ punish
37. Involve school-based authority figures or professionals to support or problem solve.
38. Involve school-based authority figures or professionals to pressure or punish.
39. Involve outside medical or mental health professionals.
40. Work with/counsel parents.
41. Academic help.

Types of Problem Students

A.	Failure Syndrome	G.	Hyperactive
B.	Perfectionist	H.	Distractible
C.	Underachiever	I.	Immature
D.	Hostile Aggressive	J.	Rejected by Peers
E.	Passive Aggressive	K.	Shy/Withdrawn
F.	Defiant		

Relationship of Problem-solving Strategies to General Strategies

General Strategies	Problem-solving Strategies
Failure to address problem	0, 1, 2
Minimal intervention	3,4,5,6,7,8
Removal	9,10
Control through verbal communication	11,12,13,14
Persuasive techniques	15,16,17
Modelling	18,19
Positive reinforcement	20,21,22,23,24
Interpersonal relationships	25,26,27,28
Environmental changes	29,30,31
Peer involvement	32,33,34
Involvement of other adults	35,36,37,38,39,40,41

Experienced Teachers' Responses to the Vignettes Coded for Strategies (Brophy & McCaslin, 1992, pp. 22-23)
Types of Problem Student

Strat	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
0	0	0	2	0	2	2	1	1	0	4	12
1	1	0	2	0	2	1	2	0	5	2	9
2	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	2	4	2	1
3	2	3	1	13	42	25	9	3	22	1	0
4	4	3	7	14	21	12	33	32	8	1	5
5	0	3	1	1	0	3	2	2	1	0	1
6	5	9	1	8	2	2	5	4	4	10	33
7	0	0	2	19	19	33	30	12	2	1	0
8	15	8	1	8	6	7	8	13	13	3	18
9	0	0	3	29	17	29	10	3	1	1	0
10	0	1	2	20	5	14	7	3	5	0	0
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	1	0	0	6	3	6	1	2	9	0	1
13	6	6	26	49	46	61	18	19	14	0	1
14	7	30	25	52	57	59	33	30	43	10	4
15	9	50	27	16	18	14	13	5	12	4	4
16	5	6	7	11	4	2	1	1	3	0	0
17	13	41	13	42	14	20	25	14	42	29	13
18	1	15	5	6	3	0	3	0	8	2	0
19	1	25	4	6	1	6	5	3	4	23	4
20	52	31	15	19	22	15	14	19	26	4	26
21	35	14	49	28	11	18	31	21	9	1	11
22	37	12	13	6	2	5	1	7	22	2	19
23	4	15	0	3	0	2	2	1	7	7	2
24	7	15	1	7	7	3	4	1	4	0	13
25	3	4	21	15	9	9	42	32	7	34	0
26	1	5	1	17	5	2	5	0	0	16	1
27	67	26	19	8	7	11	2	6	22	18	29
28	3	2	8	12	15	5	2	1	5	2	20
29	56	10	35	4	4	2	25	44	10	0	4
30	0	2	1	18	2	1	20	31	0	0	0
31	13	10	9	7	11	4	4	7	10	59	44
32	6	11	1	21	7	6	10	2	9	57	9
33	10	1	8	7	3	6	7	10	15	30	10
34	1	0	4	9	14	8	4	3	4	2	1
35	20	19	23	26	19	15	23	10	25	20	11
36	1	0	11	15	9	27	1	1	2	0	1
37	20	10	9	30	13	25	16	9	8	20	23
38	0	0	1	12	6	28	2	0	0	0	0
39	1	1	1	2	1	6	19	4	1	1	1
40	2	4	6	4	0	1	0	1	4	3	2
41	59	15	8	0	6	6	4	33	18	1	5

Appendix 3.g

EXPERIENCED TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE VIGNETTES CODED FOR RATIONALES/MOTIVES (BROPHY & McCASLIN, 1992)

Rationales/Motives

1. Control/suppress undesirable behaviour
2. Shape desirable behaviour
3. Solve problem: instruction/training/modelling/help
4. Help student cope with problem
5. Identify and treat (external) causes
6. Increase student's insight
7. Appeal/persuade/change attitudes
8. Encourage/reassure/build self-concepts/provide supportive environment
9. Survival/concern about self
10. Instructional concerns
11. Group functioning and safety
12. Concern about problem student
13. Prepare individual for better future life
14. Society's needs
15. Promote morality
16. Upholding school rules
17. Personal irritation/anger
18. Other

Types of Problem Students

A. Failure Syndrome
B. Perfectionist
C. Underachiever
D. Hostile Aggressive
E. Passive Aggressive
F. Defiant
G. Hyperactive
H. Distractible
I. Immature
J. Rejected by Peers
K. Shy/Withdrawn

Experienced Teachers' Responses to the Vignettes Coded for Rationales/Motives (Brophy & McCaslin, 1992, pp. 24-25)
Type of Problem Student

Rat'le	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1	8	10	25	38	46	59	24	20	19	13	1
2	38	5	19	15	5	5	24	29	11	2	31
3	4	20	3	16	7	10	2	13	49	22	71
4	0	0	0	25	5	11	45	9	8	3	0
5	3	7	18	12	12	13	37	40	12	51	1
6	0	3	0	9	5	2	3	0	0	10	1
7	6	56	28	9	18	15	5	4	9	1	9
8	78	32	20	26	13	8	3	10	29	16	48
9	2	0	7	10	31	61	5	1	1	0	2
10	84	46	46	20	20	23	44	62	10	3	14
11	2	0	3	51	47	48	53	10	30	63	15
12	55	71	35	38	28	30	19	50	63	60	79
13	4	8	24	10	3	7	3	4	6	4	8
14	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	3
15	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	4	0
16	0	0	0	9	2	9	1	0	0	0	0
17	0	2	5	9	14	22	13	1	17	0	2
18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

APPENDIX 4

Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire analysis and results:

4.a Comparative factor item loadings for Teacher Efficacy Questionnaire

Appendix 4.a

COMPARATIVE FACTOR ITEM LOADINGS FOR TEACHER EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

Item no.	Present Study	E & H	Item
Items loading on Factor 1 (Management Efficacy)			
35	.79	.63	I have very effective classroom management skills.
27	.78	.63	If students stop working in class, I can usually find a way to get them back on track.
5	.74	.65	I know what routines are needed to keep activities running effectively.
34	.69	.61	I am confident of my ability to begin the year so that students will learn to behave well.
9	.68	.65	I know what kinds of rewards to use to keep students involved.
2	.67	.50	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.
7	.64	.61	I can communicate to students that I am serious about getting appropriate behaviour.
28	.63	.57	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.
25	.60	.61	I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class.
13	.59	.44	When a student is having trouble with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.
4	.56	.56	I find it easy to make my expectations clear to students.
17	.55	.48	When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.
18	.54	.43 [a]	I am sure how to respond to defiant students. *
16	.52	-.32	I always know how to keep track of several activities at once. *
11	.49	.34	There are very few students that I don't know how to handle.
8	.46	.53	If one of my students couldn't do an assignment I would be able to accurately assess whether it was at the correct level of difficulty.

*** These items were reverse coded**

[a] This item loaded onto Factor 2 (General Teaching Efficacy)

Item no.	Present Study	E & H	Item
Items Loading on Factor 2 (General Teaching Efficacy)			
20	.66	.62	I find some students impossible to discipline effectively,
30	.63	.69	Teachers have little effect on stopping misbehaviour when parents don't cooperate.
19	.61	.67	A teacher is very limited in what can be achieved because a student's home environment is a large influence on achievement.
32	.57	.35	Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not teach many students.
6	.55	.59	There are some students who will not behave no matter what I do.
14	.54	.55	Student behaviour in classrooms is influenced more by peers than the teacher.
26	.51	.37 a	If parents would do more with their children at home, I could do more with them in the classroom.
29	.51	.59	Home and peer influences are mainly responsible for student behaviour.
3	.48	.41	The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment.
33	.46	.45	Compared to other influences on student behaviour, teacher's effects are very small.
10	.44	.58	If students aren't disciplined at home, then they aren't likely to accept it at school.
24	.38	.30	The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.
12	.37	.50	If a student doesn't feel like behaving, there's not a lot teachers can do.

a **This item loaded onto Factor 3 (Personal Teaching Efficacy)**

Item no.	Present Study	E & H	Item
Items loading on Factor 3 (Personal Teaching Efficacy)			
15	.77	.72	When a student gets a better grade than usual, it is probably because I found better ways of teaching that student.
21	.76	.56	When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.
23	.64	.55	If a student masters a new concept quickly this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching the concept.
1	.58	.71	When the student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.
31	-.40	-.37 a	The influences of a student's home experiences cannot be overcome by good teaching. *

*** This item was reverse coded**

a This item loaded onto Factor 2 (General Teaching Efficacy)

APPENDIX 5

Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory analysis and results:

5.a Comparative factor item loadings for Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory.

Appendix 5.a

COMPARATIVE FACTOR ITEM LOADINGS FOR ABCC INVENTORY

Item no.	Present Study	McC	Item
Items loading on Factor 1 (Teacher Control)			
10	.64	.36	The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning.
8	.60	.66	I believe the teacher should decide what topics the students study and the tasks used to study them.
27	.59	.35	I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.
17	.58	.65	I believe students need the structure of a daily routine that is organised and implemented by the teacher.
21	.57	.59	I believe students will be successful in school if they listen to the adults who know what's best for them.
9	.57	.39	During the first week of class, I will announce the classroom rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules.
11	.56	.72	When a student bothers another student, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it.
29	.56	.37	I believe class rules are important because they shape the student's behaviour and development.
14	.54	.58	I believe teachers should require student compliance and respect for law and order.
24	.53	.50	I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide drill and practice of skills learned in the classroom.
1	.49	.34	I believe the teacher should direct the students' transition form one learning activity to another.
13	.45	.46	While teaching a lesson on library skills, a student begins to talk about the research she is doing for her book report. I would remind the student that the class has to finish the lesson before the end of the class period.
2	.41	.45	I believe it's important to continuously monitor students' learning behaviour during seatwork.
25	.35	.54	I believe that students need direction in how to work together.

