

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT:
RESEARCH FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study explores classroom management tactics to help improve the academic achievement of elementary school students. Classroom management has been a primary concern for teachers since there have been teachers in the classroom. A lack of classroom management affects both the teacher and the students. Studies show that some form of intervention makes a positive impact on teachers, students, and the whole school climate. Teachers need to personally connect with each student in the classroom in order to make students feel comfortable and welcome.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Classroom management and discipline consistently rank near the top of the list of the most difficult problems first year teachers experience. Because this is true, many seasoned teachers do not sponsor student teachers for a fear of their student's test scores dropping due to the lack of classroom management.

A failure to implement effective classroom management can lead to a level of continued frustration that pushes beginning teachers to their breaking point; some of these extremely frustrated teachers end up leaving the profession all together (Durmuscelebi, 2004). In order to stunt the growth in percentage of teachers who end up leaving the profession, this paper is being written to inform teachers of different classroom management strategies as well as the research that explores classroom management and the frustrations behind being a beginning or first year teacher.

Rationale

Beginning teachers continue to feel insecure about managing their first classroom, which remains a crucial aspect of developing teacher leadership. Another anxiety for first year teachers comes from the nervousness that goes along with being placed into a leadership role where the teacher has influence and authority for the first time. If the inexperienced teacher is able to gain a basic classroom management understanding and skills, he/she will be able to reduce much of the anxieties that go along with it (Arends, 1997).

More anxiety that comes along with being a first year teacher comes from being judged and observed by fellow faculty members and administration. If the classroom management style he/she chooses to use is failing or not being implemented correctly, there is a fear of being placed on probation or even being let go at the end of the year (Arends, 1997).

Janet O'Halloran, a third grade teacher at McKenney Elementary school in Olympia, Washington, believes that setting up classroom management should be at the top of a beginning teacher's list of things to do. She has classroom rules written on a poster board that is hanging on the wall in her classroom. She found it very important and useful to go over these rules with her students many times at the beginning of the year in order to make them familiar with her expectations. Once the middle of the school year rolls around, Janet has to refer to the classroom rules less and less because the rules have become part of the student's schema.

A study conducted by McCann (2004) examined the phenomenon of "why first year teachers cry." The study was conducted by administering questionnaires to high school and elementary school teachers over a two year period to help explain the overwhelming frustrations they were facing in their first years of teaching. The findings of the study suggest that new incoming teachers have preconceived ideas about what teaching is going to be like and end up realizing their assumptions are way off course. Some of the bombardments these first year teachers were hit with were phone calls from angry parents,

continuously disrespectful students, and critical feedback from a supervisor about their lesson plans and teaching effectiveness.

Students are able to adapt to different teacher classroom management styles very easily. If students know what is expected in one classroom it doesn't mean they will behave the same way in another, because each teacher has their own specific management style. If an educator takes the steps of preparing, implementing, and consistently enforcing a management or discipline plan, students will know what is expected of them and be able to adapt to multiple styles and rules (Desiderio, 2005).

Controversies that stem from classroom management styles come from behaviorist and social constructivist views. Behaviorists center their attention on specific students in the classroom that are causing disruption; whereas, social constructivists center their attention on the entire class and strategies that will work for all of their students (Arends, 1997).

Shlomo Sharan (1990), a professor at Tel Aviv University and developer of a cooperative learning program called "Group Investigation," claims that a behaviorist view does not allow students to process information and therefore does not lead to any meaning or comprehension. Sharan (1990) purports students learn best through their own problem solving. When the learning can become personally relevant to the student is when they become invested. This investment and personal problem solving can help improve classroom management. Sharan (1990) conducted five experiments to test academic achievement at the elementary level. Students from the Group Investigation

classes generally had higher academic achievement than their peers who were taught with a whole-class method. Moreover, students who were in the Group Investigation did better on questions assessing high-level learning. Teachers who were involved in the Group Investigation expressed more positive attitudes toward their work following participation in the project. The teachers perceived their schools as having a more positive climate, and expressed less need to control their student's behavior all the time.

Grossman (1995), as cited in the book, *Classroom Behavior Management*, researched the logical consequences model and claimed that students behave more appropriately when they suffer logical consequences and the unwanted behavior will be less likely to continue. He believed that the motivation for classroom behavior was to attract attention because many students are motivated by gaining the attention from teachers or peers. His suggestion for dealing with student misbehavior was to remove the student from the class until he or she calms down. Another aspect of Grossman's (1995) model is that students can learn to understand their own motives and eliminate misbehavior by having teachers help them explore why they behave as they do.

Similar to Grossman's model of logical consequences, is an assertive discipline model explained in *Comprehensive Behavior Management* by Marchand-Martella (2012). The assertive discipline model is based on the following features: Teachers have the right to determine the environmental structure, rules, and routines that will facilitate learning, teachers have the right to insist that students conform to their standards, teachers should prepare a

discipline plan in advance that includes a statement of their expectations, rules, and routines and the type of discipline method being used if and when the students misbehave, students do not have the right to interfere with others' learning, and when the students do not behave in a manner consistent with teacher expectations, teachers can respond in one of three ways: nonassertively by surrendering to their students, hostilely by showing anger, or assertively by calmly insisting and assuming that students will fulfill these expectations.

Wilkinson (2003) examined a seven year old girl, Anna, that was exhibiting a persistent pattern of disruptive behavior in the classroom that interfered with her performance. The procedure used in the experiment was called behavioral consultation. This process contained stages that included a problem identification interview, specifying the target problem, and discussing data collection procedures. Wilkinson and Anna's teacher hypothesized that her disruptive behaviors were most likely sparked by a decrease in teacher attention during large group activities and independent seat-work. "Anna's teacher received a contract, a list of reinforcers identified by elementary aged students, and a reinforcer survey. The contract was described as a game in which Anna had the opportunity to earn rewards such as stickers, home-school notes, and preferred classroom activities" (Wilkinson, 2003). Ana's teacher was asked to choose one of these incentives based on her interests, reinforce Anna with social praise immediately after she displayed a desired behavior, and withhold reinforcement following an inappropriate response to a behavior.

Arends (1997), on the other hand, argued that problems associated with student disruptions and misbehavior are best dealt with through preventative management with a focus on how teachers gain student cooperation and how the teacher established clear rules and procedures for the whole class. Arends recognizes that there will be the occasional disruptive student; but, holds true to view the class as a whole rather than singling out one specific student by the use of positive reinforcement and rewards (Arends, 1997, pp. 40-41).

Historical Background

"It is probably no exaggeration to say that classroom management has been a primary concern of teachers ever since there have been teachers in the classroom" (Marzano, 2003). One of the first high profile studies to be done on classroom management was done by Jacob Kounin in 1970. In the study he analyzed videotapes of 49 first and second grade classrooms. Kounin coded the behavior of both the students and teachers. He found there were multiple dimensions that affect classroom management. Some of the dimensions include "with-it-ness," smoothness and momentum during lesson presentations, letting students know what behavior is expected of them at any given point in time, add variety and challenge in the seatwork assigned to students. Kounin defines "with-it-ness" as a keen awareness of disruptive behavior or potentially disruptive behavior and immediate attention to that behavior. Out of the four dimensions just discussed, Kounin considers "with-it-ness" to be the one that most consistently separates an excellent classroom manager from a mediocre to below average classroom manager (Marzano, 2003, p.4).

A second major study for the time period came from Brophy and Evertson in 1976. From the research they conducted, Brophy and Evertson wrote a book entitled *Learning from Teaching: A Developmental Perspective*. The sample in their study included 30 elementary school teachers and their students that had consistently shown better than expected progress in academic achievement. There was a comparison group that consisted of 38 teachers whose performance was considered to be average. Although Brophy and Evertson's study focused on a wide variety of teaching behaviors, classroom management happened to surface and ended up being a crucial element of effective teaching. Brophy and Evertson stated, "Much as been said in the book about our findings concerning classroom management. Probably the most important point to bear in mind is that almost all surveys of teacher effectiveness report that classroom management skills are of primary importance in determining teaching success, whether it is measured by student learning or by ratings. Thus, management skills are crucial and fundamental. A teacher who is grossly inadequate in classroom management skills is probably not going to accomplish much" (Marzano, 2003, p.5).

A series of studies done at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education in Austin, Texas also heavily influenced the beginning discoveries of the importance of classroom management. The first study included 27 elementary school teachers. The results from the elementary school study were reported by Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson in 1980. These results identified the teacher actions that are associated with student on task behavior

and disruptive behavior. One of the most significant conclusions of the study was that “early attention to classroom management at the beginning of the school year is a critical ingredient of a well-run classroom” (Marzano, 2003, p.5).

A second study conducted by Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (as cited in Marzano, 2003) was aimed at indicating the impact of training teachers in classroom management techniques. This study was based on their previous findings from the first study. In the later study “the interventions occurred at the beginning of the school year and resulted in improved teacher behavior in many, but not all, management areas and also in more appropriate student behavior in experimental group classes as compared to control group classes (Marzano, 2003, p.6). These studies paved the way for more research and practice in classroom management from the late 1980’s through the 1990’s and resulted in a book on classroom management at the elementary school level.

Due to the major studies done in the 1970’s and 1980’s, Margaret Wang, Geneva Haertel, and Herbert Walberg combined the results of three previous studies to form a comprehensive study in 1993. The first of the three studies they analyzed involved the content of 86 chapters from an annual research review, 44 handbook chapters, 20 government and commissioned reports, and 11 journal articles. With this analysis they produced a list of 228 variables that were identified to have an impact on student achievement. The second study they analyzed was a survey of 134 education experts who were asked to rate each of the 228 variables in terms of the relative strength of their impact on student achievement. The third study was an analysis of 91 major research

syntheses. The final result of their massive review was that classroom management was rated FIRST in terms of the impact it had on student's academic achievement.

Marcia Tate (2007) found that the key to classroom management is planning. Ineffective classroom managers wait until problems occur and then decide how they will deal with the situation. They are not consistent and divvy out disciplinary consequences depending on what kind of mood they are in or depending on the specific student that is caused a disruption. Tate (2007) said an ineffective teacher appears to be annoyed, frustrated, and often engage with students in power struggles in which they are destined to lose. Proactive management comes from teachers who are capable of putting proactive plans in place so that the majority of potential behavior problems don't ever occur. Because the attention span of a student is approximately their age in minutes, proactive teachers divide the content into meaningful chunks and teach each chunk by allowing students to practice what they have just learned through active engagement strategies.

Tate (2007) gives the following proactive characteristics to effective classroom managers: They lead the class by modeling the expected behaviors, they build resiliency in students by gathering and interpreting student data, developing a positive relationship with each student, they take care of behavior problems quietly and quickly, they realize that student behavior can be affected by positive physical and emotional environment, and they assist students in perceiving the value or importance of the task at hand.

Definitions

First, there needs to be a distinction made between management and discipline. Classroom management can be defined as “the arrangement of students/groupings, materials, and furniture, and the movement of these over time, moving from one large group lecture to small cooperative groups or lab tables) (Wolfgang, 2009). Management will help the day run more smoothly, along with lessons. Teachers make management plans at the beginning of the year that set out their expectations and daily norms of running a classroom. Some of the sections in a classroom management plan include guidelines for success, posted classroom rules, an attention signal, expectations for activities and transitions, encouragement procedures, beginning and end of day routines, procedures for managing student work, procedures for managing independent work periods, and corrections procedures for misbehavior (CHAMPS PLAN). Discipline, or the correction procedures for misbehavior, is only part of the many tasks a teacher has to do to manage a classroom. Discipline includes the classroom rules that the teacher and students have agreed upon, the breaking of those rules, and the consequences of breaking those rules. Much of what a teacher deals with in discipline has to do with misbehavior from a student (Arends, 1997). Discipline problems often occur due to a lack of classroom management practices, especially during transitions (Wolfgang, 2009, p 333).

Statement of Limits

This review of literature focuses on elementary aged children and references very few middle or high school aged children. Further, the studies

reviewed here focus on the effect of classroom management on academic achievement.

