Learning to manage classroom behaviour

A study of the process of developing knowledge from the perceptions of five beginner teachers

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Abstract

This thesis provides a way of analyzing how beginner teachers talk about the management of classroom behaviour to reveal how they are thinking about their practice. Considerable reference is made in the literature about the factors that impact on the development of knowledge about teaching but very little is known about how it actually takes place, particularly in relation to managing classroom behaviour. My thesis adds to our understanding of how this is taking place. Specifically, this thesis provides insights into how beginner teachers are developing strategies for managing behaviour within a performativity culture promoted by governments that prioritizes competence over transformation.

Beginner teachers come to ITE equipped with beliefs, preconceptions and prior experiences of education, teaching and classroom management. This research provides case-study evidence of the different reasons that beginner teachers have for managing behaviour, that in turn, frames the kind of knowledge they develop and ultimately, the strategies they use.

A theoretical model and set of conceptual tools are developed to analyze interview and observation data collected from five beginner teachers. The data collection spanned a two-year period between September 2007 and July 2009. The model is used to chart the beginner teachers' development of strategies over time and in different contexts. The outcomes of the analysis indicate that beginner teachers developed schemas that allowed them to adapt to new contexts by utilizing their pre-emptive plans rather than acting reflexively.

The study contributes to the knowledge in the fields of behaviour management and teacher development in a number of ways. The model and the conceptual tools contribute to the theoretical understanding of how the personal and contextual factors influence beginner teachers' development of strategies over time. The empirical part of the study provides insights into how these factors facilitate and impede the development of the beginner teachers' strategies for managing classroom behaviour.

Keywords: behaviour, reflex reactions, pre-emptive plans, knowledge.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my gratitude to my family for their patience and support during the research and writing of this thesis.

I would also like to thank Professor Andrew Brown for guiding me throughout the study but most of all, for helping me to bring it to a conclusion.

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

Word count, (exclusive of contents, references and appendices) 92,164 words.

Contents

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 The research problem

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Specifically, this thesis provides insights into how beginner teachers are developing their knowledge about classroom behaviour within a performativity culture promoted by governments that prioritizes competence over transformation.

Beginner teachers come to ITE equipped with beliefs, preconceptions and prior experiences of education, teaching and classroom management. This research provides case-study evidence of the different reasons that beginner teachers have for managing behaviour, that in turn, frames the kind of knowledge they develop and ultimately, the strategies they use.

ITE is increasingly becoming delivered by schools and so the issue of how school-based mentors are selected and trained to support beginner teachers in the development of their knowledge to manage classroom behaviour needs to be addressed. This thesis goes some way in explaining how beginner teachers are

satisfying their learning needs around classroom management against the backdrop of the requirements of the placement school, the culture of performativity and the 'national panic' of decline in standards of behaviour among young people.

The Media have fueled this 'national panic' by reporting an escalation of poor behaviour and violence in our schools (Blair and Halpin, 2006; Cassidy, 2006; Hanna, 2006; Paton, 2007; Press-Association, 2005; Revel, 2004; Williams, 2004). As a result, beginner teachers begin their teaching careers with a deficit model of schools as places filled with badly behaved students that must be 'tamed' before they can be taught. However, Ofsted surveys (2009a; 2010; 2011a) show that students want to behave well and be praised and this is also my professional experience. Beginner teachers soon come to realize that schools are not full of feral teenagers and that the students want to do well and be praised. What remains apparent to beginner teachers, at least during the early part of their training is that managing classroom behaviour is an important part of the process of teaching and learning and one that they need to become competent and confident in if they are to gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). To do this involves satisfying all of the teaching standards set out for beginner teachers (DfE, 2010). These standards define the skills they must demonstrate and as such, become a set of isolated competences rather than the holistic development of the person as a professional teacher. Furthermore, the standards do not completely prescribe what teacher educators need to do and as a result, they meet the criteria using transformative rather than performative methods.

Therefore, this research is framed by these conflicting views of teacher education being individuals learning to become teachers through the development of professional teacher knowledge versus teacher education being reduced to the demonstration of skills.

Successive governments have expressed their interest in driving up standards of achievement (Ball, 2001) but the literature indicates that individuals enter teaching with a range of concerns that go beyond solely raising standards. These include concerns about themselves as teachers (Kagan, 1992), wanting to be good by helping their students learn (Hobson *et al.*, 2008) and ensuring that the management of behaviour is part of their teaching and not a discrete discipline with its own ends (Brown, 1992; Kyriacou *et al.*, 2007). They begin their teaching careers with their own ideas about what it is to be a teacher that are underpinned by their experiences of school as children (Lortie, 1973). These, together with their observations of teachers in schools and the plethora of material they come into contact with moulds and fashions their images of teaching as a more complex activity than just raising standards of attainment.

The focus of this study is on understanding how beginner teachers perceive their development and how this shifts from having distinctly separate concerns about themselves as teachers and whether they will be able to manage classroom behaviour towards a more holistic philosophy that 'joins up' the management of behaviour with teaching. The study explores the extent to which, beginner teachers develop

knowledge for managing classroom behaviour as an integrated part of becoming a teacher rather than learning skills as indicated by the current performative culture of standards and competences and how this is achieved.

As Hollingsworth (1989) and Cantor (1972) demonstrate, we all see things from different perspectives and beginner teachers use their preconceptions as filters in making sense of their experience and therefore, the knowledge they develop for managing behaviour. Bernstein (1996) proposed that this begins by teachers developing *repertoires* of strategies from the *reservoir* of all the potential approaches for managing behaviour; Dewey (1933), Schön (1983), Hatton and Smith (1995), Korthagen (2001) and Gore and Zeichner (1991) suggested that beginner teachers reflect on their experiences in order to develop new knowledge of strategies to manage behaviour. Jamieson (1994), Bramald *et al* (1995), Gutherson *et al* (2006) and Hobson *et al* (2009) stressed that beginner teachers' experiences are an integral part of the reflective process so it is important to understand how they view behaviour management and in order to appreciate how they construct their views. Korthagen (2001) and Loughran (2003) argued that beginner teachers need to understand how theory relates to their own practice for them to feel the need to make use of it in their teaching.

1.2 Professional background to the research question

Like all teachers beginning teaching, I had a problem managing classrooms. There were students who did not want to be there and I wanted to find a way to engage and

teach them by linking behaviour to learning. As I became interested in behaviour management, I realized that there were differences between the origins of student behaviours. The majority of students I taught in mainstream schools misbehaved for reasons connected with what was going on within the school and/or the classroom. I recognized that managing their misbehaviour was something that I could learn to do by developing my own knowledge of classroom management. There was also a minority of students with pathological aspects to their behaviour, which I found very difficult to manage. I realized that I had to manage the whole class, which included these more difficult students and that presented a challenge. This is what new teachers have to face, which is why I began this study.