Item no.	Present Study	McC	Item
Items loading on Factor 2 (Student Control)			
7	.61	.31 a	I believe students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests.
26	.56	.78 a	Students in my classroom are free to use any materials they wish during the learning process.
3	.55	.34 a	I believe students should create their own daily routines as this fosters the development of responsibility.
22	.53	.63 b	I believe students should choose the learning topics and tasks.
20	.53	.51 a	I believe students should judge the quality of their own work but should rely on what the teacher tells them.
28	.48	.49 a	I believe friendliness, courtesy, and respect for fellow students is something that students have to learn first-hand through free interaction.
18	.47	.36 a	I allow students to select their own seats.
15	.46	.57 a	When moving from one learning activity to another, I will allow students to progress at their own rate.
23	.42	.60 b	During the first week of class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules.
12	.38	.40 a	I believe class rules stifle the student's ability to develop a personal moral code.
16	.35	.58 b	If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, then I would replace it with one that students think is fair.
4	.33	.54 b	When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward.
6	.28	.44 b	Students naturally feel good about themselves when they behave appropriately; there is no need for me to say or do anything.

a **These items loaded onto the People Management factor**
b **These items loaded onto the Behaviour Management factor**

APPENDIX 6

Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale analysis and results:

6.a **Preservice teachers' responses to the Coping with Behavioural Problems Scale categorised according to year of course and to the specific strategies coding system.**

6.b **Column graphs illustrating comparative general strategies of first and final year preservice teachers and experienced teachers to problem-student types.**

6.c **Comparative analysis of most popular responses of first and final year preservice teachers and experienced teachers to problem-student types categorised according to general strategies and problem-ownership.**

6.d **Preservice teachers' responses to the Coping with Behavioural Problem Scale categorised according to year of course and to the rationales/motives coding system.**

6.e **Comparative analysis of most popular responses of first and final year preservice teachers and experienced teachers to problem-student types categorised according to rationales/motives and problem ownership.**

Appendix 6.a

PRESERVICE TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE COPING WITH BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS SCALE CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO YEAR OF COURSE AND TO THE SPECIFIC STRATEGIES CODING SYSTEM

1. FAILURE SYNDROME	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
3 extinguish/ignore		1 1.4%	1 0.7%
4 min. intervention/redirect		2 2.8%	2 1.3%
5 humour/tension release	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
13 lose priv./punish	2 2.6%	1 1.4%	3 2.0%
15 reasoning	16 20.5%	6 8.5%	22 14.8%
16 commitment-goals	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
17 what to do	4 5.1%		4 2.7%
18 modelling-attention		1 1.4%	1 0.7%
21 rewarding	3 3.8%	1 1.4%	4 2.7%
22 encourage/positive reinforcement	5 6.4%	14 19.7%	19 12.8%
24 temp. spec. treatment	37 47.4%	23 32.4%	60 40.3%
28 pers rel'ship	1 1.3%	2 2.8%	3 2.0%
29 change in task	8 10.3%	17 23.9%	25 16.8%
30 change-phys. environment		1 1.4%	1 0.7%
32 class/peers-support		2 2.8%	2 1.3%
Total	78 100.0%	71 100.0%	149 100.0%

2. HOSTILE-AGGRESSIVE	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob	13 17.1%	10 14.9%	23 16.1%
2 someone else		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
3 extinguish/ignore		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
9 extinguish/removal	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
12 pers. crit/scolding		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
13 lose priv./punish	13 17.1%	12 17.9%	25 17.5%
14 what not to do	3 3.9%	10 14.9%	13 9.1%
15 reasoning	9 11.8%	5 7.5%	14 9.8%
17 what to do	3 3.9%	2 3.0%	5 3.5%
25 source	4 5.3%	2 3.0%	4 2.8%
26 insightful technique	2 2.6%	2 3.0%	6 4.2%
27 strategies-build self-concept		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
28 pers rel'ship	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
32 speaking-meetings etc.	3 3.9%	4 6.0%	7 4.9%
35 contact parents-resource	6 7.9%	5 7.5%	11 7.7%
36 contact parents-press/pun.	9 11.8%	2 3.0%	11 7.7%
37 contact school auth.-support	2 2.6%	1 1.5%	3 2.1%
38 contact school auth.-press.	7 9.2%	7 10.4%	14 9.8%
40 contact parents-counsel		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
Total	76 100.0%	67 100.0%	143 100.0%

3. HYPERACTIVE	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob	2 2.7%	2 3.2%	4 2.9%
4 min. intervention/redirect	9 12.0%	24 38.1%	33 23.9%
6 min. stress/embarrass	1 1.3%	1 1.6%	2 1.4%
7 inhibit-proximity/voice/eye	5 6.7%		5 3.6%
10 calm down/reflect	4 5.3%	8 12.7%	12 8.7%
12 pers. crit/scolding		3 4.8%	3 2.2%
13 lose priv./punish	8 10.7%	1 1.6%	9 6.5%
14 what not to do	3 4.0%	5 7.9%	8 5.8%
15 reasoning	3 4.0%	6 9.5%	8 6.5%
17 what to do	26 34.7%	5 7.9%	31 22.5%
21 rewarding	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
22 encourage/positive reinforcement	1 1.3%	1 1.6%	2 1.4%
29 change in task	3 4.0%	4 6.3%	7 5.1%
30 change-phys. environ	2 2.7%	2 3.2%	4 2.9%
31 change soc. environ.	3 4.0%		3 2.2%
32 speaking-meetings etc.	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
35 contact parents-resource	2 2.7%		2 1.4%
37 contact school auth.-support	1 1.3%	1 1.6%	2 1.4%
Total	75 100.0%	63 100.0%	138 100.0%

4. REJECTED BY PEERS	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
8 support-proximity/voice	11 15.9%		11 8.5%
12 pers. crit/scolding		1 1.6%	1 0.8%
15 reasoning	2 2.9%	13 21.3%	15 11.5%
17 what to do	15 21.7%	1 1.6%	16 12.3%
19 modelling indirectly	1 1.4%	1 1.6%	2 1.5%
22 encourage/positive reinforcement	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
24 temp. spec. treatment	1 1.4%	5 8.2%	6 4.6%
26 insightful technique	1 1.4%	2 3.3%	3 2.3%
28 pers rel'ship	1 1.4%	1 1.6%	2 1.5%
29 change in task	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
31 change-soc. environ.	4 5.8%	1 1.6%	5 3.8%
32 speaking-meetings etc.	7 10.1%	28 45.9%	35 26.9%
33 class/peers-support	23 33.3%	6 9.8%	29 22.3%
42 other		2 3.3%	2 1.5%
Total	69 100.0%	61 100.0%	130 100.0%

5. PERFECTIONIST	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
4 min. intervention/redirect		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
6 min. stress/embarrass		4 6.6%	4 3.0%
12 pers. crit/scolding		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
13 lose priv./punish	1 1.4%		1 0.7%
14 what not to do		2 3.3%	2 1.5%
15 reasoning	4 5.4%	6 9.8%	10 7.4%
17 what to do	40 54.1%	5 8.2%	45 33.3%
18 modelling-attention	3 4.1%		3 2.2%
20 praising	5 6.8%	12 19.7%	17 12.6%
21 rewarding		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
22 encourage/positive reinforcement	6 8.1%	18 29.5%	24 17.8%
23 comfort/reassurance	6 8.1%	2 3.3%	8 5.9%
24 temp. spec. treatment	2 2.7%	5 8.2%	7 5.2%
26 insightful technique	1 1.4%		1 0.7%
27 strategies-build self-concept	1 1.4%		1 0.7%
29 change in task	3 4.1%	1 1.6%	4 3.0%
35 contact parents - resource	1 1.4%	1 1.6%	2 1.5%
42 other	1 1.4%	1 1.6%	2 1.5%
Total	74 100.0%	61 100.0%	135 100.0%

6. PASSIVE-AGGRESSIVE	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob	4 5.6%		4 3.1%
3 extinguish/ignore	3 4.2%	9 15.3%	12 9.2%
4 min. intervention	28 39.4%	20 33.9%	48 36.9%
5 humour/tension release	1 1.4%	3 5.1%	4 3.1%
7 inhibit-proximity/voice/eye	1 1.4%	3 5.1%	4 3.1%
9 extinction/removal	2 2.8%	1 1.7%	3 2.3%
11 diagnose	1 1.4%	5 8.5%	6 4.6%
12 pers. crit/scolding	1 1.4%	1 1.7%	2 1.5%
13 lose priv./punish	9 12.7%	9 15.3%	18 13.8%
14 what not to do	2 2.8%	5 8.5%	7 5.4%
15 reasoning	1 1.4%	1 1.7%	2 1.5%
17 what to do	10 14.1%		10 7.7%
20 praising		1 1.7%	1 0.8%
29 change in task		1 1.7%	1 0.8%
30 change-phys. environ.	5 7.0%		5 3.8%
34 involve peers-press/punish	2 2.8%		2 1.5%
38 contact school auth.-press.	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
Total	71 100.0%	59 100.0%	130 100.0%