Statement of Purpose

Because classroom management and discipline consistently rank near the top of the list of the most difficult problems first year teachers experience, it is important for new teachers to find strategies that have been proven to work. Finding strategies that have been proven to work through previous research and studies will aid the new teacher in setting up classroom management for their own classroom. A lack of classroom management strategies for a first year teacher can affect student's test scores. Along with affecting students, a lack of classroom management skills can push a teacher to a frustration level that causes the teacher to ultimately leave the profession all together. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine the effects of different classroom management strategies on the academic achievement of elementary students.

Summary

Research about classroom management has found that teachers who have a lack of classroom management skills tend to react to disruptions in the classroom, rather than preparing and planning for them. This lack of classroom management affects both students and the teacher. Studies have shown that if teachers can get a grasp of classroom management early on in their teaching, they tend to leave the profession because of large amounts of stress (Arends, 1997). Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (as cited in Marzano, 2003), indicated that if classroom management training is set up for teachers at the beginning of

the year resulted in improved teacher and student behavior during the school year.

Controversies in classroom management strategies stem from the duel between behaviorist and social constructivist points of view. Behaviorists tend to focus attention on the individual student, whereas social constructivists tend to focus their attention on the whole group and what is the best fit for the entire group (Arends, 1997).

Previously, classroom management was described as “the arrangement of students/groupings, materials, and furniture, and the movement of these over time, moving from one large group lecture to small cooperative groups or lab tables (Wolfgang, 2009). Discipline, on the other hand, was described by Arends (1997) as the correction procedures of misbehavior in the classroom.

The following chapter discusses research studies that have been done that center around classroom management. The studies are divided into three sections based on their findings: preservice and first year teachers, challenging student behavior, and urban environments.

Research in the first section, preservice and first year teachers, found that there are many diverse factors that cause new teachers stress and frustration. All of this stress and frustration stemmed from a lack of classroom management practices and even led some teachers to leave the teaching profession all together. The next section, challenging student behavior, found that some form of intervention is necessary to implement with students who express disruptive behavior and in these studies there is a lack of classroom management

strategies to combat the disruptive behavior of students. The third section, urban environments, looks at the effects of classroom management in urban environments around the United States. The studies found that there are multiple strategies to use with students in an urban environment and it is important for teachers to take the time to get to know their students on a personal level in these urban areas.

CHAPTER 2: CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter one discussed the implications a teacher might face if there is a lack of classroom management. Where most researchers find their divide is between a behaviorist or constructivist world view. Early studies show that if a beginning teacher can develop good classroom management skills he/she will be able to reduce much of the anxieties that go along with being an inexperienced teacher. Early studies, such as the one done by Kounin (1970), show that a teacher who possesses with-it-ness will be more prepared for classroom management issues

The following chapter reviews 30 studies about classroom management and is divided into three sections. The first section, preservice and beginning teachers, surveys the challenges that all new teachers face and makes suggestions about how to be proactive in taking care of these issues. The second section, challenging student behavior, examines the influence of intervention strategies for students who are displaying disruptive behavior, and found that some form of intervention had a positive impact on disruptive students. The third section, urban environments, discusses the implications of teaching in an urban environment and the importance of getting to know all students on a personal level.

Preservice and Beginning Teachers

The following eight studies analyzed the influence and impact that first year teachers and teachers in their first couple years had on students, and the impact

that students and the stress of classroom management had on these new teachers. Desiderio (2005) did a dual study to determine whether or not students could adapt to two different teachers' behavior management styles and found that the students had no trouble adapting to both styles. Kalis (2007) studied the effectiveness of self management for increasing the rate of teacher praise for preservice teachers and found that extending the use of self reflection to increase classroom management was effective. Sempowicz (2011) investigated mentoring practices used to guide preservice teachers' classroom management and found that the supportive, reflective, constructive mentor teacher prepared the preservice teacher with confidence going into the first year of teaching. Martin (1996) studies how beginning teachers are different from experienced teachers as far as preconceptions about classroom management was concerned and found that beginning teachers have unrealistic expectations about what classroom management will be like. Stewart (1997) analyzed the factors of an instructional environment that have the biggest impact on student success and found that a sense of humor and confidence increased the first year teacher's positive responses to students and parents. McCann (2004) studied the reasons that new teachers cry and found that there was a huge discrepancy between the teacher's expectations of the teaching experience and the actual experience. Sandholtz (2011) researched the degree to which preservice teachers focused on instruction or classroom management and found that 78% focused on their classroom instruction rather than classroom management. Tal (2010) analyzed the usefulness of case studies in teacher training and the insights that are related

to improved teacher training and found that the classroom course proved to be a helpful learning tool. Overall, these studies found that there were many diverse factors that caused extreme stress for new teachers; and some of these stress factors caused new teachers to leave the teaching profession altogether. The main factors that drove new teachers away from the profession were related to a lack in classroom management skills.

Desiderio (2005) did an ethnographic study to determine whether or not young students would be able to adapt to two different teachers with different behavior management styles by observing student behavior while a preservice teacher and her mentor teacher taught class on five different occasions and found that students were able to adjust to each teacher's management style. Katherine, a preservice teacher in a first grade elementary school classroom, implemented assertive discipline in the classroom throughout her student teaching period. Katherine documented her assertive discipline plan through self reflection and also received evaluations from her mentor teaching four times over the total of 12 weeks in student teaching. A researcher, who was trained in teacher evaluation, observed student behaviors while Katherine and her mentor teacher taught class on five different occasions.

Desiderio (2005) found that preservice teachers, when trained in assertive discipline, reported being better prepared and more confident in dealing with students that had inappropriate behavior. Desiderio (2005) also mentioned that a generalized claim can not be made from the research that was gathered. Instead, the individual must read the data and decide for themselves whether or

not their own style resembles that of what Katherine used while teaching. Transferability will depend on the specific teacher and the students in the classroom. The study did not include an outside third party to review any of the data and material collected by the initial researcher.

Kalis (2007) studied the effectiveness of self management for increasing the rates of teacher praise and the acceptability of using the technique with preservice teachers, conducted through an informal blind observation, and found extending the use of self reflection to increase classroom management was effective. Grace, a 24 year old married woman who is in her first year of teaching, was selected after being observed. The researcher chose her because of her low levels of the use of praise in the classroom.

The study occurred in a self contained adaptive behavior classroom for students who were labeled EBD (emotional behavior disorder) in a large urban public school in the southern United States. An average of five students and one paraprofessional were in the room with the teacher. Observations were done in a basic math class, four boys and one girl, of these students there were three African American students and two Caucasian students.

Timed, controlled, and scripted direct instruction (DI) lessons were used to ensure consistency in instructional time. Fixed opportunities were also provided for student responses and the students were encouraged to actively participate in the lesson. The main variable in the study was praise. Praise was defined as verbal or physical behaviors indicating the positive quality of a behavior over and above the evaluation of accuracy. Statements such as “right” and “ok” were not

considered praise statements. Behavior specific praise was defined by the study as verbal praise for a desired student behavior specified in the praise statement such as “I like the way Michael is sitting quietly in his chair.” The independent variable in the study was recognized as self monitoring. Self monitoring was done when a participant identified the target behavior that occurred, and then recorded the praise statement on the hand held counter.

Kalis (2007) found that the use of self-monitoring increased the effectiveness of teacher practice, namely praise. Results concluded an overall effect size of .923, which indicated a strong impact on rates of praise. This study showed promise for using self monitoring in other areas of teaching and learning. Self monitoring was shown to be useful as a non-intrusive intervention, easy to implement, allows for immediate feedback, and changed teacher behavior. Kalis’ (2007) research used environmental control which led to reliability in the study; however, there was no third party observer to see over the research data and materials. To establish social validity on the use of praise and the use of self-monitoring to increase praise statements, the observer conducted postintervention interviews with the subject. Informal assessments of student grades from both before and after the intervention were also collected.

Sempowicz (2011) investigated mentoring practices used to guide the preservice teacher’s classroom management by directly observing interactions between the mentor and preservice teacher and audio-recorded teaching episodes, and found that the supportive, reflective, constructive mentor teacher prepared the preservice teacher with the confidence to teach in her first year.

Anna, a 19 year old college student in her 2nd year, was in her first field experience at a practicum site with her mentor teacher. Anna's mentor teacher, Grace, had 20 years of teaching experience, had mentored eight preservice teachers in the past, and taught at seven different primary schools. A meeting a week prior to Anna's start date in the classroom with Grace was conducted. A single researcher was in the classroom to observe using multiple sources of evidence and analysis on the attributes and practices associated with the mentor teacher's model of teaching. Sources of evidence included: five direct observations of video recorded dialogues, eight informal audio recorded sessions, seven audio recorded teaching sessions, six formal mentee-written lesson plans and fifteen written reflections, three "Feedback on Teaching" evaluations completed by the mentor, four formal written lesson observations by the researcher, a formal interview with the mentee and then the mentor, and the mentee's interim and final field studies reports.

The findings for this research indicated that the mentor teacher was supportive of the mentee by providing quality time to talk and listen to the mentee on developing classroom management practices. This support instilled the mentee with confidence in her teaching and indicated that the mentor teacher was prepared to cater to the development of the mentees classroom management practices in positive and constructive ways. Some of the strengths of this research were the questioning strategies used for providing feedback and self assessment for the mentee. Questions such as "What worked well?, What didn't work well?, What would you change for future lessons?," were used to

provide the feedback. The study did not include an outside third party to review any of the data and material collected by the initial researcher. Further research can include using this model for exploring other specific pedagogical knowledge practices such as planning, teaching strategies, preparation, questioning skills, and assessment. Further research is also needed to understand how an effective mentor can facilitate the development of the mentee's teacher-student relationships and what practices are most effective in instilling confidence and positive attitudes towards teaching.

Martin (1996) analyzed how beginning teachers are different from experienced teachers in their preconceptions of classroom management by providing both the beginning teacher and experienced teacher with questionnaires, and found that beginning teachers have unrealistic expectations regarding how to effectively manage their classrooms. College students were drawn from education courses in a midsized, regional university in the southern United States. There were 107 participants, 40% which were inexperienced teachers and 60% which were experienced. About 92% of these teachers were female, 85% were Caucasian and the remaining 15% were African American. The teachers ranged in age from 19-61. The average age of inexperienced teachers was 27 years old, and the average age of an experienced teacher was 37 years old. An inexperienced teacher was defined as someone with no teaching experience. Previous research has shown that teachers need at least 3 years of experience before they become expert problem solvers and managers.

Information regarding teacher classroom management beliefs was collected using items from the Inventory of Classroom Management Style (ICMS). The questionnaire represented three approaches to classroom interaction: non-interventionist, interventionist, and interactionalist. The non-interventionist proposes that the child has an inner drive that needs to find its expression in the real world. At the opposite end of the spectrum are interventionists who emphasize what the outer environment does to shape development in the child. Half way between these are interactionalists who focus on what the individual does to modify the environment, as well as what the environment does to shape the individual.

Analysis of variance was used to determine differences on classroom management style between inexperienced and experienced teachers. Significant differences were determined for three scales measured in the questionnaire. Inexperienced teachers scored significantly less interventionist than experienced teachers on the psychosocial environment dimension, $F(1,104)= 5.61$; $p=.0197$, and significantly more interventionist on both the instructional management, $F(1,1103) =4.18$; $p=.0433$, and communication dimensions, $F(1,104)= 4.20$; $p=.043$. No significant difference was determined regarding the Setting a Classroom Structure dimension, $F(1,104)=.1095$; $p=.7414$. These results indicate that inexperienced teachers may have unrealistic expectations of how to effectively manage their classrooms. The fact that inexperienced teachers scored more interventionist in dimensions reflects that they may overly rely on teacher control and survival skills to manage children. Regardless of experience

level, elementary school teachers seem to have a consistent approach to setting a classroom structure, which includes seating arrangements, rules, and allocating materials.

Stewart (1997) studied the factors of an instructional environment that have the biggest impact on student success by directly observing a first year teacher in the first couple weeks of the school year and found that a sense of humor and confidence increased the first year teacher's positive responses to students and parents. A single researcher sat in on the classroom and observed the teacher and her interactions with students for the first two weeks of the school year. Ms. Darling, the first year teacher that was observed, had a class of thirty 4th grade students. She became a yeller after only 10 days in her first year of teaching and went home each night after school feeling tired and upset. She did self reflections for 30 days straight and all she was able to come up with were negative events. She was asked to make some general goals of what she wanted to accomplish by the end of the year and then sat down to write up a classroom management plan. With help from a veteran teacher, Ms. Darling recorded reflections for the next week that included both positive and negative events in the classroom.