More recently, as a headteacher, I have become involved in the part of beginner teachers' training that takes place in school. Performativity cultures are concerned with productivity and in schools this means increasing the progress and attainment of its students. In the last decade, the focus on increasing 'productivity' has gradually shifted from student provision such as 'booster' classes, individualized tuition, subject delivery modes and the use of information technology as a learning tool to the improvement of teaching. The Government White Paper (DfE, 2010) emphasized the need to focus on what the teacher does in the lesson. Lemov (2010) believes in the idea of a 'roadmap to excellence' characterized by a 'toolbox' of teaching techniques that separate the great teacher from the good. Marzano's (2010) interpretation of high impact teaching involves communicating learning goals and celebrating success when they are reached, establishing classroom rules and routines, practicing and deepening

knowledge, increasing student engagement, establishing effective relationships with students, having high expectations and having clear criteria for success. These examples suggest that the management of classroom behaviour has an important part to play in increasing 'productivity'. Teachers who manage classroom behaviour effectively will spend less time dealing with disruption, resulting in more time teaching leading to increases in 'productivity'.

School-based teaching placements can affect this 'productivity' in a number of ways. Firstly, beginner teachers take responsibility for the education of whole classes in the latter period of their placement. While they can bring a range of benefits including fresh, new ideas to a school, they also bring their own range of experiences and knowledge to the classroom that can sometimes result in disruptive behaviour, destabilization of the class and a drop in student attainment. These changes can have a harmful effect on a school's performance, its standing in the community and Ofsted judgements (see 2009b; 2011b).

Secondly, as is the case with any new staff, ensuring compliance with the policy and practices for managing behaviour is important in maintaining consistency of approach in the school. Minimizing these risks associated with providing training placements is an important part of the work of a headteacher.

Therefore, understanding how beginner teachers develop their knowledge about managing classroom behaviour has to be viewed in the context of the pressure to

meet the requirements placed on them by the placement schools in terms of productivity and compliance.

1.3 Background - the changing landscape of Teacher Education

To understand how individuals are becoming teachers today within the current performativity culture it is necessary to review how teacher education has developed over the past two decades. It could be argued that there has been a progressive attack on the professional autonomy, judgement and self-regulation of teachers by successive governments, resulting in the current view of teaching as more of a mechanistic, technical activity (Adams and Tulasiewicz, 1995) rather than one that is guided by intellectual thought. This frames the history of teacher education since the 1980s.

1.3.1 The struggle for control of Initial Teacher Education

Prior to 1980, the content and structure of initial teacher education (ITE) was organized and delivered by colleges and universities (Gardner, 1993; Wilkin, 1996). Then, during the 1980s changes started to take place including the formation of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE), (DES, 1984), the one-year PGCE, four-year B.Ed which included content specified by the Government (DES, 1989a), a shortened version of the B.Ed and the school-based 'Articled Teacher' and 'Licensed Teacher' schemes (DES, 1989b). The consequence of these changes and in particular, the latter two eroded the ownership and control that

universities had over ITE by an enforced sharing of the responsibility for delivery (and to some extent design) of it with schools. In so doing, the Government was able to have greater central control of what was taught, resulting in a loss of professional autonomy for universities in the training of teachers (Furlong *et al.*, 2000; Gardner, 1996). This can also be seen as the start of the breakdown and undermining of teaching as a reflective activity.

The early 1990s saw two major studies into initial teacher education. These were the Modes of Teacher Education projects. The first took place between 1991 and 1992 (ESRC, 1992) and the second between 1992 and 1996 (ESRC, 1996). Their role was to monitor the tumultuous changes in teacher education being introduced. The findings of the second project in particular highlighted the intensification in changes of policy that impacted significantly on the ways that teacher education was delivered between universities and schools. The change became evident with Circular 9/92 (DfE, 1992) and Circular 14/93 (DfE, 1993) that moved the emphasis away from universities to school-based training and reduced not only their control over how it was delivered but also posed a threat to their funding. Further changes during the 1990s included the abolition of CATE and the formation of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) to take over its role; the establishment of the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) and a framework for the inspection of initial teacher education; the end of the Articled Teacher scheme in favour of two new ways into teaching - the introduction of the school-centred teacher training (SCITT) schemes that did not require any input from the universities and the Open University distance learning

PGCE. The school-based schemes promoted an 'apprenticeship of learning' via practice supervised by more experienced teachers (Hillgate-Group, 1989). This approach was first introduced via Circular 3/84 (DES, 1984) and emphasized the need for teacher educators to have *recent and relevant* experience of schools with the intention of addressing the concern that teachers were being inadequately trained to do the job (HMI, 1988). By the mid 1990s, the *recent and relevant* requirement had begun to drive not only the selection and recruitment of teacher educators but also the need for greater periods of time on 'teaching practice' in schools (Fish, 1985)

The basis of many of these changes was summed up by Lawlor (1990) who represented the view of the Establishment that substantial economic growth was dependent on having a well-educated population and this could only be achieved by having a world-class education system (only achievable with considerable government intervention). Education became central to the political agendas of both the Conservative Government period of office from 1980-1997 and the New Labour agenda from 1997 onwards. Lawlor highlighted the Right Wing criticism levelled at teacher educators prior to 1990 of preparing beginner teachers on <u>how</u> to teach rather than <u>what</u> to teach. Murray (2002p. 126) saw this "as an attempt to re-define ITE as a narrow, skills-based enterprise and to deprofessionalise teaching" and moving it further away from an intellectually led profession.

As schools assumed more influence over the professional practice, the Government gained more control over ITE through what was taught, examined, quality-controlled

and how it was taught. This enabled ITE to be matched more closely to the reforms

taking place in schools including the introduction of the National Curriculum and the

new GCSE examinations. Changes reinforcing this control were the Ofsted

framework for the inspection of ITE in the early 1990s and the introduction of teacher

education programmes that were more skills-based and practice-orientated later in the

1990s. Political involvement was further exerted with the imposition of audit and

performativity cultures in both schools and colleges. This further reinforced a view of

teaching noted by Hextall *et al* (1991) as essentially a mechanistic process.

1.3.2 Audit and performativity cultures in schools and colleges

The introduction of competences and skills are particularly relevant to both the issue

of professionalism of teachers and the central question posed by this research.

Furlong (2000) argued that developing wide ranging knowledge was important for

beginner teachers because it informs and expands performance to enable new

situations to be tackled, whereas competences define and limit actions and behaviours

to particular contexts.

Statements of competence first appeared in relation to teacher education in Circular

24/89 (DES, 1989a), which included output or exit criteria. These described what a

beginner teacher knew, understood and could do by the end of their training. The

statements started to be called 'competences' in Circular 9/92 (DfE, 1992) and

Circular 14/93 (DfE, 1993) and required the focus to be continuous throughout the

initial training, not just at the end.