7. DISTRACTIBLE	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
4 min. intervention/redirect	17 26.6%	30 52.6%	47 38.8%
6 min. stress/embarrass	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
7 inhibit-proximity/voice/eye	3 4.7%	4 7.0%	7 5.8%
8 support-proximity/voice	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
13 lose priv./punish	3 4.7%	1 1.8%	4 3.3%
14 what not to do		3 5.3%	3 2.5%
15 reasoning	2 3.1%		2 1.7%
16 commitment-goals		1 1.8%	1 0.8%
17 what to do	4 6.3%	1 1.8%	5 4.1%
19 modelling indirectly	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
21 rewarding	2 3.1%		2 1.7%
25 source	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
29 change in task	12 18.8%	8 14.0%	20 16.5%
30 change-phys. environ.	14 21.9%	8 14.0%	22 18.2%
31 change-soc. environ.	1 1.6%	1 1.8%	2 1.7%
42 other	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
Total	64 100.0%	57 100.0%	121 100.0%

8. SHY/WITHDRAWN	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 nothing can be done		2 3.9%	2 1.9%
5 humour/tension release	1 1.8%		1 0.9%
6 min. stress/embarrass	8 14.3%	5 9.8%	13 12.1%
8 support-proximity/voice	9 16.1%	7 13.7%	16 15.0%
15 reasoning	1 1.8%	3 5.9%	4 3.7%
17 what to do	2 3.6%	5 9.8%	7 6.5%
18 modelling-attention	2 3.6%		2 1.9%
20 praising	2 3.6%		2 1.9%
22 encourage/positive reinforcement	8 14.3%	4 7.8%	12 11.2%
23 comfort/reassurance	3 5.4%	1 2.0%	4 3.7%
24 temp. spec. treatment		3 5.9%	3 2.8%
27 strategies/build self-concept		13 25.5%	13 12.1%
28 pers. rel'ship	1 1.8%	2 3.9%	3 2.8%
29 change in task	3 5.4%		3 2.8%
31 change-soc. environ.	4 7.1%		4 3.7%
32 speaking-meetings etc.	5 8.9%		5 4.7%
33 class/peers-support	3 5.4%		3 2.8%
35 contact parents-resource	2 3.6%	2 3.9%	4 3.7%
42 other	2 3.6%	1 2.0%	3 2.8%
Total	56 100.0%	51 100.0%	107 100.0%

9. UNDERACHIEVING	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
3 extinguish/ignore	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
4 min. intervention/redirect	2 3.4%		2 1.8%
7 inhibit-proximity/voice/eye	3 5.2%	1 1.8%	4 3.5%
8 support-proximity/voice	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
10 calm down/reflect	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
13 lose priv./punish	9 15.5%	10 17.9%	19 16.7%
14 what not to do		2 3.6%	2 1.8%
16 commitment-goals		10 17.9%	10 8.8%
17 what to do	8 13.8%	14 25.0%	22 19.3%
20 praising	2 3.4%		2 1.8%
21 rewarding	7 12.1%	1 1.8%	8 7.0%
26 insightful technique		1 1.8%	1 0.9%
29 change in task	4 6.9%	6 10.7%	10 8.8%
30 change-phys. environ.	9 15.5%	6 10.7%	15 13.2%
31 change-soc. environ.	5 8.6%	1 1.8%	6 5.3%
35 contact parents-resource	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
36 contact parents-press./pun.	1 1.7%	1 1.8%	2 1.8%
38 contact school auth.-press.	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
41 academic help		2 3.6%	2 1.8%
42 other	3 5.2%	1 1.8%	4 3.5%
Total	58 100.0%	56 100.0%	114 100.0%

10. DEFIANT	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
7 inhibit-proximity/voice/eye		2 3.6%	2 1.8%
13 lose priv/punish	17 31.5%	8 14.5%	25 22.9%
14 what not to do		1 1.8%	1 0.9%
15 reasoning	2 3.7%	1 1.8%	3 2.8%
17 what to do	3 5.6%	5 9.1%	8 7.3%
25 source		2 3.6%	2 1.8%
26 insightful technique		6 10.9%	6 5.5%
30 change-phys. environ.	1 1.9%		1 0.9%
35 contact parents-resource	2 3.7%		2 1.8%
36 contact parents-press/pun.	5 9.3%	3 5.5%	8 7.3%
38 contact school auth-press.	24 44.4%	26 47.3%	50 45.9%
42 other		1 1.8%	1 0.9%
Total	54 100.0%	55 100.0%	109 100.0%

11. IMMATURE	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no prob	7 13.2%		7 6.7%
2 someone else		4 7.7%	4 3.8%
3 extinguish/ignore		11 21.2%	11 10.5%
4 min. intervention/redirect	26 49.1%	8 15.4%	34 32.4%
14 what not to do		1 1.9%	1 1.0%
15 reasoning	1 1.9%	1 1.9%	2 1.9%
17 what to do	18 34.0%	7 13.5%	25 23.8%
32 speaking-meetings etc.		4 7.7%	4 3.8%
33 class/peers-support	1 1.9%	3 5.8%	4 3.8%
42 other		13 25.0%	13 12.4%
Total	53 100.0%	52 100.0%	105 100.0%

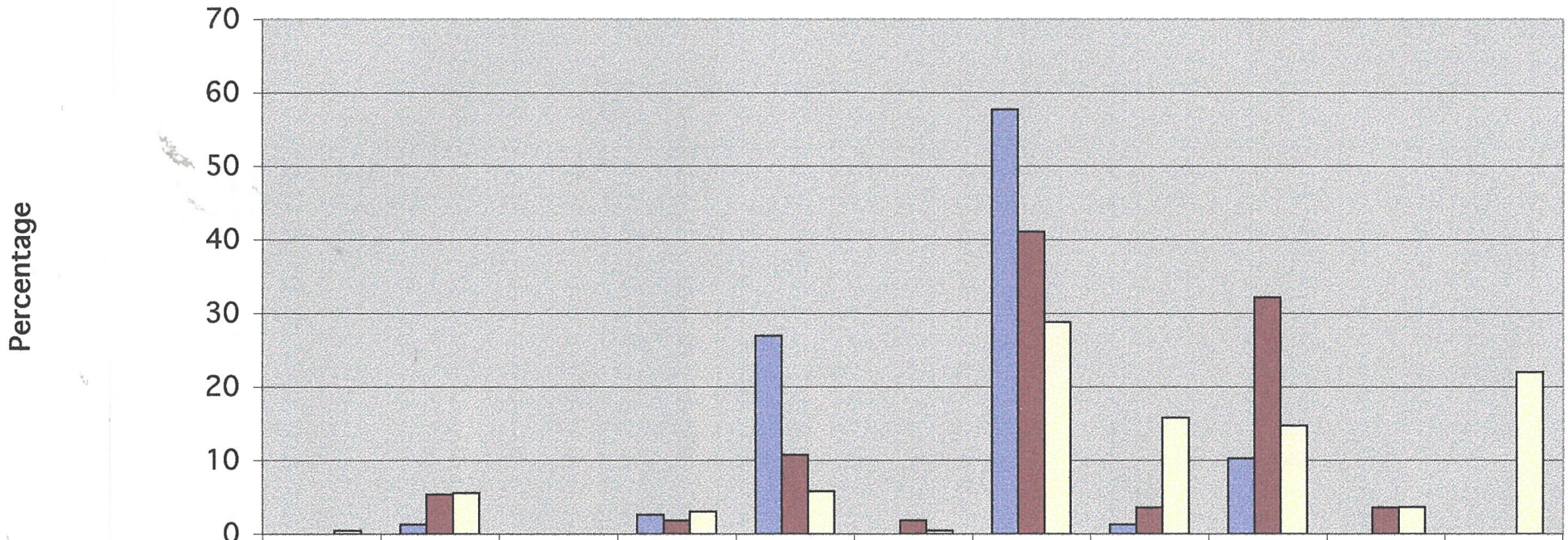
12. LOW-ACHIEVING	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
2 someone else	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	3 2.9%
4 min. intervention/redirect	1 2.0%		1 1.0%
6 min. stress/embarrass	1 2.0%	7 13.7%	8 7.8%
17 what to do	1 2.0%		1 1.0%
20 praising		1 2.0%	1 1.0%
21 rewarding	1 2.0%		1 1.0%
22 encourage/positive reinforcement		1 2.0%	1 1.0%
26 insightful technique		1 2.0%	1 1.0%
29 change in task	3 5.9%	15 29.4%	18 17.6%
33 class/peers-support		3 5.9%	3 2.9%
35 contact parents-resource	4 7.8%	1 2.0%	5 4.9%
37 contact school auth-support	1 2.0%	2 3.9%	3 2.9%
41 academic help	33 64.7%	10 19.6%	43 42.2%
42 other	4 7.8%	9 17.6%	13 12.7%
Total	51 100.0%	51 100.0%	102 100.0%

Appendix 6.b
COLUMN GRAPHS ILLUSTRATING COMPARATIVE GENERAL STRATEGIES OF FIRST AND FINAL YEAR PRESERVICE TEACHERS AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS TO PROBLEM-STUDENT TYPE

Key to General Strategies

FA	Failure to Address the Problem
MI	Minimal Intervention
R	Removal
CVC	Control through Verbal Communication
PT	Persuasive Techniques
M	Modelling
PR	Positive Reinforcement
IR	Interpersonal Relationships
EC	Environmental Change
PI	Peer Involvement
IOA	Involvement of Other Adults