Stewart (1997) found that there was an improved awareness of positive classroom events and steps towards adjusting teacher behavior in order to increase positive responses to students and parents. Effective educational environments are the result of careful planning and constant refinement. Stewart (1997) also found that the use of humor and having confidence in a student's

abilities improved positive responses towards students and their parents. This study and the findings made extremely general assertions and there was a lack of qualitative academic language used in the study as a whole.

McCann (2004) researched the reasons that new teachers cry by interviewing and having phone conversations with eleven first year teachers, at the high school and elementary school level, over a two year period, and found that there was a huge discrepancy between the teacher's expectations of the teaching experience and the actual experience.

During the interviews, McCann (2004) asked two central questions to the first year teachers. Teachers were asked, (1) what are the significant frustrations that could influence beginning teacher to leave the profession, and (2) what supports, resources, and preparations influence beginning teachers to remain in the profession? Researchers under McCann's guidance interviewed, had audio taped conversations, and talked over the phone. After these interviews, researchers asked three outside readers to view the transcribed interviews to check for any causes of stress, any methods for coping with the stress, and any preparation or support that the beginning teachers received. Getting outside readers to view the transcribed interviews added a third party perspective, which helped strengthen the study.

One particular case of a first year 5th grade teacher, Clara, possessed qualities that researchers suspected may cause a teacher to leave the profession. Clara entered the classroom in her first year and thought she was prepared to meet classroom management challenges. She had taken education

classes where she learned different classroom management strategies, and also got ideas from her mentor teacher. These strategies failed her in the classroom. Clara was confused and expected these strategic interventions to solve the problems. Clara got frustrated because she knew, as a teacher, that she should expect to encounter challenging groups of students in the classroom at some point; however, she felt as if she was entering a classroom every day where students were unmanageable and nothing she did was effective in governing them.

McCann (2004) and his researchers found that there was a discrepancy between what beginning teachers expected in their teaching experience and what the actual experience was like. Three stressful incidents that come highly unexpected by beginning teachers are an unruly class, a phone call from an angry parent, and a supervisor's critical assessment of a lesson. Clara expressed her frustration and said, "I knew what I was supposed to be doing. I thought I knew how to do it, but their behavior was so poor. I had a real hard time dealing with it, especially that week and weeks after, because I had no experiences, no nothing. It was like, ok, figure it out. Get some control and figure out how to do this, but it was a shocker" (McCann, 2004). Clara's frustration resulted from the contrast between her initial beliefs of how to manage a class and the subsequent discovery that none of her classroom management strategies worked.

Sandholtz (2011) researched the degree to which preservice teachers focus on instruction or classroom management by observing 290 preservice teachers

in a masters degree program and their interactions with students in the classroom, and found that 78% focused on their classroom instruction rather than classroom management. In this study, a researcher observed the key interactions between the teacher and students in the classroom. There were 290 students enrolled over a five year period in a combined teacher credential and masters degree program at a public university in southern California. Of these 290 students, 87% were females, 13% were males, 59% were Caucasian, 23% Latino, 15% Asian Pacific Islander, 2% African American, and 1% other. Sixty-seven percent of the students were preparing to teach at the elementary level and 24% were preparing to teach at the secondary level. The program was designed to be completed over a 12 month period for candidates to link theory and practice. Candidates began field experiences early in the program and had to complete 70 hours in a practicum classroom before moving on to student teaching in the next school year. Students completed as assignment that asked them to “describe a teaching experience that you would handle the same way again” and to “describe a teaching experience that you would handle differently if you could.” The assignment also asked students to explain their reasoning.

Sandholtz (2011) found that when describing a teaching experience that students would handle the same way again, the preservice teachers overwhelmingly focused on instruction. Only 12% of the total group focused on experiences that included classroom management. When describing an experience that they would handle differently, close to 75%, again, focused on

instruction. Over the 5 year period, only 21 out of 290 prospective teachers focused on classroom management for both prompts.

A strength of this study is how the academic language is defined. Classroom management is defined as the process of establishing and maintaining an environment in which instruction and learning can occur. Classroom management focuses on the actions and strategies teachers use to solve the problem of order in classrooms. The study defines effective teachers as the ability to think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.

Tal (2010) analyzed the usefulness of case studies in teacher training and the insights that are related to improved teacher training by observing 34 second-year preservice teachers, enrolled in a classroom management course, in their placements and found that the classroom management course proved to be a helpful learning tool.

In the study there were 34 cases documented by students in their second year of college, in a four year program, in a classroom management course taught by Tal (2010) in the spring of 2008 in Israel. Students had to keep a journal throughout the semester that documented classroom management events in their field placement. Students were asked to write down their overall effectiveness of their coping strategies to these classroom management issues. After documenting one episode of classroom management struggles, they were required to document a second episode that demonstrated improved coping with the issue in similar circumstances. Finally, they were asked to compare the two events and draw conclusions.

Tal (2010) found that later reflection upon analyzed materials by teachers, or preservice teachers, proved to be a helpful tool in learning how everyday situations are perceived and dealt with by preservice teachers. The study defined classroom management as a meta-skill that integrates cognitive perceptions, self regulation skills, and interpersonal relationships with students and colleagues. Another strength of the study included a third party analyzer that observed in the classroom, observed teachers in the program, and also observed the preservice teachers.

Overall, these studies found that there is a huge discrepancy between what preservice teachers think teaching is, and how it end up being. It has also been found that providing a course on classroom management for preservice teachers was a helpful tool. Because beginning teachers are so focused on their instruction in the classroom, they are not taking as much time to concentrate on classroom management which can cause many of these beginning teachers to be under large amounts of stress. In order to lessen these stresses in the first few years, it is important for teachers to be self reflective.

Challenging Student Behavior

The previous section analyzed the influence and impact that first year teachers and teachers in the first couple years had on students, and the impact that students and the stress of classroom management had on these new teachers. The following thirteen studies looked at challenging student behavior in the classroom, intervention methods to deal with these disruptive behaviors, and a lack of classroom management strategies to lessen these behaviors. Fowler

(2011) examined the effects of different discipline strategies on the academic achievement of elementary students and found that through zero tolerance schools, youth who were disciplined or court involved were at an increased risk of dropping out and becoming involved in the juvenile justice system. Wilkinson (2003) analyzed how support personnel integrated research and practice in school based behavioral consultation and found that establishing a school based behavioral consultation was an effective method for providing intervention services to teachers and students. Reinke (2008) explored the implementation of a classroom Check-Up, plus visual performance feedback and found that all the classrooms observed had higher rates of classroom disruptions than praise and therefore, had increased the level in which they felt the intervention was effective. Ornelles (2007) researched the effects of a structured intervention on the engagement and initiations of three children identified as “at-risk” and found an increased engagement and increased initiations during the intervention conditions. Nowacek (2007) analyzed the understanding of elementary school teachers about the characteristics of students with Attention Hyper Deficit Disorder and found that middle school teachers knew key characteristics associated with ADHD and were able to implement classroom management strategies based on the characteristics. Tidwell (2003) explored how schools provided support to students with behavior problems who required special education services and found that teachers were more willing to deal with problem behaviors in their own classrooms when students were younger; but, as they get older, teachers may be more likely to send students to the office

because they feel students should know behavioral expectations. Erdogan (2010) studied classroom management and discipline problems in an Information Technology classroom and found that the primary classroom management issues were a lack of motivation, rule breaking, ineffective time management, and a lack of classroom interaction. Scott (2000) researched the effect of intervention, monitoring and assessment for students in the classroom and found that each student responded differently to intervention. Evertson (1989) explored the effectiveness of a research based classroom management program implemented at the beginning of the year and found that the treatment group had significantly better results in the assessment areas. Sutherland (2005) analyzed the teacher-reported professional development needs and differences in reported needs between fully licensed and emergency-licensed teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders and found that teachers of students with EBD perceive limitations in their ability to provide academic instruction to their students, and this perception was greatly multiplied for the less experienced emergency-licensed teachers. Baker (2002) studied how inquiry based classroom management could be implemented into an elementary school classroom based on differing student needs and found that the inquiry based classroom presents the teacher with added challenges and required them to modify activities to meet all student needs. Durmuscelebi (2010) researched the differences in state primary schools and private primary schools according to determined misbehavior and found there is no significant relationship. Arbuckle (2004) analyzed middle year teacher's perceptions and management of

disruptive classroom behavior and found that there was a significant negative correlation between teacher's confidence in classroom management strategies and the use of referral strategies for male students. Overall, these studies found that some form of intervention is necessary to implement with students who express disruptive behavior and in these studies there is a lack of classroom management strategies to combat the disruptive behavior of students.

Fowler (2011) researched the effects of different discipline strategies on the academic achievement of elementary students by directly observing schools in Texas and retrieving data from administration and juvenile detention centers, and found that through zero tolerance schools, youth who were disciplined or court involved were at increased risk of dropping out and becoming involved in the juvenile justice system.

Fowler (2011) found that holding all other risk factors statistically constant, students involved in one or more disciplinary incidents were 23.4 times more likely to be referred to the juvenile justice system. Each additional disciplinary infraction increased that likelihood by 1.5%, and each day a student was suspended from school increased the probability of referral to the justice system by 0.1%. Out of the 412 Texas school districts in the study, pipeline research identified 211 Texas school districts disproportionately referring African American students. In Texas and nationally, high school dropouts constitute a large percentage of inmates in juvenile and adult prisons. Wide variation in disciplinary referral rates between school districts suggests that where a student attends

school, and not the nature of the offense, determines the likelihood of disciplinary action.

Wilkinson (2003) analyzed how support personnel integrate research and practice in school based behavioral consultation by conducting three consultation interviews with an elementary school teacher to find out what behaviors were most troublesome, which happened most often, and to what level the behaviors were happening, and found that establishing a school based behavioral consultation was an effective method for providing intervention services to teachers and students.

In Wilkinson's (2003) study, the subject was a seven year old girl, Ana, who was in the first grade and who demonstrated a consistent pattern of disruptive behavior that interfered with her classroom performance. Some of the problems that came about were frequent off task behavior, arguing and fighting with peers, temper tantrums, and refusal to follow the classroom rules. Ana's teacher decided to meet with a child study team to assist with the development, implementation, and monitoring of classroom interventions with Ana. The teacher had eight years of experience teaching in the first grade. Three interviews were held with Ana's teacher that ranged from 45-10 minutes each. A Problem Identification Interview (PII) was conducted in the initial consultation to specify the target problem and discuss data collection procedures. Interview questions included: (a) Which behaviors are most problematic? (b) How often does the behavior occur, how long does it last, and in what settings does it occur? (c) What are Ana's strengths and adaptive behavior? (d) What would be

an acceptable level of the behavior? and (e) What would be the best way to keep track of Ana's problem behavior? Ana's teacher collected direct behavioral observations. Inappropriate actions such as making noise, hitting, fighting, inattention, out-of-seat without permission, and disturbing others were included under the global category of "disruptive behavior." A paraprofessional was in the room to assist with instruction and facilitate observation and recording. Data was collected in 10 second intervals for 15 minutes per observation session.

Wilkinson (2003) found that Ana's T-scores on the Social Problems syndrome scale decreased from 79 to 66; Attention Problems T-scores fell from 75 to 62; and Aggressive Behavior syndrome scale T-scores decreased from 85 to 65, all declining one or more standard deviations to the normal range of functioning. According to Wilkinson (2003) the findings of this study were consistent with previous studies that established school-based behavioral consultation as an effective method of providing intervention to teachers and students. The study used a third party observer, the para-professional, which was a strength of the study, and also referenced previous studies that aligned with the findings of this one. A weakness in the study was the lack of definitions. Academic language was used such as disruptive behavior, aggressive behavior, and social problems, in which none of them were specifically defined in the study. Limitations of the study include the possibility that events other than the treatment plan may have influenced Ana's behavior, the downward trend in Ana's disruptive behavior during baseline and treatment implementation. In the research, it is not known whether the positive changes in behavior would have occurred even without

treatment. Replication is required to generalize these findings to other students with behavioral challenges.