There was initial confusion of what was meant by 'competence' and definitions varied. Whitty and Wilmot (1991, p. 310) described competence as the "ability to perform a task satisfactorily, the task being clearly defined and the criteria of success being set out alongside " but added that a second, broader interpretation could be made that was less precise, resulting in neither the "competences nor the criteria of achievement being so readily susceptible to sharp and discrete identification." There were a number of difficulties with this definition. Firstly, the new dominance of audit and performativity cultures both in our schools and universities together with the pressures they place on beginner teachers to meet narrowly conceived success criteria (disguised as Standards) was an attempt to reduce teaching to one of observable performance. The introduction of the Standards approach led to a greater emphasis on preparing beginner teachers to teach the National Curriculum and mirror the work done in school with a significant reduction in developing their ability to work as autonomous professionals (Furlong *et al*., 2000) and in fact appeared to have a de-professionalizing influence (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996). Secondly, assessing a beginner teacher's work by observing performance in one or two schools only demonstrates competence within those contexts at that time. Teachers face new situations in different contexts, which will differ to the one observed to assess competence so using a competence model as the sole indicator is limiting, a point noted in the CNAA report (1992). It found that even though teacher educators had adopted the competency approach they resisted the pressure of assessing small 'packets' of performance and assigned greater importance to developing beginner teachers' knowledge, understanding and attitudes in an integrative and holistic way.

However, the push to take an atomistic approach (Houston, 1985) was further reinforced by Ofsted in the late 1990s with the inspection of ITE focusing on the standards for Qualified Teacher Status and the teaching of separate subjects rather than on the ITE course as a whole (Furlong *et al.*, 2000; Graham, 1997; Mortimore and Whitty, 1997). Although competences gave way to 'standards' and beginner teachers had to achieve all of them to qualify, the net effect was a complete shift away from a holistic approach of developing teacher knowledge as a means of learning and improving practice and was resisted at the time by teacher educators.

The introduction of the audit and performativity culture is noteworthy because the exertion of control did not result in a strict adherence in the way that governments might expect. Teachers used their own experiences, histories, values and beliefs to interpret and selectively adopt parts of policy directives, statutory guidelines and national programmes about classroom management. In so doing, they demonstrated the differences between the policy-makers' intentions and their practice (Bowe and Ball, 1992; Fullan, 1991; Hargreaves, 1994).

1.3.3 The contested place of reflective practice in Initial Teacher Education

As I proposed earlier, for teacher education to be an intellectually led activity it must involve beginner teachers reflecting on both their teaching and prior experiences. Reflective practice has been generally accepted as the main process used by teacher educators to enable development of beginner teachers (Brookfield, 1995; Dewey,

1933; Gutherson *et al.*, 2006; Hobson *et al.*, 2009; Korthagen *et al.*, 2001; Manen, 1977; Schön, 1983; Zeichner and Liston, 1987). It was originally part of the Educational Studies element but began to be used within all parts of ITE. Beginner teachers were taught to reflect on their experiences and actively construct knowledge that could be used to create new learning and improve practice (Elliot, 1993).

Dewey and Schön both describe practitioner knowledge originating from experiential learning but there has been considerable debate on how this takes place and whether it does in fact lead to the development of new learning (Dillon, 2010). It is generally accepted that the process of reflection is not simply thinking as it involves the construction of knowledge (Clark, 1986; Jamieson, 1994). To achieve this, conceptual knowledge has to be introduced so that experiences can be translated into dynamic knowledge relevant to the context (Hatton and Smith, 1995).

The introduction of competences into ITE broadened the debate into whether teaching could be reduced to a set of technical operations (Hextall *et al*., 1991). Critics of the competency approach argued that it was impossible for beginner teachers to be prepared for every type of situation they would face because of the continually changing landscape of Education along with the unique characteristics of schools and students (Korthagen *et al.*, 2001; Rogers, 1969). Schön (1987) provided an 'antidote' to the mechanistic approach being promoted by governments. A shift from relying on static knowledge to a process enabling new knowledge to be gained was required. The result was that teacher educators continued to teach beginner teachers how to

reflect on their practice in order to develop a more holistic understanding of teaching. Murray (2002) found that teacher educators combined the requirements of the circular with reflective practice. Hextall *et al* (1991) and Hunt (2010) suggest that this was made possible by the incorporation of the reflective-practioner model into the Teaching Standards.

The continuing debate of competences, skills and standards versus the development knowledge of a more generalized nature is important to this study because the recent attempts by Governments to address standards of behaviour in schools have been based on a training model with the purpose of acquiring skills that are not completely prescribed (DES, 2004a; DES, 2004b).

Therefore, understanding how beginner teachers develop their knowledge about managing classroom behaviour has to be viewed against this background of performativity. This factor impacts on beginner teachers demonstrating that they have met the teaching standards in a limited number of specific contexts to gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS).

1.3.4 The importance of managing behaviour within teacher education

Beginner teachers start their careers with concerns about behaviour in schools based on the questionable claims of the media (see section 1.1) that it is getting worse, despite the contradictory evidence, for instance from Ofsted (2009a; 2010; 2011a) that behaviour was generally good. The 'national panic' about the decline in

standards of behaviour in schools began in the 1990s and has persisted throughout the past decade. Hargreaves (1978) and Galloway *et al* (1982) argued that it had its roots in the 1970s with teachers misrepresenting students who exhibited disruptive behaviour as 'deviants'. Willis (1977) offered an alternative explanation for disruptive behaviour as a form of class resistance whereby, working class boys articulated membership of a sub-group destined to follow their fathers into the same employment (see also Benyon and Delamont (1984) in Graham1988 p. 29). Concern grew with the abolition of corporal punishment but popular belief that it would result in a breakdown of discipline in schools did not materialize (Elton, 1989; Maxwell, 1987). During the 1980s, the focus shifted away from what many believed to be a loss of the means to discipline to a new concern of how teachers were going to deal with the greater diversity of students brought about by the move to comprehensive schools (Rutter *et al.*, 1979). With this came a view of a moral panic in the wider context of the 'youth' as a whole becoming more aggressive (Corrigan, 1976; Fiske, 1989; Presdee, 1984).

The Education Reform Act 1988 introduced structural changes in the ways schools were managed. They included decentralization of power, a focus on academic outcomes over student well-being, the introduction of league tables and the increasing state control of teacher education. These were believed to be major contributory factors to the breakdown in behaviour (see Association-of-Educational-Psychologists, 1994; Parffrey, 1994; Rendall and Stuart, 2005; Smith, 1998). In particular, Murray (2002 p.475) argued that the de-professionalization of the teaching profession caused

by these reforms together with increasing state control over teacher education has limited teacher autonomy.