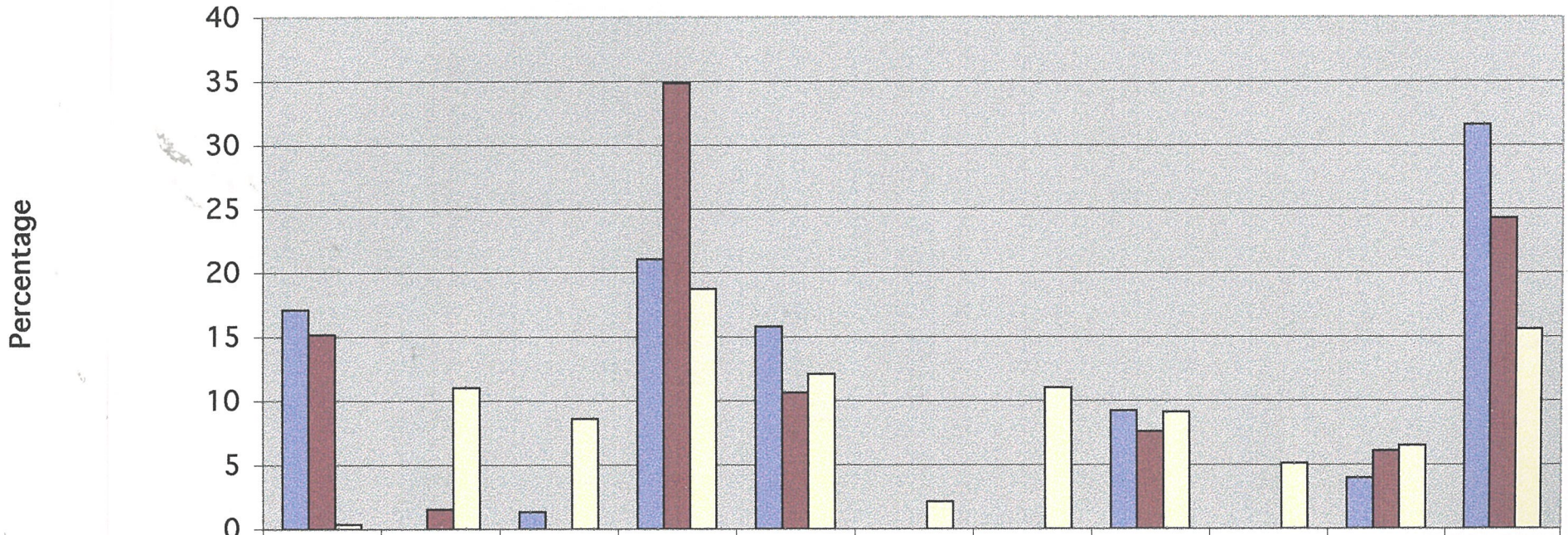
General Management Strategies - Failure Syndrome(%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	0	1	0	3	27	0	58	1	10	0	0
Fourth Yr. %	0	5	0	2	11	2	41	4	32	4	0
Exp. Teach %	0	6	0	3	6	0	29	16	15	4	22

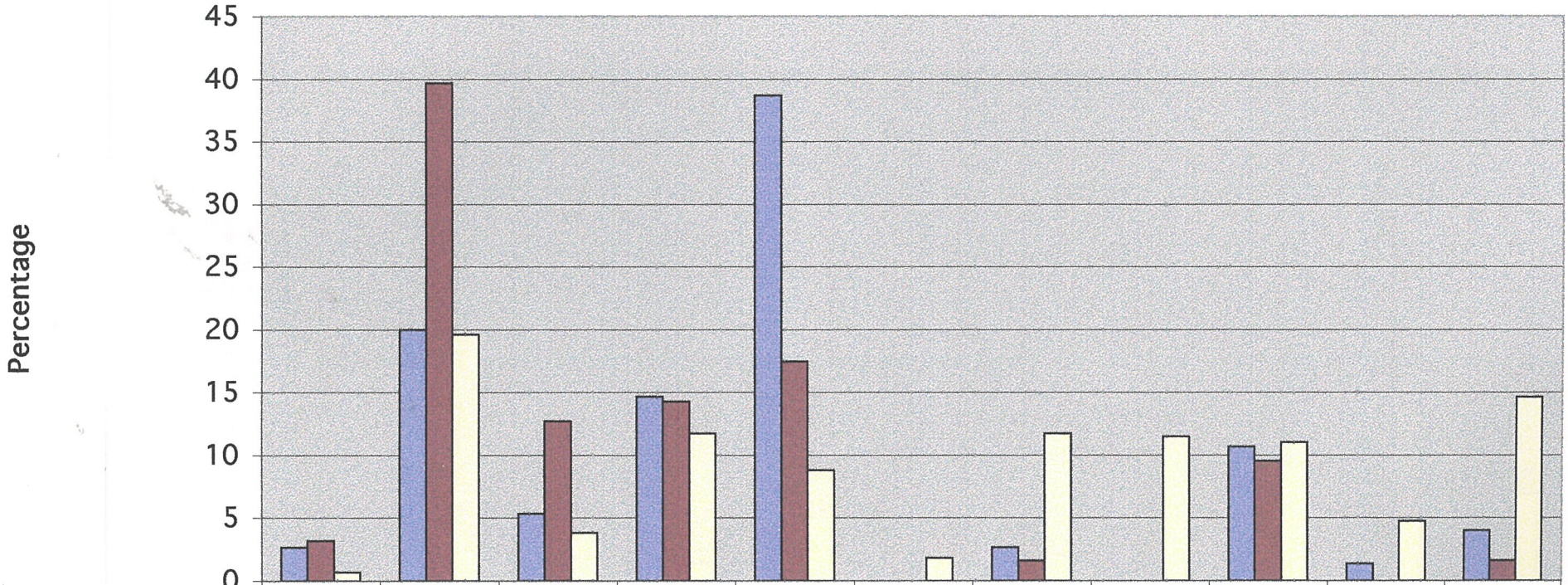
Strategies

General Management Strategies - Hostile-Aggressive (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	17	0	1	21	16	0	0	9	0	4	32
Fourth Yr. %	15	2	0	35	11	0	0	8	0	6	24
Exp. Teach %	0	11	9	19	12	2	11	9	5	6	16

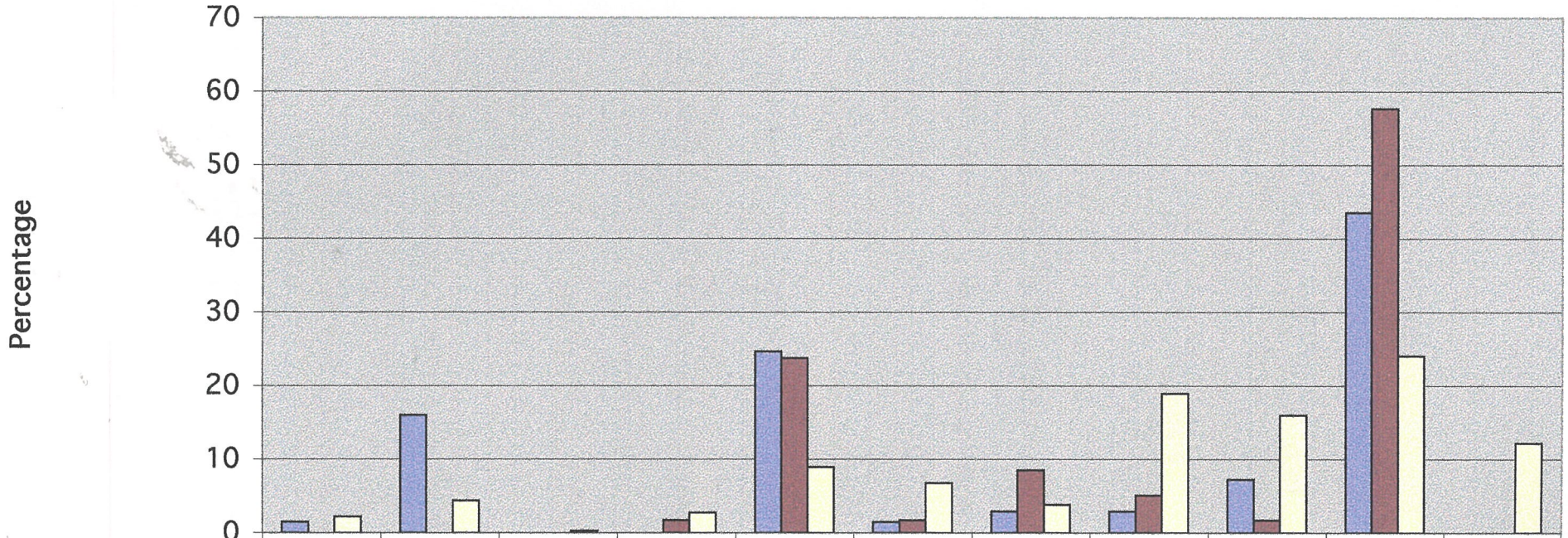
General Management Strategies - Hyperactive (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	3	20	5	15	39	0	3	0	11	1	4
Fourth Yr. %	3	40	13	14	17	0	2	0	10	0	2
Exp. Teach %	1	20	4	12	9	2	12	11	11	5	15