Reinke (2008) explored whether or not the implementation of a classroom Check-Up, plus visual performance feedback would increase teacher implementation of classroom management strategies, by conducting a ten-minute direct observation frequency count of teacher and student dependent variables that involved four white elementary school teachers in the Pacific Northwest. He found that all the classrooms observed had higher rates of classroom disruptions than praise; therefore, had increased the level in which they felt the intervention was effective.

Participants in Reinke's (2008) study, one first grade, two second grade, and one third grade teacher, were selected for participation based on their request for support with classroom management skills and procedures. Teacher experience ranged from 5-25 years. A single subject, multiple baseline design was used across the classrooms to determine the functional relationship between variables. The study was conducted in the Northwest Region of the United States in two different elementary schools. The dependent variables for this investigation included two teacher variables: occurrences of teacher praise (both behavior specific and general praise) and occurrences of teacher reprimands. One student variable was the occurrence of student disruptive behavior. A ten-minute direct observation frequency count of teacher and student dependent variables was done on a daily basis in each classroom. Data collection always occurred during the same time period and classroom topic. All behaviors were

counted simultaneously throughout the observation using the real time Multi-Option Observation System for Experimental Studies.

Reinke (2008) found that all classrooms had higher rates of classroom disruptions than praise. The mean rate of praise delivered to classroom students during the follow-up period for the first teacher was 1.17, with a range of 0.08-1.80. The mean rate of praise delivered to classroom students during the follow-up period for the second teacher was 2.53, with a range of 1.60-3.30. Classroom teacher three delivered praise to classroom students at a mean rate of 3.53, with a range of 2.00-5.70. Classroom teacher four had a mean rate of praise of 2.40, with a range of 1.90-2.90. Prior to intervention teachers varied in their response to how effective they believed the intervention should be in their classroom. Upon completion, all teachers, except the teacher who had reported the highest level at baseline, had increased the level in which they felt the intervention to be effective.

When collecting follow up data on the maintenance of behavioral changes, Reinke visited the classrooms one month after the interventions. This was the only time data was collected after the intervention. There were no other instances of data collection later on in the school year. Researchers spent unequal amounts of time in each classroom while collecting the follow-up data. Three days of data collection were spent in three participating classrooms, and only two days were spent in one participating classroom.

Several steps were taken to monitor procedural integrity during the study. First, consultants completed a fidelity checklist during teacher interviews and

feedback sessions to ensure the intervention occurred as intended. Another step, taken to ensure procedural integrity, was to have every teacher interview and feedback session audiotaped. Finally, interobserver reliability was conducted and calculated for the evaluation of procedural integrity by independent researchers.

Ornelles (2007) researched the effects of a structured intervention on the engagement and initiations of three children identified as “at-risk” for school difficulty by the use of a questionnaire given to teachers with “at-risk” students and found an increased engagement and increased initiations during the intervention conditions. Three first grade students were chosen for the study from an urban public school. The majority of the school’s population was African American (75%), Hispanic (9.4%), and Asian (6.8%). A multiple baseline design across students was used to test the effectiveness of the intervention in bringing about student behavior changes. Participant selection was based on two criteria: a low score on the school district's kindergarten checklist, and teacher-reported concerns. Their scores on the kindergarten checklist ranged from 52 to 71 (average scores range from 80 to 90). The teacher reported that the three participants had difficulties engaging in classroom activities, contributing to classroom discussions, and completing assigned projects. The teacher also noted that the three were frequently absent. The target behaviors for these students were engagement and initiations. Engagement was defined as on-task behavior. Examples of engagement are participating in small and large group discussions, working independently, with a peer, or with the teacher on

an academic task, and contributing or attempting to contribute to group discussions.

Data was collected on 6 children, the three participants and their three typical peers, over 21 weeks for the aspects of engagement, initiations, and initiations resulting in interactions. The three participants were observed once a week during a 1-hr science period. There were four 10-min time sampling segments in the hour: Three of these segments were committed to collecting data on a participant and one segment to collecting data on one of the typical peers. Thus there were three 10-min time samples for each of the participants and one 10-min time sample for a typical peer. Each 10-minute time sample consisted of 20 observation intervals. Each interval was 30 seconds in duration with 15 seconds of observation and 15 seconds of recording. Data was averaged for peers to generate a representative mean level of performance.

Ornelles (2007) found that all three students demonstrated increases in engagement during the intervention conditions. These increases remained for the duration of the study. Student #1's engagement increased from a mean of 13.2% during baseline to 54.4% during intervention and to 82.5% during the maintenance phase. Student #2 increased from a mean of 5.2% during baseline to 52.4% during intervention to 87.5% during the maintenance phase. Student #3's engagement increased from a mean of 8.8% during baseline to 76.5% during intervention and to 72.6% during the maintenance phase. The mean percentage for comparison peers on this variable was 81.7%. The data showed increased engagement and increased initiations to peers for all three students. In

addition, participants experienced a higher percentage of peer response after implementation of the intervention.

Although data for this study reflected a correlation between initiations and peer responding, repeated attempts alone may be insufficient to solicit peer responses. In addition to increasing the number of attempts made by participants, future researchers could explore the nature and quality of the attempts that are made. By addressing these kinds of questions, researchers will be enabled to gain insights on students' effectiveness in their sustaining reciprocal interactions. Did students adjust their style or mode of initiation to their peers? Exploring questions like this may reveal whether students can develop the ability to draw from a repertoire of approaches to increase the probability of positive peer responses. Increases in peer responding can have other effects on a student. Positive peer responding can be reinforcing and support future student initiations and positive perceptions about oneself and about school (Ornelles, 2007).

Nowacek (2007) analyzed the understanding of elementary school teachers about the characteristics of students with Attention Deficit Hyper Disorder (ADHD) and what academic and behavioral modifications they implemented for these learners by administering interviews to two elementary school teachers and two middle school teachers with a combined 39 years of teaching experience and found that middle school teachers knew key characteristics associated with ADHD and were able to implement classroom management strategies.

Teachers were selected based on the following criteria: they were identified by their principal as being effective, had at least five years teaching experience, and were currently teaching students with ADHD. Ms. Bradley, an educator for over 11 years, taught second grade. With five out of 21 students in her class identified as having ADHD and only one special education teacher in the school, she reported that she experienced little external support. Mr. Campbell was a sixth grade teacher who had been teaching for 28 years. He and one other sixth grade teacher shared responsibility for the 50 sixth-grade students to whom Mr. Campbell taught science, social studies, math, and physical education. At the time of the study, he had four students identified with ADHD. Patricia Rossford, a third grade educator, spent most of her 20 years as a teacher working in an elementary school. During the study, five out of 24 students were identified with ADHD. Sandy Wilson, a fourth-grade teacher, had completed 25 years as an elementary school teacher. At the time of the study, one out of 17 of her students were identified to have ADHD. After the interviews were conducted, observations were done. The following questions made up the interview with teachers: (1) What does the term ADHD mean to you? (2) What characteristics do you associate with students identified as having ADHD? (3) What modifications other than academic modifications do you make in your classroom for students identified as having ADHD? (4) What academic modifications do you make in your classroom for students identified as having ADHD? (5) (asked of middle grades teachers only): What resources are available to you here to work with students with ADHD? (6) (asked of middle

grades teachers only): What types of decisions do you make as a team? (7) How do you promote acceptance of all students? Give specific examples (Nowacek, 2007).

Researchers found that middle grade educators knew key characteristics associated with ADHD. Specifically, they indicated that students with ADHD experienced difficulty in three areas: attention, hyperactivity, and distractibility. They identified difficulty coming to attention and difficulty paying attention as characteristics and commented on the unproductive movement often associated with students with ADHD (Nowecek, 2007).

Findings among elementary school teachers were not vocalized in this study. The study never mentioned how many researchers were involved with the interviews and observations. There was a plural pronoun used, “we,” to describe who was observing and conducting the interviews. The researchers conducted one long-depth interview with each teacher that may have limited reliability. All participants taught in a rural or small community; therefore, these findings may not be generalized to other settings, including larger or more urban communities. Even though all of the participants in the study had attended some recent in-service activities regarding students with special needs, only three of the eight teachers has more in-depth instruction in special education.

Tidwell (2003) explored how schools provide support to students with behavioral problems who require special education services by comparing reported discipline referrals from 16 elementary schools from Oregon and Hawaii and found that teachers are more willing to deal with problem behaviors in their

own classrooms when students are younger; but, as students get older, teachers may be more likely to send students to the office because they feel students should know behavioral expectations.

Seven of the 16 schools' enrollments ranged from 400-600 students. The number of teachers at each school ranged from 8.3 to 66.5. The average number of teachers in a school was 21.9. The range of the student population eligible for free and reduced lunch was 19.7% to 95.5%, with a mean of 48.4%. The percentage of students provided special education services ranged from 7.3% to 30.9%, with the mean of 13.2%. The average daily student attendance ranged from 91.0% to 96.6%, with a mean of 94.4%. The total number of suspensions and expulsions ranged from zero to 39, with a mean of 8.9, and the number of classroom discipline referrals per hundred students ranged from 2.7 to 51.1, with a mean of 20.9.

Classroom discipline referrals from the 16 schools were compared across type of behavior, administrative decision, month, and grade level.

Defiance/disrespect and fighting were the two most frequent behaviors resulting in an office discipline referral. Office discipline referrals for defiance/disrespect occurred an average of 9.08 (range = 1.01 to 30.94) and was the highest occurring behavior per hundred students in 15/16 schools. For fighting, the mean was 3.67 referrals (range = .22 to 8.97). Means and ranges for additional behaviors referred included disruption, with an average of 2.23 (range = .00 to 9.76), inappropriate language, with an average of 1.64 referrals (range = .00 to 3.42), harassment, with an average of 1.36 (range = .00 to 5.13), forgery/theft,

with an average of 1.18 (range = .00 to 4.48), vandalism, with an average of .22 (range = .00 to 1.35), and property damage, with an average of .18 (range = .00 to .66) (Tidwell, 2003).

Fourteen of the 16 schools reported the use of a conference with students, and for 10 schools this administrative decision was in their top three most used decision. Loss of privileges occurred in 14 schools and had the highest average of office discipline referrals associated with it (4.25 per 100 students; range = .00 to 19.92). Parent contact was used by 15 schools, and averaged 4.17 (range = 0.0 to 15.7) as an administrative decision per 100 students. Having a conference with the student had an average occurrence per 100 students of 3.70 (range = .00 to 12.56). The use of in-school suspension averaged 1.16 (range = .00 to 3.49) whereas out of school suspension occurred as an administrative decision for office discipline referrals from the classroom with an average of 1.21 (range = .00 to 4.88). Both detention and time in office occurred in 10 schools, and averaged 2.04 (range = .00 to 7.27) and 1.38 (range = .00 to 8.20), respectively. Individualized instruction occurred in 9 of the 16 schools, and averaged .28 (range = .00 to 1.80). Other Administrative Decisions occurred an average of 1.68 per 100 students (range = 0 to 13.30) (Tidwell, 2003).

The data from the 16 schools showed that fourth and fifth grade students had higher numbers of referrals. It is possible that teachers are more willing to deal with problem behaviors in their own classrooms when students are younger, but, as students get older, teachers may be more likely to send students to the office

because they feel students should know behavioral expectations and the consequences for unacceptable behaviors.

One limitation of the study was the sample size and composition of the students. Because classroom behaviors resulting in office discipline referral data were taken from only 16 schools from two states, to generalize the results to other schools and states is limited. During the time of the study, the number of students per grade was not available, so the data were not adjusted across the schools. Further research is necessary to determine if the pattern of office discipline referrals is different at the higher grade levels. Also, the schools represented only three districts that were participating in an ongoing school-wide PBS project. Finally, all schools were elementary schools, so the findings can not be generalized to middle or high school settings.

Erdogan (2010) studied classroom management and discipline problems in an Information Technology (IT) classroom by administering interviews to 17 family members whose children or sibling took an IT course, 14 IT teachers, and 14 schools principals and vice principals and found that the primary classroom management issues were a lack of motivation, rule breaking, ineffective time management, and lack of classroom interaction.