Some years earlier Dewey highlighted the potential power that teachers had, a factor that did not go unrecognized by the Governments of the 1980s and 1990s (Phillips, 1983). Increasing government intervention in the main aspects of the teacher education including funding streams, an emphasis on a technical-rational model with the introduction of standards and admissions criteria suggested a form of social control (Murray, 2002 p. 474). The changes in the inspection framework have made behaviour one of the four main aspects used to judge the effectiveness of schools (Ofsted, 2012). In consequence, teachers' (and beginner teachers') abilities to manage classroom behaviour have become very important to headteachers because not only can they affect student achievement in examinations but also how a school as a whole fares in its inspection. The result is that teachers, beginner teachers, headteachers, governors and key stakeholders all have concerns about how well classroom behaviour is managed. The way concerns such as these have been addressed in the past have been by updating behaviour policies and providing training but these strategies are unlikely to be sufficient for a number of reasons. Firstly, delivering training away from the classroom de-contextualizes it and reduces the chance of achieving the desired outcomes (Kennedy, 2005). Secondly, teachers do not passively accept everything as 'empty vessels' (Nespor, 1987). They actively engage in training (like most learning opportunities) using their own preconceptions and prior experiences as filters for what they need. So what is required is a better understanding

of the thinking processes that new teachers go through as they develop their

knowledge of classroom management in order to improve the efficiency of such

training and ultimately improve practice.

Therefore, understanding how beginner teachers develop their knowledge about

managing classroom behaviour involves taking the following factors into

consideration; the 'national panic' about standards of behaviour in our schools; the

background of performativity that requires they demonstrate they meet the teaching

standards and the requirements placed on them by the placement schools in terms of

productivity and compliance.

1.4 The theoretical framework and research design

The focus of this study is on how beginner teachers develop knowledge to improve

their practice, which involves finding a link between their thinking and their actions.

With this in mind, the majority of the data of this study will be gathered from

interviews with beginner teachers and supplemented with observations of their

practice. Thinking and the resulting change in practice occur over time and so the

number of participants involved in the study will be limited to enable a deeper

understanding of how they think about their learning. This process of understanding

the connections the participants make between their experiences, their ideas, their

thinking and their actions requires an interpretivist approach.

Interpretavism is the subjective interpretation of reality that can only be fully understood by studying a phenomenon within its context. As individuals interpret different situations in different ways, everything will be relative to everything else. Therefore, the objective of interpretavism is not to find some kind of truth, as one person's interpretation is neither true nor false just different to that of others. The main objective of interpretavism is to understand a phenomenon and construct meaning about it. This raises an obvious disadvantage in that the conclusions drawn from such studies about unique situations will not be generalizable in the sense that they will be true in all other situations comprising similar sets of conditions (see Schön, 1983). However, focusing in detail on a limited number of cases has heuristic value in that it enables greater understanding of a phenomenon and therefore, knowledge of it, which can then be used as a starting point for future research into a better understanding of similar phenomena. A key feature of the interpretative paradigm of social science research relevant to my study will be that I can make sense of the participants' perceptions and actions in order that knowledge and meaning about their world can be generated through my interaction with them (see Cole and Wertsch, 1996).

A second point to note is that I will be active in the data-gathering and analysis through a process of inductive reasoning that enables me to make sense of the participants' experiences. The result is that I will construct my own understanding of their world (see Glasersfeld, 1989). My background and experiences are also important factors in shaping the knowledge that is created. Furthermore, my presence

inevitably has impact on the study by raising the participants' consciousness about the management of behaviour prompting them to them think more about their management of behaviour than their peers on the same PGCE course.

1.4.1 Summarizing the problem to be addressed by this study

The problems of a performativity culture highlighted earlier are of putting the emphasis on *what* should be done and *how* to do it. These problems are usually addressed using a training approach that breaks tasks down into components and then specifically focuses on deficiencies in the performance of individuals or groups of staff. For example, training a beginner teacher to plan lessons may involve taking one lesson, breaking it down into the starter, teacher explanation, student consolidation and plenary. Training is given for each part and then they are assessed as separate entities.

The problem with the performativity approach for a headteacher is to ensure that individuals carry out the policies and practices consistently across the whole school. A further problem with a performativity culture based on competencies and standards is that they assess performance only in the context where they were demonstrated. Transferability is not addressed, l*et al*one guaranteed.

Underlying the *what* and *how* aspects of performance is the *why* aspect that does not feature as important in the assessment process. Beginner teachers are required to

demonstrate what they *can do* rather than an understanding of *why* they are doing it.

So the discussion above leaves us with the following questions:

1. How are beginner teachers learning to manage classroom behaviour within the current performativity culture?

2. How does moving from one school to the next affect beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

3. What are the factors that facilitate and impede beginner teachers' development of strategies and knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

1.5 Thesis structure

In chapter 2, I begin to develop a theoretical framework for this research by reviewing empirical research of the factors that influence beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. The objective is to identify and critique the theoretical positions, research methods and conclusions of these studies. The chapter begins by providing a review of professional development as a means of identifying how teachers exercise *agency* within a performative culture. This is followed by critiques of the empirical studies to show how teachers develop individual positions in relation to the structuring influences of the context. They are organized into the factors that are 'internal' to the individual that give *agency* including beliefs, concerns, emotions, identities and efficacy and the 'external' factors of context that structure individual *agency*. The findings indicate that beginner teachers believe they have *agency* to determine their actions within the structuring

environment of the school and the institution of Education. They do not provide any evidence either of the respondents' knowledge for managing classroom behaviour developing over time or the processes they employed to increase their knowledge.

In chapter 3, I further develop the theoretical framework for this research by reviewing the literature on the use of reflection as a 'tool' for developing knowledge. I consider the work on reflective practice as a key aspect of the transformative process in the development of beginner teachers' knowledge and skills. I critically evaluate Schön's theories on reflection-*in*-action and reflection-*on*-action and suggest that they provide limited starting points for understanding how beginner teachers think in terms of reactive and pre-emptive approaches to classroom behaviour. These approaches are expanded using two theoretical models that explain the processes of thinking and planning responses to problems. Schön's reflection-*in*-action theory is critiqued using Miller *et al*'s (1960) *single-loop* model as an alternative way of conceptualizing how a person reacts in a reflex or intuitive way to situations in actuality. Skemp's *double-loop* model builds on Miller *et al*'s *single-loop* model as a way of understanding and supporting Schön's theory of reflection-*on*-action.