Strategies

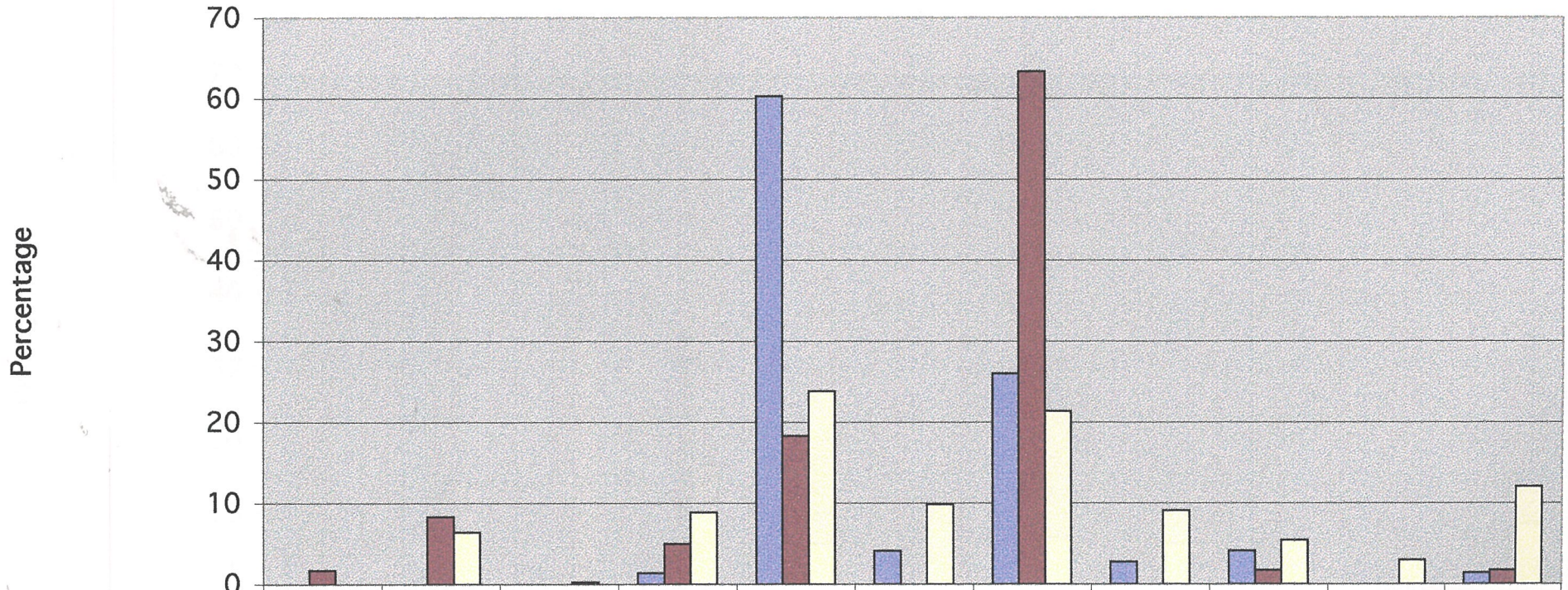
General Management Strategies - Rejected by Peers (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	1	16	0	0	25	1	3	3	7	43	0
Fourth Yr. %	0	0	0	2	24	2	8	5	2	58	0
Exp. Teach %	2	4	0	3	9	7	4	19	16	24	12

Strategies

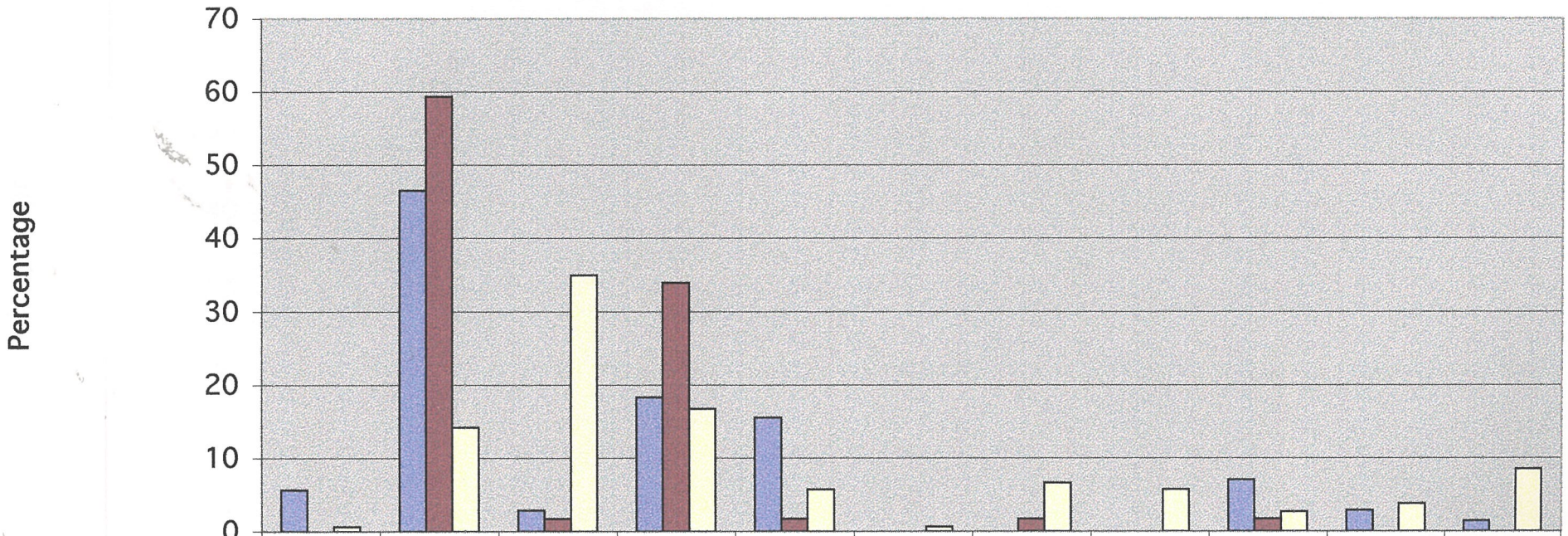
General Management Strategies - Perfectionist (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	0	0	0	1	60	4	26	3	4	0	1
Fourth Yr. %	2	8	0	5	18	0	63	0	2	0	2
Exp. Teach %	0	6	0	9	24	10	21	9	5	3	12

Strategies

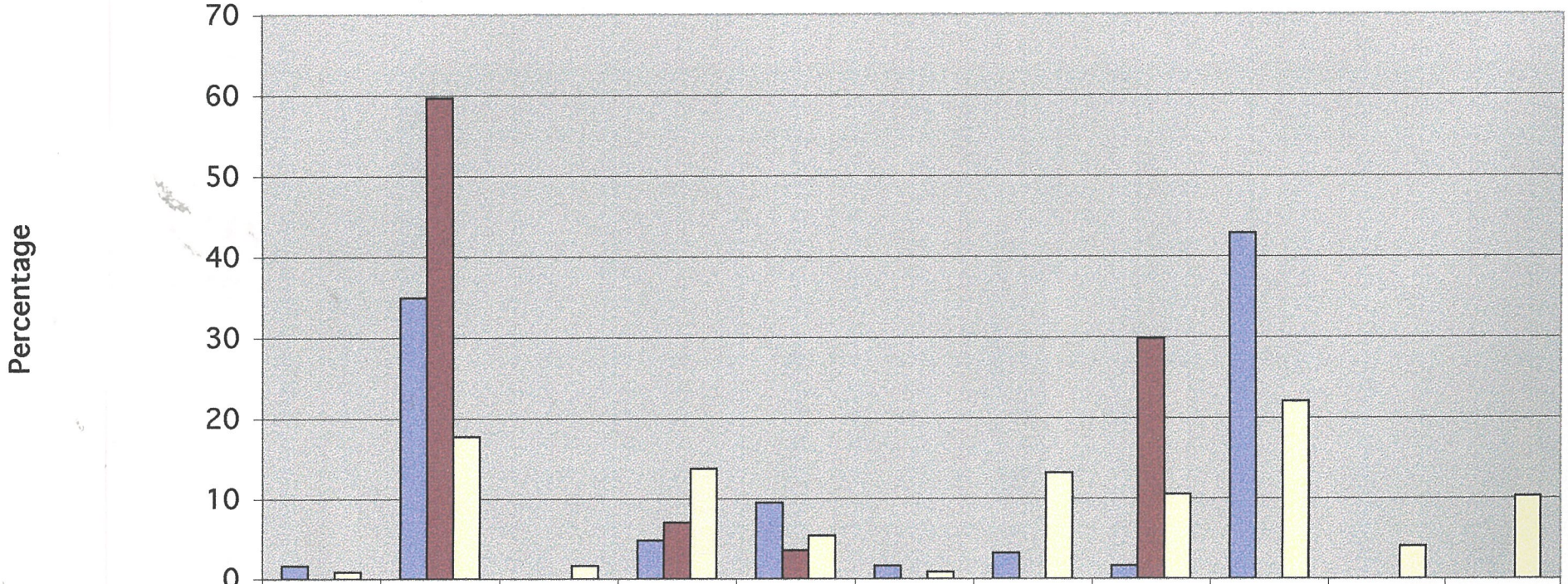
General Management Strategies - Passive-Agressive Child (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	6	46	3	18	15	0	0	0	7	3	1
Fourth Yr. %	0	59	2	34	2	0	2	0	2	0	0
Exp. Teach %	1	14	35	17	6	1	7	6	3	4	9