Three different, semi-structured interviews were set up with family members, teachers, and principals, which were developed for the study, based on informal interviews with two faculty members who were in the process of teaching a classroom management course in the IT department. The interviews were also based on the analysis of the theoretical and empirical literature on classroom

management. During the individual interviews, the participants were asked to indicate the discipline problems in the IT classes, and the possible reasons of and solutions to these problems (Erdogan, 2010). The specific interview questions were not available for viewing through the online research.

Based on the information gathered from interviews, Erdogan (2010) found that the possible problems of IT teachers associated with classroom management were a lack of motivation, rule and routines breaking, lack of infrastructure, ineffective time management, classroom environment, and lack of classroom interaction. The discipline problems and misbehaviors that teachers encountered in IT classes were mainly related to off-task behavior, noisy talking, walking aimlessly, and inappropriate use of classroom materials. The possible reasons behind classroom management problems and students' discipline problems were the nature and status of the course in the curriculum, classroom environment, crowded classrooms and lack of software, lack of rules, home environment and parents' attitudes, teachers' inefficiency in classroom management and students' attitude. The possible solutions to these problems proposed by the participants were increasing teachers' pedagogical and subject area knowledge, re-framing the nature of IT course in the curriculum, using activities that facilitate motivation, using software programs that help control the wrong computer usage, effective managing the IT classes, giving punishment, ignoring, investigating the reasons of the problem, establishing rules, contacting the parent and cooperating with other groups of teachers in the school.

One of the limitations of this study was the sample size. With only 14 schools represented from the study, the findings can not be generalized. The study did not use a third party perspective to look over the process.

Scott (2000) researched the effect of intervention, monitoring and assessment for the target students as well as other students in the classroom by observing the reinforcement of specific replacement behaviors for three elementary students and found that each student responded differently to intervention.

Scott's (2000) research involved three student interventions. In each case, the interventions involved teaching and reinforcing specific replacement behaviors that were identified through a functional behavior assessment. In each of the case studies presented, a student teacher was responsible for all assessment, intervention, and monitoring for the target student as well as all other students in the classroom during that time. In the first case study, Lou was a 4th-grade student who was identified as having a specific learning disability in written language. He went to the resource room daily for language arts and was monitored for writing in his regular classroom. During independent work times he avoided work on writing assignments, preferring instead to play with his papers, tearing, drawing on, and often losing assignments. When pushed, Lou rushed through an assignment, forgetting his name, writing sloppily, and producing poor work. In the second case study, Andy was a 6th-grade student identified as learning disabled in several areas who also received services for speech and was noted to have slow motor skills and awkward movements. With a full-scale IQ of 83, Andy attended a special

education resource room for math, science, social studies, reading, and language arts, while attending mainstreamed elective classes. Andy's problem behaviors were labeled as "off task"; they included behaviors such as being out of his seat, talking to peers, and otherwise not following the teacher's directions. In the third case study, Jake was a 3rd-grade student identified as learning disabled who attended the resource room two hours each day. His challenging behaviors included stomping feet, tapping his hands on the desk, making popping noises in his mouth, and talking without permission. These behaviors were problematic because they prevented Jake from completing his assigned tasks and disturbed other students in the classroom.

Scott (2000) found that with the onset of intervention, Lou's level of assignment completion became much more stable, varying slightly at a consistently high rate. As the criteria were changed with each successive objective, Lou's assignment completion maintained a stable high rate, even when implemented in his regular classroom. Scott (2000) also found, with Andy, that a single reinforcement contingency per day was not sufficient to maintain a consistent positive change in his performance. However, when provided with more frequent reinforcement opportunities, Andy's desired behavior immediately increased to and stayed at criterion levels. Jake refrained from undesired behavior only 50-55% of the intervals observed. On the initiation of intervention, Jake's percentage initially dropped for two days before increasing to criterion levels across three consecutive days.

Short periods of time during which maintenance and generalization were assessed create limitations in the ability to make strong statements about the applicability of these results to children who remain in classrooms throughout the school year. Because student teachers have a brief amount of time in their student-teaching setting, it creates limitations in validity of results. One strength of the study is that each intervention was directly tied to functional behavior assessment outcomes. Rather than selecting interventions based on their convenience or familiarity, they were selected and tailored to reinforce and teach desired behaviors.

Evertson (1989) explored the effectiveness of a research based classroom management program implemented at the beginning of the year by observing 29 elementary school teachers from two Arkansas school districts, (14 teachers in the treatment group and 15 in the control group), and found that the treatment group had significantly better results in the assessment areas.

All 29 teachers in the experiment were observed six times. They were observed four times after the first workshop, and two times after the second workshop. All observations lasted 30-50 minutes and started on the first or second day of the school year. The same number of lessons were recorded for the control group and treatment group. Observers were not told which teachers were involved in the workshop, and the observers saw the same number of control group teachers as they did for the treatment group (Evertson, 1989).

Evertson (1989) found that all of the variables observers used to assess the teachers' behavior management strategies with were significantly in favor of the

treatment teachers. The teachers rewarded appropriate performance by frequently using praise and encouragement, displaying student work, and allowing privileges more frequently in the classroom. They also used signals to cue correct behavior, such as a bell to begin an activity, and alerted students as to what was expected before they began an activity. There was also more consistency and predictability among the treatment teachers compared to the control group.

The process and product of the data collection and analysis were audible by an outside party. This study claims to have transferability to the high school level as well as other elementary schools. However, before the observations occurred, teachers reported telling their students to be on their best behavior while being observed, which lessens the credibility of the study.

Sutherland (2005) analyzed the teacher-reported professional development needs and differences in reported needs between fully licensed and emergency-licensed teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) and developed a survey that was administered to four schools districts in a moderately sized, middle eastern U.S. metropolitan area and found that teachers of students with EBD perceive limitations in their ability to provide academic instruction to their students, and this perception was greatly multiplied for the less experienced emergency-licensed teachers.

Of the 367 distributed surveys, 109 were returned. Ninety of the teachers (82.6%) indicated that they were licensed to teach students with EBD, and 19 were not fully licensed. Licensed teachers were significantly more experienced

than those with emergency licenses, $t(1, 106) = 5.34, p = .000$. Sutherland (2005) developed a survey to collect standard information on professional development needs from teachers of students with EBD in the four participating school districts. First, respondents were asked for demographic information, and then completed a 33-item questionnaire. The questionnaire asked respondents to rate their ability at performing skills relevant to teaching students with EBD such as writing individualized education plans, teaching reading, and managing transitions in the classroom. The answers were recorded on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all comfortable) to 4 (very comfortable), with the other numbers representing points in between the two extremes. A major strength of the study occurred when four individuals with expertise in conducting research and training teachers of students with EBD were asked to review the survey. Sutherland (2005) found that teachers of students with EBD perceive limitations in their own ability to provide academic instruction to their students, and this perception is even more marked for less experienced, emergency-licensed teachers. Fully licensed teachers had a mean of 3.15 and SD of .51 in concern for planning instruction, whereas emergency licensed teachers had a mean of 2.86 and SD of .53. When asked about behavior and social skills, licensed teachers had a mean score of 2.93 and a SD of .54, whereas emergency licensed teachers had a mean of 2.68 and a SD of .61.

Due to the small sample size and homogeneity of the sample, these findings are not transferable. This study lacks confirmability due to the absence of accessibility of information for an outside party.

Baker (2002) studied how inquiry based classroom management could be implemented into an elementary school classroom based on differing student needs, by administering surveys to elementary teachers experiencing behavioral problems in their class and found that the inquiry based classroom presents the teacher with added challenges and required them to modify activities to meet all student needs.

A group of upper elementary school teachers generated a list of common classroom management problems they experienced while implementing inquiry lessons. They then ranked each problem in terms of its severity (not a problem, slight problem, moderate problem, serious problem, or very serious problem). Researchers then asked the teachers to consider each one and suggest ways to overcome them. The research indicated that the inquiry classroom presented the teachers with unique challenges that often required them to modify activities in order to meet individual student needs. Hands-on inquiry activities proved to be effective to assist students in understanding content and acquiring process skills. Classrooms are more successful when teachers are able to differentiate instruction. The correct use of inquiry-based activities allowed such differentiation (Baker, 2002).

Specifics of the study were far and few between. The teachers in the study weren't specifically described and there was no indication of the location where the study took place. No outside observers or reviewers came in to act as a third party. The study made general statements in the findings.

Durmuscelebi researched the differences in state primary schools and private primary schools according to determined misbehavior by administering a three part questionnaire to 79 private school teachers and 166 state school teachers, and found, with 95% confidence, there is no significant relationship.

The research done by Durmscelebi (2010) asked two main questions, (1) what are the differences in state primary schools and private primary schools according to determined misbehaviors, and (2) which misbehaviors are the most encountered or which ones are the least encountered in both types of schools? Answers in the questionnaire were set up using a Likert Scale and split up into three sections: personal information, general information, and expressions about student misbehaviors. The questionnaire analyzed the data by calculating frequency, percentage, and arithmetic mean by using SPSS (Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences). The first part of the questionnaire, personal information, asked questions about gender, seniority, graduation and what classroom management courses were taken. The second part, general information, asked questions about the number of students in the classroom, physical conditions of the classroom, and the level of guidance students are receiving. The third part of the questionnaire, expressions about student misbehaviors, listed 28 expressions which were used for measuring student misbehavior. Misbehavior was defined as behavior that is considered inappropriate for the specific setting or situation in which it occurs. There were five categories of misbehavior in this study: aggression, immorality, defiance of authority, class disruptions, and behaving mischievously.

Teachers selected the behaviors, from the list of 28, and ranked how often the particular misbehaviors happened in their classroom using the likert scale 1-5 (1 being never and 5 being on a daily basis). A four out of five elicited an 80% when the interval coefficient was calculated.

At a .05 confidence interval, the study found that in general there was no significant difference between state primary and private primary schools. "Complaints about friends" came up most frequently in state primary schools and second most for private primary schools (Durmuscelebi, 2010). The most common misbehaviors that were identified were talking without permission, studying without a plan, not listening to the teacher, doing other things during the lesson, and fighting with friends. The most unwanted misbehaviors that teachers were faced with was cheating, eating in the classroom, coming late to school, disrespecting the teacher, excluding friends from activities, and using other student's equipment without permission.

Although researchers found that there was no overall significance between the state and private primary schools, they did find that with a .05 confidence interval there was meaningful data among teachers who have taken a classroom management course and teachers that have not. Researchers discovered that teachers who have taken a classroom management course reported relatively lower levels of the following misbehaviors: not obeying cleanness rules, not attending to class activities, and walking around the room without permission (Durmuscelebi, 2010).

Teachers from private and state schools rated 28 attributes in the classroom. The number one and two rated disruptions in the classroom were, “complaint about friends” (state mean: 2.99, private mean: 2.75) and “talking without permission (state mean: 2.93, private mean: 2.87).” The disruption occurring the least amount of time for both private and state schools was “cheating” (Durmuscelebi, 2010).

The mean of state school teachers that took the classroom management course, when it comes to “complaints about friends,” scored 3.08 compared to private school teachers with a mean of .84. The mean of state school teachers that did not take the classroom management course was 2.86 compared to private school teachers who did not take the course with a mean of .72 (Durmuscelebi, 2010).

This study makes some very general statements when reasoning why a state school may have higher rates of discipline issues such as, “This may be the result of the home environment that students come from. The students who are coming from families which have higher incomes have an advantage because their families take pains to their education. Also, physical conditions of private schools are better than the ones of state schools” (Durmuscelebi, 2010). This was stated immediately after the findings that revealed there was no significant difference between the two schools according to the importance level. Another finding that Durmuscelebi (2010) discusses is that teachers working in the state schools come face to face with more misbehavior than teachers in private schools. His discussion of this finding is that this may be the result of the home

environment students come from. “The students who are coming from families which have higher incomes have an advantage because their families take pains to their education” (Durmuscelebi, 2010).