In chapter 4, I develop a theoretical framework for structuring the research design and describing and analyzing the empirical data. The theoretical framework is made up of three components: an analytical language; a model that describes the process of developing knowledge for managing classroom behaviour; a set of conceptual 'tools' for analyzing the dialectical relationship between the subjective internal perspectives

of the participants and the objective external perspectives of the contexts where they work.

In chapter 5, I set out the starting points for the research design. These include the need to collect data at the micro level of the following: the participants' understanding of their experiences of managing classroom behaviour; the interrelationship between the 'growth' of their strategies and the contextual factors that enhance or inhibit their *agency* as teachers; and the need for a mixed-method approach to data collection to ensure that links can be 'tested' between the participants' thoughts and actions.

I describe how I utilized Yin's (2003) matrix to link the research question to the methodology. This includes the rationale for the use of *replication logic* as a means of selection of the units of analysis. I describe in detail the advantages of being a practitioner-researcher, the selection of the Higher Education institution that provided the participants for this study and the rationale for the selection of the participants. The chapter also includes a description of the 'tools' used to collect the empirical data and an explanation of the design and conduct of the pilot study. Information about how the participants were kept informed concludes the chapter.

In chapter 6, I provide details of the process used to organize and analyze the data of the empirical part of the study. I describe how the narrative data was analyzed using the molar and molecular approaches in order to ensure a holistic interpretation. I also

explain how each of the narrative types present in the interview data were identified and analyzed.

In chapter 7, I set out the findings of the empirical part of the study and discuss them in relation to the review of the literature and the development of the conceptual 'tools' described in chapter 2 and the theoretical model described in chapter 4. The outcomes of the analysis of the empirical part of the study will be a critical evaluation of the theoretical model as a 'tool' for charting the development of teachers' knowledge for managing behaviour and the factors that can facilitate or impede this development.

In chapter 8, I revisit the research questions and outline how they have been addressed. I provide a synoptic overview of the thesis and identify the achievements of each chapter. I identify and discuss the limitations of the empirical work I carried out and consider the contributions that my study makes to the knowledge. I suggest possible directions for further research and discuss the implications that the findings of this study have for practice

Many of the concepts in the following literature review are either quite abstract or related to non-teaching situations. With the reader in mind, I provide 'sketches' or hypothetical examples to show how they may be applied to teaching situations. The examples are not drawn from the empirical data of my study and I am not suggesting that they describe what *actually happens*. They are my interpretations of the

theoretical concepts and what might happen when they are applied to teaching

situations so that the reader will gain insights into their relevance.

Chapter 2 Personal and contextual factors that influence the development of beginner teachers' knowledge

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the empirical research on the factors that influence how beginner teachers learn to manage classroom behaviour. The objective is to critically address the theoretical positions, methodological approaches and conclusions of these studies in order to develop an understanding of how beginner teachers' predispositions are structured, and structure the development of their knowledge of classroom behaviour. Chapter 1 provided an overview of ITE over the past two decades and indicated that the current climate is one based on a culture of performativity. It is characterized by competencies and standards at the macro level through the nationally established framework of inspection of schools and a focus on test results that compare school performance through national and local league tables. At the meso level of the school itself, the focus is again on meeting the narrow performative criteria of Ofsted, achieving 'floor' targets of attainment of level 4 in English and mathematics in primary schools and four GCSEs at grade A* to C including English and mathematics for secondary schools. At the micro level of the individual teacher, it is on demonstrating good performance against the eight teaching standards and meeting the targets set out as part of the performance management process. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that teachers are part of the institution of Education that structures the ways they think and act as professionals. The significant structuring influence on teachers is the School and each school will

have its own unique way of translating the macro structuring influences of the
national educational landscape, set out by the government at any particular time.

Individuals will be subject to the structuring influences and constraints but will also
actively translate or interpret those influences within the contexts in which they work.
Therefore, understanding the factors that are in play as beginner teachers develop
their knowledge must also include understanding the individual as well as the
context. As the development of knowledge is 'internal' to the individual, it is
important to understand how the individual inter-relates with and to the specific
context. To achieve this, I am focusing mainly on the empirical studies about these
factors at a micro level in order to understand how beginner teachers' predispositions
are structured, and structure the development of their knowledge of classroom
behaviour.

2.1.1 Mental structures

Throughout the course of this thesis, I shall refer to *mental structures* so it is
important to establish what I mean before going on to outline what will be covered in
each section. The *mental structures* referred to are *plans*, *concepts*, *gestalts* and
schemas. *Plans* will be described in section 3.4.1, the other *mental structures* are
discussed in this section.

Concepts

Mental structures are the building blocks for the organization of beliefs and knowledge. The basic element of a mental structure is a *concept*. Howard (1987, p. 2) described a *concept* as "a mental representation of a category, which allows us to place stimuli in a category on the basis of some similarities between them". Making connections enables us to respond to individual stimuli as a group. The process of connecting ideas involves identifying and fore-grounding particular features. Howard calls this *Abstraction* and suggests that it results in much of the less important data about a stimulus being lost.

Anglin (1977) warns that it is important to understand the difference between a *category* and a *concept*. For example, the *category* of 'fish' includes all the real and imaginary fish in the world whereas; my *concept* of 'fish' is an idea allowing me to class some creatures living in water as 'fish'. Supposing I have only experienced a cod, a bass and a mackerel, then my *concept* of 'fish' would not include other fish. If I encountered a flounder or a plaice, I may not categorize them as 'fish'. However, my *concept* may include other knowledge about fish I have encountered that I do not need to categorize creatures as 'fish' such as the numbers of cod caught annually and how big a bass can grow. My *concept* can also include emotions like how I felt when I caught my first fish (adapted from Howard, 1987, pp. 4-5).

Farah and Kosslyn (1982) expanded the definition of a *concept* to use it to describe competency or an ability to perform a task. Howard (1987) suggested that familiar

concepts or concepts that include shocking features are likely to be more memorable than the ones that are difficult to understand. Maslow (1943) argued that the reason for this is because all human action, including using *concepts* to understand the world are driven by satisfying personal needs. Silcock (1994) added that they enable us to identify and utilize what we need from the environment. Fosnot (1996) proposed that because *concepts* direct our actions, they are under constant revision.

Miller *et al* (1960) suggested that people collect and store experiences but they only become useful when a 'problem' is encountered. The way they are 'stored' is important because they must be easy to access if they are to be used. Wicklegreen (1979) proposed that words are used to symbolize or 'label' *concepts*. However, Brown and McNeill (1966) had demonstrated that *concepts* can be activated even when a person could not remember the word-label. Howard (1987) added that a sight or sound of an object or some other stimulus linked to a specific context can activate a *concept*. This suggests that the experiences that make up *concepts* include multi-sensory data.