Strategies

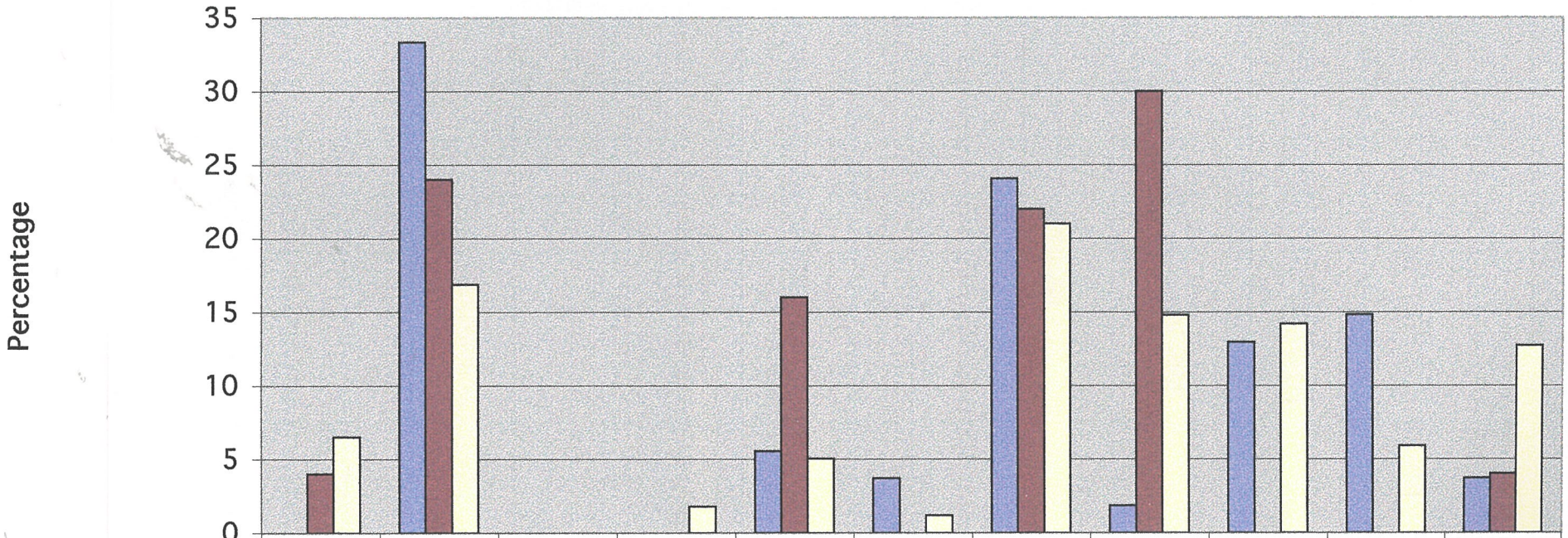
General Management Strategies - Distractible (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	2	35	0	5	10	2	3	2	43	0	0
Fourth Yr. %	0	60	0	7	4	0	0	30	0	0	0
Exp. Teach %	1	18	2	14	5	1	13	10	22	4	10

Strategies

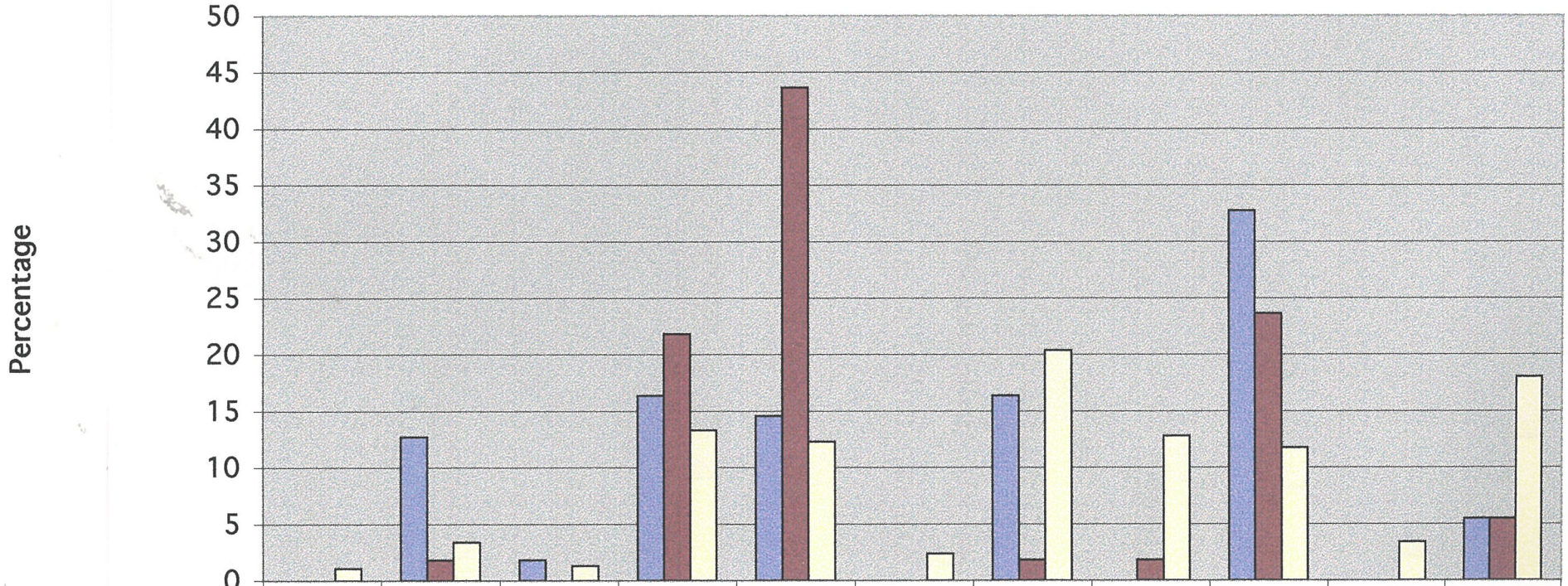
General Management Strategies - Shy/Withdrawn (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	0	33	0	0	6	4	24	2	13	15	4
Fourth Yr. %	4	24	0	0	16	0	22	30	0	0	4
Exp. Teach %	7	17	0	2	5	1	21	15	14	6	13

Strategies

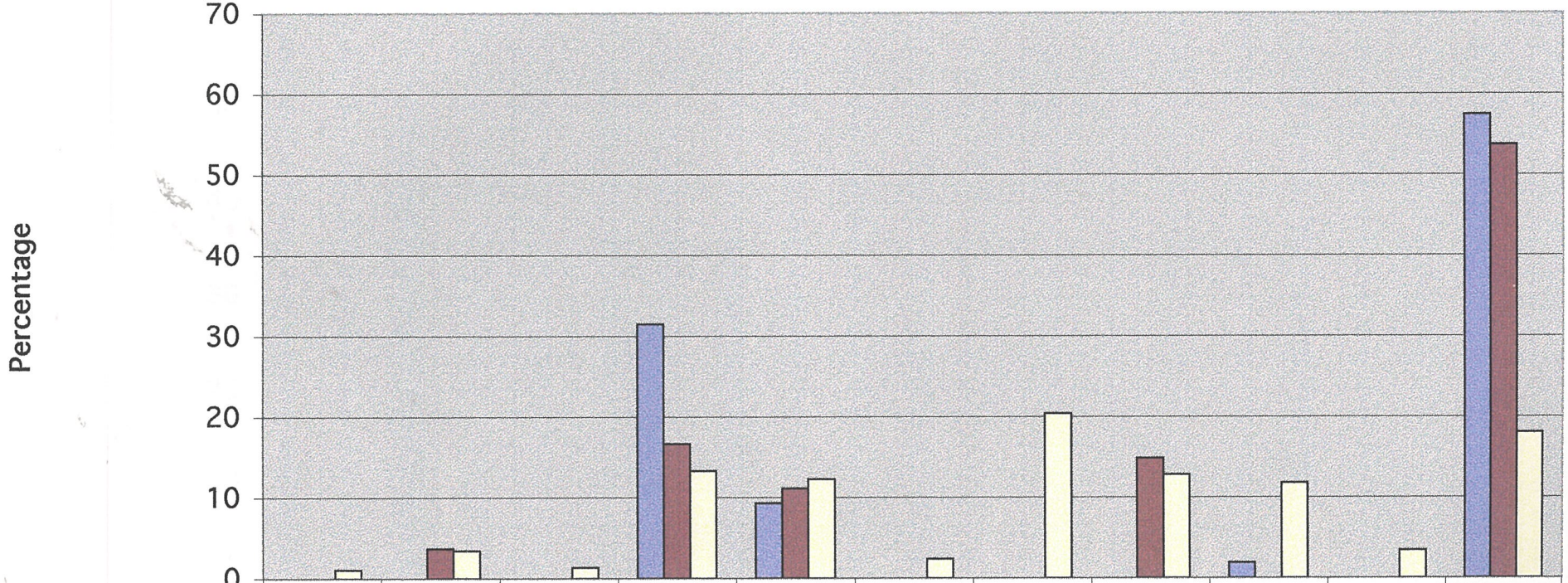
General Management Strategies - Underachiever (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	0	13	2	16	15	0	16	0	33	0	5
Fourth Yr. %	0	2	0	22	44	0	2	2	24	0	5
Exp. Teach %	1	3	1	13	12	2	20	13	12	3	18

Strategies

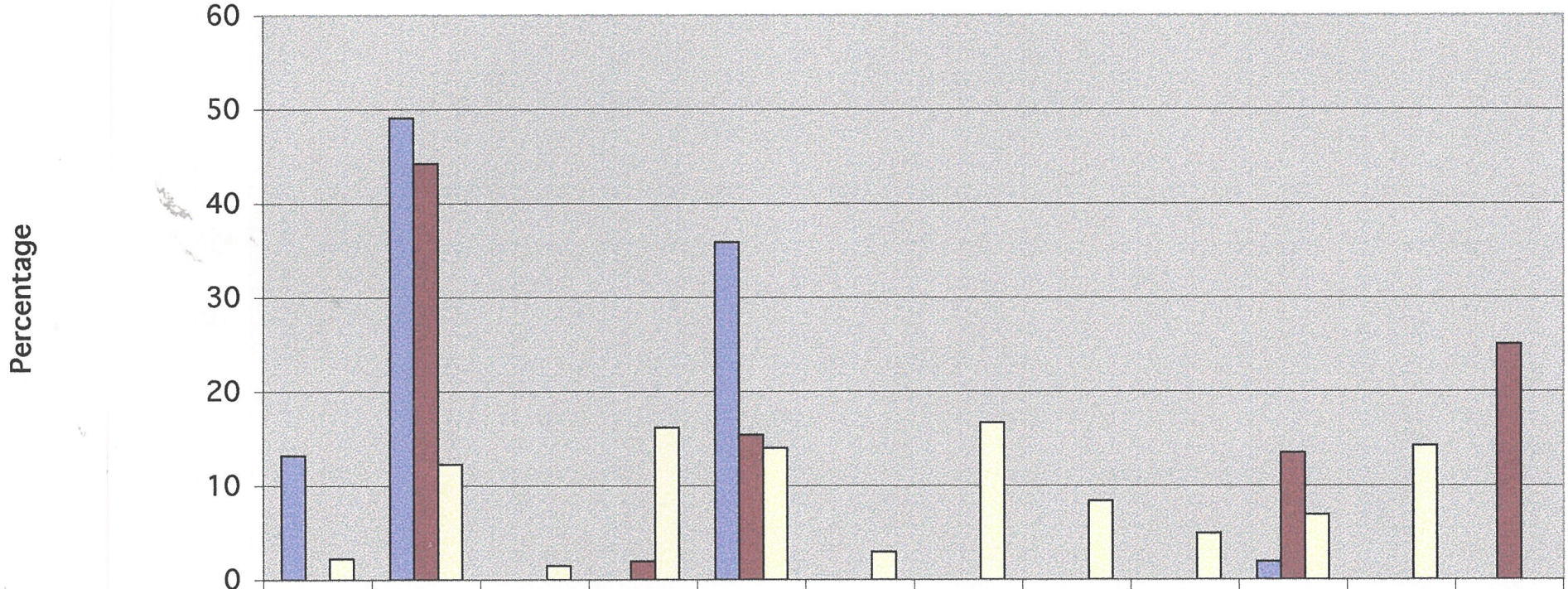
General Management Strategies - Defiant (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA
First Yr. &	0	0	0	31	9	0	0	0	2	0	57
Fourth Yr. %	0	4	0	17	11	0	0	15	0	0	54
Exp. Teach %	1	3	1	13	12	2	20	13	12	3	18