Arbuckle (2004) analyzed middle year teacher’s perceptions and management of disruptive classroom behavior by administering questionnaires to 350 teachers in Australia and found that there was a significant negative correlation between teacher’s confidence in classroom management strategies and the use of referral strategies for male students, between disobedient male behavior and teachers confidence in classroom management strategies and between hyperactive male behavior and teacher’s confidence in classroom management strategies.

Arbuckle (2004) used a stratified random sample in order to collect data. The study was of quasi-experimental nature and used a pre-existing questionnaire. Data was screened for violations of normality and variability; testing revealed no need for transformations. Repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), correlations and t-tests were conducted using an SPSS analysis package (Arbuckle, 2004). Variables such as gender, teacher confidence and experience, supports, specific disruptive student behaviors, and behavior management strategies were examined.

Of the 350 questionnaires distributed, 96 teachers (38 male and 58 female) participated in the study, providing a return rate of 27.4%. The average amount of years that each teacher had been teaching was identified at 16.69 years, (SD = .93), while the average teacher age was 42.16 years, (SD = 9.96). The

average class size was 23.71 children, (SD = 3.08) while average number of students in each school was 975.56, (SD = 506.62). Teachers from the upper primary school years made up 26.1% of the study sample. Lower secondary teachers and upper secondary teachers accounted for 45.8% and 15.6%. The remaining 12.5% involved secondary school teachers who teach across a variety of secondary levels (Arbuckle, 2004).

Significant negative correlations were identified between teachers' confidence in classroom management strategies and use of referral strategies for male students, $r = -.28$, $p = .05$; between disobedient male behavior and teachers' confidence in classroom management strategies, $r = -.27$, $p = .05$; and between hyperactive male behavior and teachers' confidence in classroom management strategies, $r = -.37$, $p = .05$. No significant differences were observed between the use of outside help and non-school professional liaison for male and female students. Although, the current study revealed increases in student disruptive behavior across the transition period, this relationship was only found to be significant in male students. Further investigation is needed in order to understand causal factors that are involved in this increase. Similarly, relationships between student behavior and teacher confidence were observed in male students, a finding relevant to research into both the transition period and to teachers' confidence (Arbuckle, 2004).

This study was inconsistent in the p-value being used and did not provide definitions for the academic language used in the study.

Overall, challenging student behavior is a major concern for many teachers, whether he/she has been teaching for only one year or over ten. These studies show that intervention strategies lessen classroom disruptions among individual students and whole classrooms alike. Also, there is no significant difference between the occurrences of disruptive students in private and public elementary schools (Durmuscelebi, 2010). It should also be noted that all students react differently to intervention strategies in the classroom, and if intervention is needed, a teacher should research multiple strategies in order to teach a larger percentage of the classroom.

Urban Environments

The previous section examined challenging student behavior in the classroom, intervention methods to deal with these disruptive behaviors, and a lack of classroom management strategies to lessen these behaviors. The following eight studies examine the influence urban environments have on students and teachers as far as classroom management is concerned. Jeanpierre (2004) analyzed the quality of instruction central to the interplay between students' interactions and teachers' classroom management practices and found that quality of instruction is central. Kuo (2010) explored the behavior intention of early childhood teachers to apply teaching aids and found that early education teachers considered teaching aids should require diversified functions and agreed that teaching aids could help them reach their teaching goals. Garrahy (2005) researched elementary physical education teacher's perspectives on their pedagogical knowledge of classroom management and found that most teachers

used multiple rewards and consequences such as verbal praise, letter to parents, time out, and written assignments. McKinney (2005) studied the effect of teacher assessment on urban students and found that urban teachers must respond to the needs of their students by creating culturally responsive classrooms that spotlight a variety of instructional practices. Miller (2005) investigated the results of a prescriptive, classroom based social skills intervention program and found that in a southeastern urban area, inappropriate classroom behavior decreased. Burke (2003) analyzed the changes in classroom environment needed to be made in order to create a positive learning environment and found that students should not be expected to change their environmental preferences or to learn regardless of them. Little (2008) studied the extent that teachers used research findings about classroom management in the classroom and found that teachers reported use of evidence-based classroom management procedures in relatively high frequencies. Hoffman (2009) researched the impact of training early childhood teachers in an emotional intelligence and classroom management program and found that the training of teachers in classroom management approaches should be advocated. Overall, these studies found that there are multiple strategies to use with students in an urban environment and it is important for teachers to take the time to get to know their students on a personal level in these urban areas.

Jeanpierre (2004) analyzed the quality of instruction central to the interplay between students' interactions and teachers' classroom management practices by observing two ethnically diverse, low socio-economic, urban elementary

schools in science, and found that quality of instruction is central to the interplay between students' interactions and teachers' classroom management practices.

The first school, Westlyn, was a kindergarten through eight grade low socio-economic urban school. Its 750 students are of diverse ethnic backgrounds, of which 25% are African American, 20% Asian American, 15% Hispanic, 5% Native American and 35% Caucasian. Approximately 82% of its student population receives free or reduced lunch. The second school, Palm Spring Elementary, was a kindergarten through fifth grade low socio-economic urban school. Its 580 students are of diverse ethnic backgrounds, of which 45% are African American, 23% Asian American, 5% Hispanic, 6% Native American and 21% Caucasian. Approximately, 80% of its students participate in the free or reduce lunch program (Jeanpierre, 2004)

The study occurred during one semester from January to May, with a total of 53 hours of classroom observations completed. Multiple sources of data were used; they included classroom observation field notes, teacher interviews, classroom observation data forms. Field notes were analyzed, and then categorized for themes and patterns: frequency tabulations were computed for the Types of Interactions and Level of Questioning Classroom observation forms. Tallies were categorized according to the number of times student interaction or questioning level was observed (Jeanpierre, 2004). There was not a third party observer or reviewer of the process during the study.

Jeanpierre (2004) found that a teacher from Weslyn used an intrinsic classroom management style in which the aim was to increase student's self

control. The other teacher, from Palm Springs Elementary, tended to shift between an authoritative and coercive classroom management style in which he/she managed student's behaviors with specific reasonable classroom rules, yet at times used intimidation and expressions of anger. Neither of these teachers' classroom management styles effected consistent, positive students' interactions. The Palm Spring teacher overly relied on the use of worksheets and did not portray science as a priority in real life or in the classroom. In addition, a number of non-science related activities took place during the designated block of science instruction time. The Westlyn teacher spent more time on task for science lessons, but failed to help students connect the drawings completed during nature walks to any science concepts or ideas (Jeanpierre, 2004) The study did not indicate the sex or race of the selected teachers that were focused on, which could be a variable in the outcome of the study.

Kuo (2010) explored the behavior intention of early childhood teachers to apply teaching aids by administering a questionnaire to 281 teachers in an urban area and found that early education teachers considered teaching aids should require diversified functions and agreed that teaching aids could help them reach their teaching goals.

This research focused on early childhood teachers located in Changhua, Yunlin and Jiayi Counties. Using an objective sample survey, 320 early childhood teachers were selected from 58 kindergartens and day-care centers for questionnaires. There were 298 questionnaires recalled, excluding those with incomplete answers those and not suitable for research application, there were

281 valid questionnaires in total. The research applied a survey study as the research method. The questionnaire was edited by the researcher and used to collect information. The information was then statistically analyzed and the results were summed up for conclusions and suggestions. The institutes for service and personal information of the subjects were independent variables which included cities/counties, and public/private early childhood education institutes. The four dependent variables were functional cognition of teachers to teaching aids, self-efficacy when applying teaching aids in teaching, environmental conditions of teaching aids provided by the institutes, and individual behavior intention of applying teaching aids (Kuo, 2010).

The questionnaire design applied the Cronbach alpha approach to test reliability. The total scale coefficient was 0.926, individual scale coefficient was “cognition of teachers regarding the functions of teaching aids in teaching”: 0.879, “self-efficacy of teachers of applying teaching aids”: 0.842, “the environmental conditions which institutes providing teaching aids”: 0.903, “behavior intention of teachers applying teaching aids”: 0.808 (Kuo, 2010).

Overall, early childhood teachers decided teaching aids should require diversified functions. The teachers agreed teaching aids could help them reach their teaching goals, elevate learning interests, enhance children's thinking, improving teaching performance, and helping children comprehend the content (Kuo, 2010).

The limitations of the study include: Research subjects were mainly early childhood teachers, the managers of kindergartners and day care centers were

not included, which may have caused biases, and due to limitations of people, materials, and time, only teachers of those kindergartens and day care centers located in Changhua, Yunlin and Jiayi counties were surveyed. Results of the research can only explain the situation of these three counties (Kuo, 2010).

Garrahy (2005) researched elementary physical education teacher's perspectives on their pedagogical knowledge of classroom management by conducting interviews with 20 Caucasian elementary physical education teachers at urban schools and found that most teachers used multiple rewards and consequences such as verbal praise, letters to parents, time out, and written assignments.

Twenty Caucasian elementary physical education teachers, 14 women and 6 men, volunteered to share their personal knowledge base about class management. Professional teaching experiences ranged from one to 28 years, with an average experience of 15 years. Participant interviews were the primary source of data collection for the study. The researchers interviewed 12 teachers individually at their school, which allowed the researcher to observe and have interactions with students. Those interactions allowed researchers to observe classroom management. The interviews lasted from 45–90 min. An interview guide structured the conversations; topics included personal teaching history, perceived effectiveness of various management strategies, and contextual factors (Garrahy, 2005).

A theme heavily present in the research was that teachers tended to teach in the way they were taught growing up. A teacher from an urban school

that had been teaching for nine years said, “I stepped into my first teaching experience teaching like my high school PE teachers taught me. It’s probably like parenting in that you remember how maybe teachers that you had handled things (Garrahy, 2005).” Being able to interact with other teachers, not just physical education teachers, continued to assist in development. Linda, an urban teacher with 12 years experience, remarked, “If I have trouble with something, I’ll go ask our assistant principal, the home-school advisor and the classroom teacher. She knows the kids better than anyone else and might have a little tip that I can tell the child. You really have to work together with your staff” (Garrahy, 2005).

Garrahy (2005) found that most of the teachers used multiple rewards and consequences such as verbal praise, letters to parents, time out, written assignments, and grade reductions as ways to improve student behavior.

Steps that were taken to ensure trustworthiness in the study included: Researchers asked participants to elaborate on and clarify information during a member check in interviews, data triangulation occurred via comparisons of different teachers in varied schools and settings, and there was use of multiple researchers served as another type of triangulation. In addition, the researchers conducted a search for and analysis of negative cases to seek alternative explanations for emergent themes (Garrahy, 2005).

McKinney (2005) studied the effect of teacher assessment on urban students by observing a sixth grade student and teacher and found that urban teachers must respond to the needs of their students by creating culturally responsive

classrooms that spotlight a variety of instructional practices, methodologies, and behavioral interventions in an effort to reduce the risks of behavior problems and school failure.

Marcus, a sixth grade, African American male, was described by his teacher as disruptive, aggressive, and very "street smart." Specifically, Marcus was described as lacking concentration and having disorganized work habits. His classroom behavior was characterized by excessive talking, calling out, and talking back. Marcus was performing below grade level in reading and mathematics and had an extensive discipline and suspension record in previous years. Using the case-based analysis approach, the research illustrated how one novice urban teacher, mentored by a "star teacher," modified the positive behavior supports model to resolve and alter unproductive student behavior in the classroom. This model looked beyond the behavior itself and emphasized positive incentives and strategies to encourage and teach new behaviors rather than reacting to inappropriate behaviors. Within the model, teachers are urged to create an individual intervention for a student that increases effective instruction and promotes positive behaviors (McKinney, 2005).

McKinney (2005) stated that teachers who are effective with urban students reject the belief of victimhood. Instead, they believe that regardless of the circumstances that many of these students bring to the classroom, they are still capable of learning, working collaboratively, and being successful. Most notably,

the teachers are capable of managing student behavior by creating classroom communities that spotlight meaningful relationships and trust.

McKinney (2005) found that urban teachers must respond to the needs of their students by creating culturally responsive classrooms that spotlight a variety of instructional practices, methodologies, and behavioral interventions in an effort to reduce the risks of behavior problems and school failure. If the context of "urban" is addressed in the pedagogical knowledge and practices of teachers, urban students will be provided with richer learning experiences, which in turn will impact student behavior and overall school success. Minor modifications to an assessment can assist novice urban educators in their development into "star teachers" and reflective practitioners. This approach also changes the culture of "blaming the student" to educators taking responsibility and considering the elements that are within their power to change (McKinney, 2005).