Gestalts

The basis of *Gestalt* Psychology proposed by the early twentieth century theorists such as Kurt Koffka (1935) and Max Wertheimer (1938) was that a number of objects are perceived within an environment as a 'whole' or *Gestalt* rather than as individual elements. An important feature of this 'global' construct is that although all the elements are perceived together some can assume more or less importance depending

on the individual viewer's tendency towards certain interpretations. Examples of this can be seen in the work of M. C. Escher (1971), the Neckar Cube (Necker, 1932) and Rubin's vase (Kennedy, 1974). These all rely on what is called *Multi-stability* (Miller *et al.*, 2000), which is the apparent shift in emphasis between the fore-ground and background elements resulting in two or more interpretations of the same stimulus. *Gestalt* does not provide an explanation for why this happens only that it does happen. Sternberg's (2003) proposal that a *Gestalt* allows things to be perceived as whole entities and to be interpreted differently according to what is fore-grounded is important to my study. It allows for a number of theories including System Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1992) and Frame Analysis (Schön, 1983) to be used to explain the ways that teachers conceptualize classroom situations. It also provides an explanation of schematization based on multiple connected *Gestalts*.

Humphrey (1924) suggested that we use this 'global perception' to produce interpretations of situations even when some aspects of them are either unclear to us because we do not understand them. A simple example of this can be found in our ability to recognize a picture within a dot-to-dot puzzle without drawing the lines. This ability is not limited to visual images and an example is being able to complete a tune we have never heard because it has a familiar structure such as the 12-Bar blues format of many popular tunes of the 1950s and 1960s. This can be explained by the Fuzzy Trace Theory of *Gestalt* Psychology (Reyna, 2012). The theory states that we encode information in two different ways. Information can be 'stored' in *Verbatim* as an exact memory comprised of all the individual parts. Alternatively, it can be

'stored' in *Gist* as a semantic or conceptualized memory that represents the situation. Although both form very detailed memories, the *Gist* of a situation may include 'gaps' that result from 'abbreviating' the information into a representation. The 'gaps' are 'bridged' in the same way as the lines are imagined in a dot-to-dot puzzle to enable the *Gist* of the situation to be understood. *Gestalt* utilizes this *Gist* method of 'storage'.

Schemas

A *schema* is a collection of *concepts* or *Gestalts* that are connected. *Schemas* allow greater understanding of aspects of the component *concepts*. Howard (1987, p. 50) describes this distinction using the example of the 'face'. As a *schema*, it can have the component *concepts* of 'eyes', 'nose' and 'chin'. Each of these can be a *schema* in its own right, for example, a *schema* of the 'eyes' can be made up of the *concepts* of 'pupil', 'iris' and 'eyelid'. From this, we can see that a *schema* can be considered a *concept* when it is part of a larger conceptual structure.

Similarly, a teacher may conceptualize the use of praise as a means of rewarding achievement. Alternatively, they may conceptualize the use of praise as a means of encouragement and find it motivates students to increase their levels of achievement. The two *concepts* of praise for achievement and praise for encouragement become linked to form a *schema* for the use of praise. Teachers also praise to build relationships with their students as part of their approach to managing behaviour. In this respect, praise becomes a *concept* within their relationship-building *schema* along

with other *concepts* such as developing rapport, treating students fairly and showing them they have a human side to their personality. Skemp (1979) explained this by suggesting that any given representation can be considered a *schema* or a *concept* depending on how it is used.

2.1.2 The structure of this chapter

In section 2.2, I begin by examining the various perspectives on professional development using the work of Aileen Kennedy (2005). She provides a spectrum with formalized *transmission models* 'done to teachers' at one end and the *transformative models* that involves the active participation of the teacher at the other end. This section provides a critical review of these models to expose the structuring influences on individuals, as they become teachers and the ways they can act independently to structure their own development within the performative culture of the school context and ITE.

In section 2.3 and 2.4, I review the research about teachers' beliefs and knowledge as the basis of their perceptions about teaching. The importance of beliefs as the 'roots' of beginner teachers' reasons for managing classroom behaviour are discussed as a means of understanding their importance in influencing the new knowledge they develop. The section on professional knowledge achieves two things, firstly it establishes the differences between beliefs and knowledge by examining the numerous forms that professional knowledge takes and secondly, it provides definitions for professional knowledge that are used in this thesis.

In section 2.5, I review the empirical work on teachers' concerns and provide a critique of the key studies by Fuller and Bowen (1975). In particular, I use the work of Stobart *et al* (2006) and Watzke (2007) to provide an alternative perspective on teachers' concerns as being context-based rather than changing as a function of time served in the classroom.

Section 2.6 focuses on the emotional dimension as an enhancing or inhibiting factor in an individual's development of knowledge. I draw on *Appraisal Theory* as a way of understanding how the emotional development of an individual is tightly intertwined with their beliefs, preconceptions and concerns. I complete this section by discussing *resilience* and its importance in problem-solving.

In section 2.7, I review the literature on teacher identity and in particular its importance to an individual's sense of *agency.* This section underpins the idea that individuals are not powerless to the structuring constraints of the State, Institution or context. The work by Wenger (1998) and Beijaard *et al* (2000) is used to critique Carter and Doyle's (1996) assertion that the context is a major factor in the formation of professional identity and demonstrates that beginner teachers actively adapt and structure environments, relationships with colleagues and ways of working within any particular context. The section on identity forms the bridge into the final section concerned with factors internal to the individual - that of efficacy and the development of knowledge.

Section 2.8 on efficacy 'closes the circle' and links back to the section on belief systems. Drawing on the work of Bandura (1977), Gibson and Dembo (1984) and Emmer and Hickman (1991), I will consider the origin of a teacher's efficacy beliefs and demonstrate how concerns, emotions and identity are strong influences on an individual's perceived efficacy. This section achieves two things; it provides a critique of Gibson and Dembo's two connected efficacy indicators as a way of identifying how an individual 'feels' about their teaching but also builds on it as a measure by showing how it can be used to chart a beginner teacher's changing efficacy over time. The second achievement of this section is that it questions the generalized nature of its use in terms of providing an overall picture of an individual's efficacy belief improving over time as an indicator of their development from 'novice' to 'expert'.
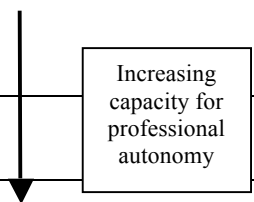
Section 2.9 deals with the context of the school as a structuring influence on the individual. In particular, the culture and ethos of the school are discussed as powerful factors in influencing beginner teachers' approaches to managing classroom behaviour and therefore, the particular knowledge they develop to align themselves with the institution and their colleagues. The studies of Bathmaker and Avis (2005) are used to critique the concept of ethos and to identify how beginner teachers either adopt or adapt to the dominant culture for managing behaviour in the school.

Section 10 concludes the chapter.