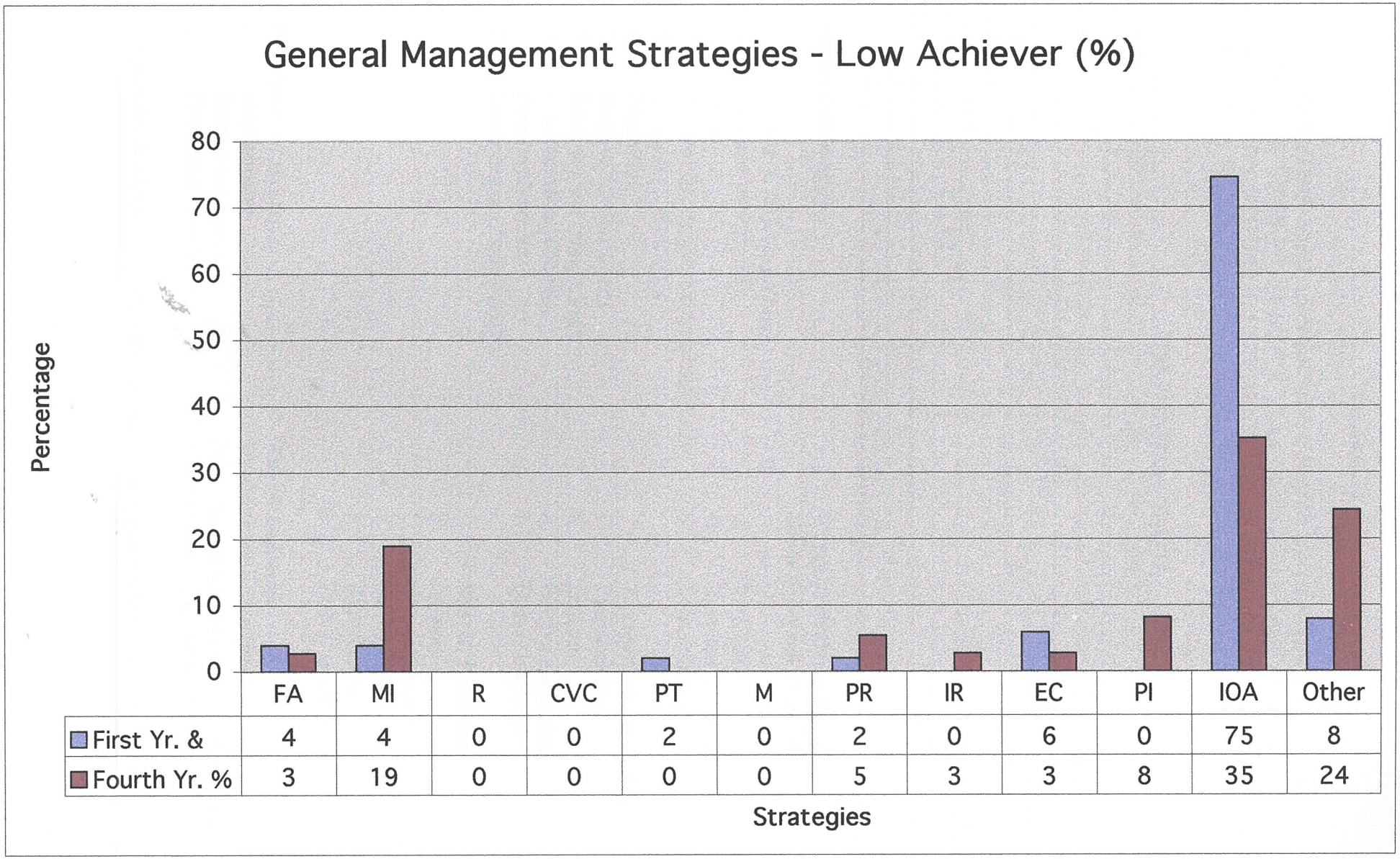
Strategies

General Management Strategies - Immature (%)



	FA	MI	R	CVC	PT	M	PR	IR	EC	PI	IOA	Other
First Yr. &	13	49	0	0	36	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Fourth Yr. %	0	44	0	2	15	0	0	0	0	13	0	25
Exp. Teach %	2	12	1	16	14	3	17	8	5	7	14	0

Strategies


General Management Strategies - Low Achiever (%)
Percentage
80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
FA
MI
R
CVC
PT
M
PR
IR
EC
PI
IOA
Other
First Yr. &
4
4
0
0
2
0
2
0
6
0
75
8
Fourth Yr. %
3
19
0
0
0
0
5
3
3
8
35
24
Strategies

Appendix 6.c

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MOST POPULAR RESPONSES OF FIRST AND FINAL YEAR PRESERVICE TEACHERS AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS TO PROBLEM-STUDENT TYPES CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO GENERAL STRATEGIES AND PROBLEM-OWNERSHIP.

Type of Problem Student

Strat	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1												
2			**2**, *3*			**1**, *1*		**1**, *1*	**2**, *1*,2	1,2,2	1,2,1	
3						1						
4				**3**,*2*	2,2,3	2,2,2	1,2,1	2				
5	2,*1*,1	2,*2*		**1**				2,*2*			2,*1*	*2*
6												
7	1,2,2			*3*,1	1			1	3,2,1			1,*1*,1
8		2	2,*2*						**1**	**2**		
9				2,*1*						*1*,1		**2**
10		1,*1*,1						**3**				
11			1,*1*	2	1,*1*,2		2,*1*,2				2	2

General Strategies

1. Failure to address problem
2. Minimal intervention
3. Removal
4. Control through verbal communication
5. Persuasive techniques
6. Modelling
7. Positive reinforcement
8. Interpersonal relationships
9. Environmental changes
10. Peer involvement
11. Involvement of other adults

Types of Problem Student

Student-owned Problems

A. Perfectionist
B. Rejected by peers
C. Low achiever*

Teacher-owned Problems

D. Underachiever
E. Defiant
F. Passive aggressive
G. Hostile aggressive

Shared Problems

H. Immature
I. Shy/withdrawn
J. Distractible
K. Hyperactive
L. Failure syndrome

Popularity of Strategies

1. Most popular
2. Second most popular
3. Third most popular

Key to Teachers

First year preservice (**bold numerals**)
Final year preservice (*italicised numerals)*
Experienced (other numerals)

* Brophy & McCaslin, (1992) did not report strategies for the low achieving student.

Appendix 6.d

PRESERVICE TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE COPING WITH BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS SCALE CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO YEAR OF COURSE AND TO THE RATIONALES/MOTIVES CODING SYSTEM

1. FAILURE SYNDROME	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 reason		1 1.4%	1 0.7%
5 prep. future life	2 2.6%		2 1.3%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	1 1.3%	4 5.6%	5 3.4%
12 teach desirable behav.		1 1.4%	1 0.7%
14 identify cause	3 3.8%	2 2.8%	5 3.4%
15 increase student insight		1 1.4%	1 0.7%
16 change student's beliefs/attitudes	31 39.7%	13 18.3%	44 29.5%
17 encourage/support student	38 48.7%	46 68.4%	84 56.4%
18 other	2 2.6%	3 4.2%	5 3.4%
Total	78 100.0%	71 100.0%	149 100.0%

2. HOSTILE-AGGRESSIVE	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason	3 3.9%	8 11.8%	11 7.6%
1 well being/survival		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
4 his/her responsibility	1 1.3%	1 1.5%	2 1.4%
7 morality	2 2.6%	3 4.4%	5 3.5%
8 school rules	1 1.3%	6 8.8%	7 4.9%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	41 53.9%	25 36.8%	66 45.8%
12 teach desirable behav.	2 2.6%	3 4.4%	5 3.5%
13 teach-cope		1 1.5%	1 0.7%
14 identify cause	14 18.4%	6 8.8%	20 13.9%
15 increase student insight	3 3.9%	9 13.2%	12 8.3%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	1 1.3%	5 7.4%	6 4.2%
17 encourage/support student	1 1.3%		1 0.7%
18 other	7 9.2%		7 4.9%
Total	76 100.0%	68 100.0%	144 100.0%