This research was limited because it concentrated on students in an urban environment. Therefore, the study can not be generalized. The study did not define classroom management, classroom culture, or urban, which are major terms essential to understanding this research.

Miller (2005) investigated the results of a prescriptive, classroom based social skills intervention program for seven students with high-incidence disabilities receiving services in a self contained, special education classroom by observing and interviewing classroom teachers about the implementation of intervention

plans and found that in a southeastern urban area, inappropriate classroom behavior decreased.

Participants included seven students, five males, two females, in special education with high-incidence disabilities with significant behavioral difficulties who were receiving services in a self contained classroom in a southeastern metropolitan school system. Student's ages ranged from 6.74 to 9.97 years ($M = 8.82$; $SD = 1.38$). Prior to intervention, a meeting was held with the teacher to discuss her concerns about the students' classroom performance. During this semi structured interview, the teacher expressed concerns about the students' lack of social skills. The teacher, who had 28 years of experience teaching students with emotional and behavioral disorders, indicated that she felt the lack of social skills on the part of the students led to strained relationships with the adults and peers in the classroom.

The research study employed a multiple-baseline design, with three intervention phases across two groups of students. Researchers collected data during the baseline, intervention, and post intervention phases, with the final phase collected immediately following the conclusion of each intervention group. Each group received the same amount of social skills intervention during the intervention phase; however, researchers staggered the lessons so that the groups did not overlap lessons during the intervention phase. They analyzed group and individual student data using visual inspection, mean score comparisons, and an effect size calculation (Miller, 2005).

Coefficient alpha reliabilities for subscales and total range from .86 to .94 for social skills, .78 to .88 for problem behavior, and .95 for academic competence. At the onset of the study, students' social skills standard scores ranged from 75 to 114, with only two students having scores of more than 1 standard deviation below the mean. Problem behaviors standard scores ranged from 100 to 134 ($M = 97.14$; $SD = 16.58$), with five students scoring one standard deviation above the mean. All but two students scored below the mean in terms of academic competence (range: 74 to 116; $M = 94.71$; $SD = 14.56$) (Miller, 2005).

Miller (2005) found that inappropriate classroom behavior (ICB) decreased between baseline and intervention phases for both groups, as evidenced by mean scores and effect size values. Both Group 1 and Group 2 had negative effect sizes (-1.65 and -0.87), indicating a decrease in the magnitude of ICB.

Limitations of the study include: The study was conducted between the months of October and January, consequently, two breaks in implementation and data collection occurred to observe Thanksgiving and winter holidays. Second, although direct observation data were collected using MOUSES, the dependent variables (inappropriate classroom behavior and academic engaged time) were gross representations of student performance. Third, the study was conducted in one self contained classroom dedicated to serving students with high incidence disabilities who demonstrated behavioral difficulties. Because of this, generalization of outcomes to other program settings is not possible without further investigation (Miller, 2005).

Burke (2003) analyzed the changes in classroom environment needed to be made in order to create a positive learning environment by observing a sixth grade teacher in New York City and found that students should not be expected to change their environmental preferences or to learn regardless of them.

Ms. Dooley was a sixth grade teacher with a classroom of 27 students. She was forced by New York City mandate to rearrange her classroom in an attempt to create a learning environment suitable for all students. The researcher who observed Ms. Dooley in the classroom made no effort to intervene until he/she had observed Ms. Dooley's traditional teaching practices. The recommendations made to Ms. Dooley were to get away from the traditional classroom setting because it was potentially impairing student growth, addition of more comfortable seating would increase attention span and improve attitudes, find a quiet area for students that need to work undisturbed and have an area with a soft humming or tapping that can continue without bothering others, and make sure the temperature in the classroom is warm and relaxing because a cold classroom is uncomfortable and makes it hard for students to learn (Burke, 2003).

Burke (2003) found that instructional environments should be modified in accordance with individual needs and preferences. On the basis of the research on learning styles, it is likely that changes in a classrooms' environmental elements will improve many students' performance in New York City as well as in every other school district.

Burke's (2003) research indicates that the study can be replicated and done in any area with similar results; however, there is very little data mentioned in the study to prove this claim. The research has been done without providing a specific write up in the research to explain why any of the recommendations have been made.

Little (2008) studied the extent that teachers use research findings about classroom management in the classroom by surveying a total of 149 teachers from urban school districts in the Midwest, South, and Southwest, and found that teachers reported use of evidence –based classroom management procedures in relatively high frequencies.

The survey asked questions regarding teachers' use of important classroom management principles such as reinforcement for appropriate behavior, verbal praise, stickers or token, long stare, move child closer to the teacher, and verbal reprimand (Little, 2008). Overall, teachers reported the use of evidence-based classroom management procedures such as rules, positive reinforcement, and antecedent procedures in relatively high frequencies. Still, teachers reported responding to infractions with a large amount of attention such as verbal reprimands, and moving student closer that may act as a positive reinforcer for misbehavior (Little, 2008).

The majority of teachers reported using a verbal reprimand, 83%, moving the student closer to the teacher, 83%, a long stare noting disapproval with behavior, 80%, and ignoring improper behavior while recognizing positive behavior in another student, 55%. Fewer teachers reported ignoring improper behavior,

33%, or writing the student's name on the blackboard or other list, 25%, (Little, 2008).

Little (2008) strengthened the study by having Ph.D. students in school psychology review the survey and had the survey piloted on a group of 10 elementary school teachers in the northeastern United States to ensure its comprehensiveness, readability, and understandability. All this was done before distribution of the final survey to elementary school teachers. Although an overall, broad range of findings are applicable for all teachers, the researched didn't hone in on any specific demographic of student. The research was done in an urban area; but, there was no breakdown of the student's ethnicity or demographics.

Hoffman (2009) researched the impact of training early childhood teachers in an emotional intelligence and classroom management program titled 'Conscious Discipline' by surveying over 600 pre-k through 6th grade teachers from four elementary schools in Florida and found that the training of teachers in classroom management approaches should be advocated.

More than 200 pre-kindergarten-6th grade teachers from four elementary schools and four early childhood centers in metropolitan areas of Florida enrolled on a voluntary basis for a Conscious Discipline workshop. The Conscious Discipline program was designed to help teachers enhance social and emotional skills of children to enhance the overall school climate. The workshop model consisted of a one-day overview of Conscious Discipline followed by once per month training, for seven months, over the course of the academic school year. The four

trained workshop instructors introduced a specific skill at each of the seven monthly sessions, including self-control, conflict resolution and improved emotional intelligence. A survey was administered in September, 2001, and again in April, 2002, to assess any change in attitude (Hoffman, 2009). The researchers used the multivariate statistical procedure of discriminant analysis to analyze the data.

Hoffman (2008) became an advocate for the training of teachers in classroom management approaches that foster more intrinsic motivation to behave, learn, and excel. The use of the emotional intelligence principles such as those taught in the Conscious Discipline workshops lead to more positive school climate perception. Hoffman (2008) noted that “not all variables in an educational setting can be controlled, but when teachers of similar educational background and socio-economic status participate within the same schools, a reduction of overwhelming variability from non-study factors can be assured, as in this study.”

Because all of the teachers involved in the study are from a similar educational background and socio-economic status, there may not be much variability, which also means the study can not be generalized to other areas that do not have these same features.

Overall, in this section, regarding urban environments, quality instruction played a central role in the interplay between students and teachers in classroom management practices (Jeanpierre, 2004). Teachers need to provide culturally responsive classrooms in an effort to reduce the risks of problem behaviors (McKinney, 2005), and teachers need to make sure that students don't have to

change their environmental preferences or learn regardless of them (Burke, 2004).

Summary

Chapter two was divided into three sections: Preservice/ beginning teachers, challenging student behavior, and urban environments. Section one explored eight studies that analyzed the influence first year and beginning teachers had on students, and the impact that those students have on the teachers and the implementation of classroom management. Overall, those studies found that there are many diverse factors that cause extreme stress for new teachers such as calls from parents, expectations of teaching that differed from the reality of teaching, and students talking back to teachers. Some of the many factors drove new teachers away from the profession all together. These issues that were faced by teachers all stemmed from a lack of classroom management.

Section two explored thirteen studies that examined challenging student behavior in the classroom and intervention methods to deal with disruptive behaviors. An improvement of classroom management skills lessened the disruptive behaviors. The studies found that some form of intervention is necessary to implement with students who express disruptive behavior.

Section three, "Urban Environments," discussed eight studies that researched the influence that urban environments have on students and teachers with classroom management. The studies found that there are multiple strategies that

can be used in urban environments and that there is an importance for teachers to take the time to get to know their students on a personal level.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCLUSION

Introduction

Chapter one discussed early research about classroom management and how researchers found that “early attention to classroom management at the beginning of the school year is a critical ingredient of a well-run classroom” (Marzano, 2003, p.5). A lack of classroom management affects both students and the teacher to a point that causes teachers to leave the profession all together. Early studies have shown that if the inexperienced teacher is able to gain basic classroom management understanding and skills, he/she will be able to reduce much of the anxiety that accompanies being an inexperienced teacher (Arends, 1997). In 1970, Kounin found there were multiple dimensions that affected classroom management that included with-it-ness, smoothness and momentum during lesson presentations, letting students know what behavior is expected of them at any given point in time, and adding variety and challenge in the seatwork assigned to students.

The research in chapter two first reviewed preservice and first year teachers and found that there are many diverse factors that cause new teachers stress and frustration. All of this stress and frustration stemmed from a lack of classroom management practices and even led some teachers to leave the teaching profession all together. Next, chapter two covered challenging student behavior and found that some form of intervention is necessary to implement with students who express disruptive behavior and in these studies there is a lack of classroom management strategies to combat the disruptive behavior of students.

The third section of chapter two, urban environments, examined the effects of classroom management in urban environments around the United States. The studies found that there are multiple strategies to use with students in an urban environment and it is important for teachers to take the time to get to know their students on a personal level in these urban areas.

The following chapter includes a summary of the findings from research studies in chapter two, as an attempt to examine the effects of different classroom management strategies on the academic achievement of elementary students, the implications that these findings have for the successful elementary classroom, and suggestions for further research on the topic of classroom management.

Summary of Findings

The first section in chapter two, preservice and beginning teachers, analyzed the influence and impact that first year teachers and teachers in their first couple years had on students, and the impact that students and the stress of classroom management have on these new teachers. Overall, these studies found that there were many diverse factors that caused extreme stress for new teachers; and some of these stress factors caused new teachers to leave the teaching profession altogether. The main factors that drove new teachers away from the profession were related to a lack in classroom management skills. The findings showed that teachers were more concerned about their instruction when first coming into the profession. Because of this, most teachers were overwhelmed due to their lack of focus on classroom management. Those teachers who

participated in classroom management workshops and had specific training in classroom management were less stressed and had better control over their classroom atmosphere as well. The other aspect that helped teachers who were struggling with classroom management was self reflection. Examining how they were running the classroom, the effects of running it in that way, and how things could be changed for the better, was influential for beginning teachers.

Desiderio (2005) found that students were able to adjust to two different teacher's management styles at the same time. Kalis (2007) found that extending the use of self reflection to increase classroom management was effective. Sempowicz (2011) found that a constructive, reflective, supportive mentor teacher helped to prepare the preservice teacher with confidence. Martin (1996) found that beginning teachers have unrealistic expectations regarding how to effectively manage their classrooms. Stewart (1997) found that a sense of humor and confidence increased first year teacher's positive responses to students and parents. McCann (2004) found there was a huge discrepancy between the teacher's expectations of teaching and the actual experience. Sandholtz (2011) found that the majority of preservice teachers focused on instruction rather than classroom management during their student teaching. Tal (2010) found that a classroom management course proved to be helpful as a learning tool for teachers.