2.2 Approaches to professional development

Continuing professional development (CPD) serves a number of purposes that can be described in terms of a spectrum. Kennedy (2005, p. 248) identifies a spectrum containing nine models for CPD (see below). The *transmission* end of the spectrum serves to equip teachers with the skills they need to both perform their role and implement institutional reforms using the *training* approach. It perpetuates the performativity culture because a senior member of staff usually initiates it to deal with deficits in teachers' practice (often as part of performance management). The *transformative* end of the spectrum provides a means of critiquing institutional reforms in order to expand the possibilities of practice. It is usually self-initiated by the teacher, indicating greater professional autonomy. Between the two ends of the spectrum lie a number of models that Kennedy describes as *transitional* because they can support either of *transmission* or *transformative* purposes.

Model of CPD	Purpose of Model	
The training model The award-bearing model The deficit model The cascade model	Transmission	
The standards-based model The coaching/mentoring model The community of practice model	Transitional	Increasing capacity for professional autonomy
The action research model The transformative model	Transformative	

The *training model* is usually 'delivered' by 'experts' either away from the school or within the school during INSET or staff meetings. One of the problems with this approach is that the training is delivered out of context leading to a difficulty in connecting it to the practice of the individuals. However, Hoban (2002) suggests that it can serve a very useful purpose in providing teachers with new conceptual

knowledge that they can use to construct their own specific, context-based knowledge using the reflective process. The other *transmission models* serve this same function but vary in the way they are organized.

The *transmission models* only usually address the questions of 'what' and 'how' something can be done. Kennedy (2005) argues that one of the main conditions for successful professional development that is absent from the *transmission models* is the focus on values, characterized by questions about 'why' something needs to be done or 'why' a student reacted in a particular way?

Kennedy suggests that the *transitional models* can either increase or decrease teacher autonomy depending on how they are delivered. For example, a coach/mentor ensures that a teacher develops the kinds of knowledge and skills that will enable them to meet the teaching standards through training and didactic means. Alternatively, the coach/mentor can utilize reflective practice to enable the teacher to solve problems of practice. Therefore, this model is important to this study because it determines how a teacher works with their coach/mentor.

The 'community of practice' model follows Wenger's proposal (1998) that learning within a community occurs because of the needs of the community. The variable in this model exists in how the learning takes place. It can either be by the teacher passively addressing a deficit they have that prevents them playing a full part in the community of practice (pulling them towards the *transmission* end of the spectrum).

Alternatively, it can be that they have identified a way of improving their own practice and therefore, the practice of the community (pulling them towards the *transformative* end). This model is important to my study because it describes the effects that the context has on <u>what</u> is reflected on by the teacher.

The *transformative* approaches are particularly relevant to my study because they provide insights into how all teachers, including beginner teachers develop their practice. Weiner (2002, p. 5) proposed that "action research has practitioner development and transformation as it main aim". Burbank and Kauchack (2003) argue that this is achieved by teachers viewing research as a process that they are involved in rather than a product produced by someone else. This allows teachers to see themselves as active producers of knowledge and places them in a position of power in deciding what aspects to focus on in their practice. The result is that the new knowledge they develop is closely linked to the contexts they are working in and will therefore, have greater relevance to them as individuals. The *action research model* is characterized by teachers asking <u>why</u> questions such as why did 'that' happen' and why am I teaching 'this' rather than <u>what</u> and <u>how</u> questions.

Kennedy's *transformative model* (2005, p. 246) builds on this because it is predicated on 'enquiry' rather than just focusing on practice. The result is that teachers start to expand their horizons beyond what they have been doing in a particular context to what they could do in other contexts. It is usually made up of other models such as the *action research model*, *community of practice model* and the *coach/mentor model*.

A key feature is reflection-*on*-practice as a means of 'answering' the questions posed by the individuals engaged in the CPD. The model also enables a deepening of understanding when a teacher starts to question why they are doing certain things. For example, the question 'why is it important to manage classroom behaviour?' leads to further questions such as 'what are students learning from the strategies I use to manage behaviour?'

In her paper, Kennedy focused on the recognizable models of professional development that are found in schools in the United Kingdom. However, I am proposing that the *transformative approaches* she described can be used in an informal way, outside of the planned nature of formal CPD. Teachers regularly encounter 'problems' in their work and find solutions to them. For example, a teacher may teach a lesson and conclude that some of the students did not fully understand an aspect of the topic because of the resources used or the explanation given. In the following lesson, the teacher tackles the topic differently and finds that the students have grasped the concept and she can move on to the next step in their learning. During the intervening period, the teacher 'found' a way of transforming her practice.

A number of influences impact on beginner teachers as they develop new knowledge. Some will be influences internal to the individual and some will be external. These are considered in the following sections.

2.3 Beliefs

This study is concerned with beginner teachers' perceptions of their development of knowledge to manage classroom behaviour and is therefore, about their personal thoughts. Individuals' personal thoughts can be studied in many ways using a variety of terms such as *beliefs*, *knowledge*, *perspectives* and *conceptions*. Clandinin and Connelly (1987) suggest that because these terms all describe what they call 'personal knowledge', they are essentially the same. However, there are distinct differences between them and Pajares (1992) differentiates beliefs from the others because they can be associated with views such as 'rightness' and 'wrongness' allowing individuals to gravitate towards or away from them. Using setting in schools as an example, teachers will either agree or disagree that it is a good thing. In contrast, knowledge is factual and independent of beliefs so in the case of setting, it can be used to demonstrate how effective the strategy is in raising attainment. From this, we can see the difference between ways of thinking about something and the processes involved in developing them.

Pajares reinforces this difference between beliefs and knowledge and argues against Clandinin and Connelly. He suggests that because "beliefs influence knowledge acquisition and interpretation" (p.328), they should be studied separately. Furthermore, Pintrich (1990) urged that research should be carried out into the formation of beliefs and the influence they have on beginner teachers because it would provide teacher educators with important information to help planning ITE programmes. But perhaps the most compelling reason for considering the importance

of beliefs to this study is based on Clark and Peterson's (1986) proposition that beginner teachers use their beliefs to frame the ways they perceive and process knowledge.

2.3.1 Defining beliefs

Dewey (1933, p. 6) defined beliefs as "all matters that we have no sure knowledge of but are confident enough to act upon". Rokeach (1968) elaborated by stating that although beliefs cannot be observed or measured, they are detectable through what people say and how they act. He divided beliefs into three parts to facilitate both detection and analysis. The *cognitive component* becomes evident when a person shows knowledge of something. The *affective component* can be identified when a person shows they are emotionally aroused, and their actions indicate the *behavioural component*. Janesick (1988) stressed the importance of behaviour as the way teachers give meaning to their beliefs. However, Ernest (1989) warned that it is not always possible to determine teacher's beliefs by their actions. For example, two teachers may act in very similar ways but be motivated by different beliefs. This has implications to my study and the methods used to collect data.