3. HYPERACTIVE	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason		3 4.8%	3 2.2%
2 instruction	1 1.3%	2 3.2%	3 2.2%
3 safety	10 13.3%	8 12.7%	18 13.0%
4 his/her responsibility	4 5.3%		4 2.9%
7 morality	24 32.0%	33 52.4%	57 41.3%
8 school rules	1 1.3%	3 4.8%	4 2.9%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	26 34.7%	1 1.6%	7 19.6%
11 shaping desirable behav.	2 2.7%	2 3.2%	4 2.9%
12 teach desirable behav.		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
13 teach-cope		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
14 identify cause	3 4.0%	4 6.3%	7 5.1%
15 increase student insight		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
18 other	4 5.3%	4 6.3%	8 5.8%
Total	75 100.0%	63 100.0%	138 100.0%

4. REJECTED BY PEERS	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason		2 3.3%	2 1.5%
3 safety		2 3.3%	2 1.5%
4 his/her responsibility		4 6.6%	4 3.1%
5 prep. future life	9 13.0%	3 4.9%	12 9.2%
6 welfare of society		1 1.6%	1 0.8%
7 morality	35 50.7%	22 36.1%	57 43.8%
8 school rules	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	1 1.4%	4 6.6%	5 3.8%
teach desirable behav.	2 2.9%	6 9.8%	8 6.2%
14 identify cause	9 13.0%	8 13.1%	17 13.1%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	1 1.4%	5 8.2%	6 4.6%
17 encourage/support student	11 15.9%	1 1.6%	12 9.2%
18 other		3 4.9%	3 2.3%
Total	69 100.0%	61 100.0%	130 100.0%

5. PERFECTIONIST	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason		2 3.3%	2 1.5%
4 his/her responsibility	4 5.4%		4 3.0%
5 prep. future life	1 1.4%		1 0.7%
9 personal irritation		1 1.6%	1 0.7%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	4 5.4%	5 8.2%	9 6.7%
11 shaping desirable behav.	1 1.4%	1 1.6%	2 1.5%
12 teaching desirable behav.	2 2.7%	1 1.6%	3 2.2%
13 teach-cope	13 17.6%	4 6.6%	17 12.6%
14 identify cause	3 4.1%	2 3.3%	5 3.7%
15 increase student insight	1 1.4%	8 13.1%	9 6.7%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	20 27.0%	13 21.3%	33 24.4%
17 encourage/support student	24 32.4%	23 37.7%	47 34.8%
18 other	1 1.4%	1 1.6%	2 1.5%
Total	74 100.0%	61 100.0%	135 100.0%

6. PASSIVE-AGGRESSIVE	Year of Course		
Strategy	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason		1 1.7%	1 0.8%
1 well being/survival	2 2.8%		2 1.5%
2 instruction	27 38.0%	27 45.8%	54 41.5%
3 safety	4 5.6%	4 6.8%	8 6.2%
4 his/her responsibility	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
7 morality	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
8 school rules		1 1.7%	1 0.8%
9 personal irritation	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	31 43.7%	23 39.0%	54 41.5%
14 identify cause	2 2.8%		2 1.5%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	1 1.4%		1 0.8%
18 other	1 1.4%	1 1.7%	2 1.5%
Total	71 100.0%	59 100.0%	130 100.0%

7. DISTRACTIBLE	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason	1 1.6%	1 1.8%	2 1.7%
1 well being/survival		1 1.8%	1 0.8%
2 instruction	1 1.6%	17 29.8%	18 14.9%
4 his/her responsibility	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
5 prep. future life	4 6.3%		4 3.3%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	47 73.4%	24 42.1%	71 56.7%
11 shaping desirable behav.	2 3.1%	5 8.8%	7 5.8%
13 teach-cope		1 1.8%	1 0.8%
14 identify cause	5 7.8%	7 12.3%	12 9.9%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	1 1.6%		1 0.8%
17 encourage/support student		1 1.8%	1 0.8%
18 other	2 3.1%		2 1.7%
Total	64 100.0%	57 100.0%	121 100.0%

8. SHY/WITHDRAWN	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason	1 1.8%	1 2.0%	2 1.9%
2 instruction	1 1.8%	1 2.0%	2 1.9%
5 prep. future life	4 7.1%	1 2.0%	5 4.7%
6 welfare of society		1 2.0%	1 0.9%
8 school rules		1 2.0%	1 0.9%
11 shaping desirable behav.	1 1.8%	1 2.0%	2 1.9%
12 teaching desirable behav.	4 7.1%	2 3.9%	6 5.6%
14 identify cause	3 5.4%	9 17.6%	12 11.2%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	1 1.8%	10 19.6%	11 10.3%
17 encourage/support student	28 50.0%	21 41.2%	49 25.8%
18 other	13 23.2%	3 5.9%	16 14.2%
Total	56 100.0%	51 100.0%	107 100.0%

9. UNDERACHIEVING	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
2 instruction	1 1.7%	1 1.8%	2 1.8%
3 safety	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
4 his/her responsibility	5 8.6%	14 25.0%	19 16.7%
5 prep. future life	1 1.7%		1 0.9%
8 school rules		1 1.8%	1 0.9%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	30 51.7%	22 39.3%	52 45.6%
11 shaping desirable behav.	8 13.8%	5 8.9%	13 11.4%
14 identify cause	2 3.4%	7 12.5%	9 7.9%
15 increase student insight		3 5.4%	3 2.6%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	3 5.2%	2 3.6%	5 4.4%
17 encourage/support student	1 1.7%	1 1.8%	2 1.8%
18 other	6 10.3%		6 5.3%
Total	58 10.0%	56 100.0%	114 100.0%

10. DEFIANT	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason	2 3.7%	2 3.6%	4 3.7%
1 well being/survival	2 3.7%	11 20.0%	13 11.9%
2 instruction	1 1.9%		1 0.8%
3 safety		1 1.8%	1 0.9%
4 his/her responsibility	10 18.5%	7 12.7%	17 15.6%
5 prep. future life	1 1.9%		1 0.9%
6 welfare of society		1 1.8%	1 0.9%
8 school rules	1 1.9%	6 10.9%	7 6.4%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	32 59.3%	16 29.1%	48 44.0%
14 identify cause	1 1.9%	8 14.5%	9 8.3%
17 encourage/support student	2 3.7%	1 1.8%	3 2.8%
18 other	2 3.7%	2 3.6%	4 3.7%
Total	54 100.0%	55 100.0%	109 100.0%

11. IMMATURE	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason	4 7.5%	1 1.9%	5 4.8%
5 prep. future life	6 11.3%	9 17.3%	15 14.3%
8 school rules		2 3.8%	2 1.9%
10 control/suppression undesirable behav.	28 52.8%	21 40.4%	29 46.7%
12 teach desirable behav.		4 7.7%	4 3.8%
14 identify cause	4 7.5%		4 3.8%
15 increase student insight	3 5.7%		3 2.9%
16 change student beliefs/attitudes	1 1.9%	1 1.9%	2 1.9%
17 encourage/support student		2 3.8%	2 1.9%
18 other	7 13.2%	12 23.1%	19 18.1%
Total	53 100.0%	52 100.0%	105 100.0%

12. LOW-ACHIEVING	Year of Course		
Rationale	First Year	Final year	Total
0 no reason	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	2 2.0%
2 instruction	7 13.7%	15 30.6%	22 22.0%
4 his/her responsibility	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	2 2.0%
5 prep. future life	16 31.4%	5 10.2%	21 21.0%
7 morality	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	3 3.0%
14 identify cause	8 15.7%	7 14.3%	15 15.0%
17 encourage/support student	12 23.5%	16 32.7%	28 28.0%
18 other	4 7.9%	3 6.1%	7 7.0%
Total	51 100.0%	49 100.0%	100 100.0%

Appendix 6.e

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MOST POPULAR REPONSES OF FIRST AND FINAL YEAR PRESERVICE TEACHERS AND EXERIENCED TEACHERS TO PROBLEM-STUDENT TYPES CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO RATIONALES/MOTIVES AND PROBLEM OWNERSHIP

Type of Problem Student

Rat.	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1					*1* 1							
2			*2*	1		**2** *1*				*2* 1		1
3		1				1	1				*2* 1	
4	1	2		*1* 2	**2**			1	1	2		
5			**1**					**3** *3*				
6												
7		**1** *1*									**2** *1*	
8												
9												
10				**1** *1*	**1** *2* 2	**1** *2* 2	**1** *1* 2	**1** *1*		**1** *1*	**1**	
11				**2**								
12								2	2			
13										2		
14		**3** *2*					**2**			**2** *3*		
15							*2*					
16	**2** *2* 2								*2*			**2** *2*
17	**1** *1*	**2**	**2** *1*						**1** *1*			**1** *1* 2
18								**2** *2*	**2**			

Rationales/Motives

1. Overall well being/survival
2. Instruction
3. Smooth group functioning/safety
4. Problem student's responsibility
5. Preparation for future life
6. Welfare of society
7. Morality
8. School rules
9. Personal irritation
10. Control/suppression undesirable behav.
11. Shaping desirable behaviour
12. Teaching desirable behaviour
13. Teaching ways to cope with problem
14. Identifying/eliminating the cause
15. Increasing student's insight
16. Changing student's beliefs/attitudes
17. Encouraging/supporting student
18. Other

Types of Problem Student

Student-owned Problems

A. Perfectionist
B. Rejected by peers
C. Low achiever*

Teacher-owned Problems

D. Underachiever
E. Defiant
F. Passive aggressive
G. Hostile aggressive

Shared Problems

H. Immature
I. Shy/withdrawn
J. Distractible
K. Hyperactive
L. Failure syndrome

Popularity of Strategies	**Key to Teachers**
1. Most popular	First year preservice (**bold numerals**)
2. Second most popular	Final year preservice (*italicised numerals)*
3. Third most popular	Experienced (other numerals)

* Brophy & McCaslin, (1992) did not report strategies for the low achieving student.

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