The second section in chapter two, challenging student behavior, looked at challenging student behavior in the classroom, intervention methods to deal with these disruptive behaviors, and classroom management strategies to lessen

these behaviors. Overall, these studies found that some form of intervention is necessary to implement with students who express disruptive behavior; and in these studies there is a lack of classroom management strategies to combat the disruptive behavior of students. The studies that portrayed a behaviorist world view found that teachers who implemented praise into the intervention process noticed a decrease in student disruptive behavior in the classroom. The studies that portrayed a social constructivist world view found that when students received scolding from the teacher, it sometimes acted as a positive reinforcement of the behavior, and students continued the behavior.

Fowler (2011) found that through zero tolerance schools, youth who had previously been disciplined by the court were at higher risk of dropping out of school. Wilkinson (2003) found that using a school based behavioral consultation was an effective intervention tool for teachers and students. Reinke (2008) found that classrooms had higher rates of disruptions than praise, which caused teachers to feel that intervention was effective. Ornelles (2007) found that an increased engagement and increased initiations due to a structured intervention. Nowacek (2007) found that middle school teachers knew key characteristics associated with ADHD and were able to implement classroom management strategies. Tidwell (2003) found that teachers were more willing to deal with problem behaviors from students when they were younger. As students got older, the teachers assumed that students should know right from wrong and sent them straight to the principal's office. Erdogan (2010) found that classroom management issues were a lack of motivation, rule breaking, and a

lack of classroom intervention. Scott (2000) found that all students react differently to intervention strategies. Evertson (1989) found that when a classroom management program is implemented, those teachers who participated had better results in the classroom. Sutherland (2005) found that emergency-licensed teachers perceived limitations in their own abilities to deal with students who have behavioral problems in the classroom. Baker (2002) found that inquiry based classrooms present teachers with added challenges and more work in order to modify activities to meet all student needs. Durmuscelebi (2010) found that there is no significant relationship between the amount of discipline problems between private and state schools. Arbuckle (2004) found a significant negative correlation between teacher's confidence in the classroom and their use of referral strategies for male students.

The third section in chapter two, urban environments, examined the influence urban environments have on students and teachers as far as classroom management is concerned. Overall, these studies found that there are multiple strategies to use with students in an urban environment and it is important for teachers to take the time to get to know their students on a personal level in these urban areas. Teachers who used an authoritative style of teaching, who also used intimidation, were not well accepted by students in the classroom. Another major factor in the research was the design of the classroom. Teachers who arranged their classrooms to be comfortable, warm, and inviting, were able to get through to their students and the students felt more comfortable at school.

Jeanpierre (2004) found that quality of instruction is central to the interplay between students and teachers. Kuo (2010) found that early education teachers considered teaching aids effective and helpful to reach their teaching goals. Garrahy (2005) found that most teachers used multiple rewards and consequences in the classroom. McKinney (2005) found that urban teachers must respond to the needs of students by creating culturally responsive classrooms. Miller (2005) found that in a southeastern urban area, intervention decreased inappropriate classroom behavior. Burke (2004) found that students should not be expected to change their environmental preferences or learn regardless of them. Little (2008) found that teachers reported use of evidence-based classroom management procedures in high frequencies. Hoffman (2009) found that the training of teachers in classroom management approaches should be advocated.

Trends and patterns in the body of research include the design on the studies, and the demographics of the teachers involved in the studies. The majority of the studies used some form of survey or questionnaire to get answers from teachers. This seemed like the most reasonable way to get a large amount of information from teachers who were not close together in location. The demographics of the teachers were far from diverse. The majority of teachers that completed surveys and questionnaires were Caucasian females in rural and suburban areas/schools.

The weakness in some of the findings came from the lack of diversity in observations. Many of the studies focused on a single classroom teacher. The

findings were said to be transferable to other classrooms but did not prove transferability. It is hard to believe that students from a rural, predominantly white area, will react in the same way as students who live in an urban, predominantly lower class area, to the strategies teachers are implementing for classroom management. Another overall weakness of the studies was a lack of third party observation and reviewing. Many of the studies only included the immediate researchers involved.

The strength of some of the studies was the range of teachers who filled out and returned surveys to researchers. Some of the studies had as many as 300 surveys returned, that included teachers from all parts of Florida (rural, suburban, and urban areas). When a study is able to include these kind of demographics it strengthens the transferability of the study to more locations.

Classroom Implications

The first classroom management structure that should be implemented is the arrangement of the room. The room should be inviting and comfortable for students to be in. The temperature needs to be at a comfortable level, because when a classroom is too cold, students have trouble paying attention to the lesson being taught. Chairs also need to be comfortable for students to sit in, otherwise they will be spending their time fidgeting and trying to find a relaxed position in the chair. Make an area in the classroom where students can go, that is away from their desk, to read quietly (a bean bag chair or rug area work well for these quiet reading areas) (Jalilevand, 1997).

Teachers need to set aside personal time for themselves that does not involve any school work. Having this time will help to relieve some of the stress and pressure that issues with classroom management can cause. This is especially important for beginning teachers who spend long periods of time coming up with grading scales and rubrics for assessment. The first 3-5 years will be the most stressful before classroom management strategies are set and the teacher is very comfortable implementing them on a regular basis. This can be difficult because beginning teachers often get switched to different grade levels. Having a grade switch can entail a new look at the classroom management strategies that have been implemented in the past that may need to be changed for the new age level or students who the teacher will be teaching in the following year. For example, classroom management strategies that were used in a kindergarten or first grade classroom may not be as effective with a fourth or fifth grade group of students (TeachForAmerica, 2011). This personal time is especially important to relieve the stresses of beginning teachers as mentioned in chapter two, Preservice/Beginning Teachers.

Self monitoring and self reflection are also key elements of teaching. A teacher has to be able to reflect on classroom management practices to assess whether or not they are effective, and what can be done to improve them. Self monitoring can also be connected with monitoring emotions and reactions to certain situations in the classroom (Kalis, 2007). The use of humor in the classroom has been shown to make students and parents feel at ease in the

classroom. When the teacher feels at ease, students tend to sense that, and reflect the teacher's feelings in their action in the classroom (Stewart, 1997).

According to Fowler (2011), in chapter two (Challenging Student Behavior), teachers are much more likely to refer misbehaving students to the office once they are in upper elementary school grades because teachers think the students should know better. Teachers send lower elementary school students to the office much less because the teachers feel like the students are still learning how to behave in school. Taking this into consideration, rather than sending students to the office for minor infractions such as talking back, teachers should attempt to talk to the student in a way that acknowledges the students feelings about the situation at hand. By acknowledging the student's feelings, he/she will feel better understood and not like they are being chastised in front of their peers.

An issue that appeared in the research was the fact that teachers often discipline males in the classroom more often than females. Favoring one gender over the other is more than a classroom issue, it is a moral issue. Teachers need to be cognizant of how they treat groups of students, whether the groups are by sex, ethnicity, class, etc. One way to keep track of who a teacher talks to during the day or spends time working with, is to have a classroom roster and put a check mark next to the student's names that the teacher spends time with in the classroom each day. The next day, the teacher should make a conscious effort to speak with other students whom did not get "teacher time" the previous day. By doing this, teachers will be able to keep track of who they have been

spending time with, and make sure that students are getting “teacher time” that is as even as possible (Arbuckle, 2004).

Suggestions for Further Research

One of the gaps in this body of research is that the studies concentrate more on the teachers than the students. Teachers have been the focal point of much of the research on classroom management strategies. Classroom management strategies should center on what is best for a specific group of students, not only what works well for a teacher. A study that would have been more effective should have concentrated the efforts on three distinct groups of students; those who live in rural areas, suburban areas, and urban areas. Research locations should be set up in a West coast state, Midwest state, and East coast state so that the study can be generalized to the US. In each of the selected states, there should be three locations picked out that would represent an urban, suburban, and rural area. The study should include 10 rural, 10 suburban, and 10 urban schools in each state. This would create a study of 90 schools in the US, representative of all areas. Multiple classroom management strategies should be tested in each of the locations such as the use of humor, a reward system, and student self-reflection. By testing each of the classroom management tactics, independently, researches would be able to tell which ones are having a greater positive impact on student achievement in the classroom. There would be one observer in the classroom to provide feedback about the observations, to go along with feedback from the teacher. Direct feedback from the teacher about daily occurrences in the classroom, how he/she dealt with

those, and what the outcomes were, would be ideal in the observations. Each of the three tactics should be implemented for approximately 1/3 of the school year in order to give the teachers an ample amount of time for each.

Teachers in this study would rate the overall impact of each tactic on a likert-scale, five meaning “there was a large improvement in student academic achievement,” three meaning “there was no change in student academic achievement,” and one meaning “there was a large decline in student academic achievement.” Limitations of the study would be the age range of students involved in the study. All of the children would be in elementary school. Teachers with at least five years of experience would be considered for the study so that they have had time to try their own classroom management strategies before being placed in the study.

Conclusion

Chapter one discussed early research about classroom management and researchers found that a lack of classroom management affects both students and the teacher to a point that causes teachers to leave the profession all together. “Early attention to classroom management at the beginning of the school year is a critical ingredient of a well-run classroom” (Marzano, 2003, p.5). Early studies have shown if inexperienced teachers are able to prepare for classroom management struggles by taking courses about classroom management, they were better prepared for life in the real classroom (Arends, 1997). In 1970, Kounin found there were multiple dimensions that affect classroom management. The first dimension, with-it-ness, was referred to as

the teacher's awareness of what is going on all around the classroom at all times. A second dimension, smoothness and momentum during lesson presentations, came from being prepared for presenting the day's lessons so that there is smooth delivery and the ability to handle questions that may arise. The third and fourth dimensions, letting students know what behavior is expected of them at any given point in time, and adding variety and challenge in the seatwork assigned to students is prescribed because students need choice and a challenge. Students will get bored with monotonous seat work if it is not chosen for specific purpose and with differentiation in mind.

Controversies in classroom management strategies stem from the duel between behaviorist and social constructivist points of view. Behaviorists tend to focus attention on the individual student, whereas social constructivists tend to focus their attention on the whole group and what is the best fit for the entire group (Arends, 1997).

In chapter one, discipline, was described by Arends (1997) as the correction procedures of misbehavior in the classroom. Classroom management was broadly described as "the arrangement of students/groupings, materials, and furniture, and the movement of these over time, moving from one large group lecture to small cooperative groups or lab tables (Wolfgang, 2009). With a broad definition comes responsibility. Because there is so much that goes along with classroom management, there is more responsibility for teachers to keep up with. Classroom management is a huge job that can not be overlooked by teachers. When it is overlooked, this can result in major stress, as mentioned previously.

The first section in chapter two, preservice/beginning teachers, examined the dynamic between first year teachers and the stress that can come along with it. Much of this stress stems from unexpected calls from parents, students coming unprepared for class, disruptive behaviors, and the perception of teaching that ends up being nothing like what the reality of teaching really is. Section two, challenging student behavior, found that some form of intervention proved to have a positive impact on students, teachers, and the school climate. Disruptive behaviors declined when a school-wide behavioral consultation was set in place. The third section of chapter two, urban environments, concentrated on the effects of classroom management in urban areas. The studies indicated that when working with students in an urban environment, it is important to get to know each and every student. Making the students feel comfortable in the classroom will aid the classroom atmosphere, and in turn, students will be able to do better work.

Chapter three examined the major findings of each section in chapter two, the weaknesses and strengths of the studies, and patterns and trends that came up in the studies. The major findings of the sections in chapter two included: a lack of classroom management skills for beginning and first year teachers is the leading cause for teachers leaving the profession, some form of intervention is necessary in working with students who consistently have disruptive behavior in the classroom, and students in urban environments do better in school if their teacher shows a genuine interest in them as an individual piece of the classroom. Chapter three also suggested implications for the classroom based on the

findings of the studies in chapter two. Some of these implications included: using humor in the classroom, creating a classroom atmosphere that is conducive to learning (based on the arrangement of furniture, temperature, and comfortable spaces for students to work), and the importance of self-monitoring and self reflection as a teacher.

There are many aspects of classroom management for teachers to consider and think about, especially in their first few years of teaching. The most important thing for teachers to remember is the reason they chose to teach in the first place. Classroom management skills do not develop overnight; a teacher should have routines set up in the classroom and stick by those routines throughout the year. Again, take a deep breath and remember the reasons for becoming a teacher.

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