2.3.2 Differences between beliefs and knowledge

Roehler *et al* (1988) define knowledge as a product of cognition and capable of evolution, whereas beliefs are fairly static. Nespor (1987) proposed a number of ways to distinguish beliefs from knowledge. He described the 'entities' that people assign

to individuals such as 'kindness', 'laziness' and 'maturity' as *existential presumptions* and argued that they are beyond the control of the teacher. *Alternativity* is a belief in something that a person has no direct experience or knowledge of such as a beginner teacher who wants his[1] lessons to be friendly and fun like the ones he yearned for as a child. Nespor also suggested an *Opposite Alternativity* based on the opposite of what had been experienced. An example would be a beginner teacher deliberately trying to behave in an opposite way to the teachers he had in his own schooling.

Knowledge of a domain can be conceptually distinguished from how a person feels about it. Teachers will often teach something according to the values they hold about its content. For example, the National Primary Literacy Strategy advocated using extracts of novels to teach grammar and sentence structure. Whereas some teachers believed in spending extended periods on reading whole novels with students so that they could go beyond technical aspects and develop a love of books. Nespor called this the *affective and evaluative aspect* of a belief. Bandura (1986) argued that this combination of affect and evaluation governs how much effort and energy a teacher puts into teaching a topic or activity. Ernest (1989) clarified this by describing knowledge as the cognitive outcome of a person's thinking and beliefs as the affective and evaluative outcomes. It is for this reason that beliefs are more powerful predictors of a person's behaviour than knowledge.

Abelson (1979), Frederiksen (1984) and Schuell (1986) all agree that knowledge is 'decomposed' into its key features and then 'stored' with knowledge with similar associations. Abelson suggested that belief systems differ because they 'store' information as episodes. Nespor (1987) agreed in part but added that beliefs have the ability to 'colour' a person's understanding of future events. For example, a beginner teacher taking a bottom set may believe that a student failed to finish a task and attribute it to laziness because of conversations he had with other teachers about bottom sets.

Belief systems do not need to be internally consistent or require consensus as the example above illustrates. Nespor calls the lack of consensus in relation to a belief *non-consensuality.* He added that the absence of group agreement allows beliefs to be less flexible than knowledge systems resulting in their static nature and powerful resistance to change. An example of *non-consensuality* is the teacher who disagrees with the way behaviour is managed but still complies with the custom and practice of the school.

2.3.3 The 'storage' of beliefs

Abelson (1979) suggested that belief systems are composed mainly of information 'stored' episodically. Peterman (1991) added that beliefs are 'stored' as mental representations together with similar and associated beliefs. A belief can become more established when it has connections to other similar beliefs, resulting in 'schemas'. Eraut (1985) favoured the idea that mental representations of prior

experiences and beliefs are 'stored' as 'photographic images' in the long-term memory. Nespor (1987) incorporated Eraut's visual idea but expanded it in two ways. Firstly, he suggested that beliefs were more than 'photographic images' and adapted Abelson's idea that they are episodes. Secondly, he expanded it to include representations of patterns held together by a *signature feeling*. A strong *signature feeling* has the effect of strengthening the connections between the components of a belief making it more resistant to change, giving it longevity and allowing it to be distinguished from other beliefs. In this respect, Nespor's description of a belief can be considered an example of a *gestalt* (Spiro, 1982) in that it is more than the sum of its parts. The *gestalt* explanation provides a way of understanding how the emotional dimension of a belief is 'stored'. The articulation of emotions is a key feature of some beliefs and is evident when a person argues for or against something.

2.3.4 The resistance of beliefs

Munby (1982) suggested that beliefs strongly influence the way a person processes new information and Nisbett and Ross (1980) found that most beliefs may only change slightly when individuals are confronted with alternative, logical explanations or evidence. Therefore, the resistance of beliefs to change is important in understanding how beginner teachers develop knowledge to manage classroom behaviour.

The resistance is due in part to the emotional dimension of a belief and partly to its origins. Rokeach (1968) explained this using what he called *derived* and *un-derived*

beliefs. He suggested that *un-derived beliefs* originate from first-hand experiences and are usually closely associated with a person's view of them self, for example, a beginner teacher's experiences of school during childhood. *Derived beliefs* are formed from secondary sources and an example would be a teacher who believes that GCSE Media Studies is an 'easy option' even though they have no experience of it as a subject taught in schools. Therefore, such a belief is likely to have arisen from discussions about the value of it as a curriculum subject with colleagues or in the media.

Un-derived beliefs tend to be stronger than *derived beliefs* because of their first-hand origins. Their strength is tested when an individual is forced to choose between a *derived belief* that conflicts with beliefs formed from personal experience. This is the challenge that teacher educators encounter when beginner teachers begin their ITE courses with a range of preconceptions formed in school as learners.

Nespor's (1987) *gestalt* hypothesis allows for contextual information to be 'stored' as part of a belief. This means that first-hand sources have the potential to include sensory detail that is absent from secondary sources. Therefore, it is not surprising that *un-derived beliefs* are stronger than *derived beliefs* because they form the central core of our perceptual understanding of the world. Their richness of data also enables us to reach a judgement about an experience at the time of perception. *Derived beliefs* require different processing to test them, involving the interrogation of what is being 'told'[2]. Secondary sources undergo a mediating process of selection and editing,

together with a reduction in the information, as it transformed onto a recording medium or into speech as a person's account.

Florio-Ruane and Lensmire (1990) proposed that beginner teachers' beliefs formed when they were students, tend to reflect a 'status quo' rather than outstanding practice. This is because they are 'stored' as incomplete episodic memories. Goodman (1988) suggested that teachers use these memories as filters to sort new experiences into ones that agree or disagree with their beliefs. This filtering provides a faster way of defining and then solving problems and as a result, uses less effort than making use of research-based knowledge. Nespor (1987) added that as teachers are confronted with hundreds of problems daily, it is likely that they make use of the fastest processes without necessarily questioning whether they are the most reliable. Nespor also added that schools are particularly notable because they contain 'deeply entangled domains' where teachers encounter a large number of 'ill-defined problems'. Simon (1978) claimed that 'ill-defined problems' have unclear goals and procedures for reaching them, together with ambiguities about whether additional background or prior knowledge will be required. Nespor (1987) added that 'entangled domains' are environments that cannot be easily separated, for example two classes with common elements such as age and ability of the students together with common subject content being taught.

2.3.5 Difficulties operating with 'ill-defined problems' in 'entangled domains'

A person can use their 'stored' schemas containing generalized knowledge to analyse well-defined problems in straightforward domains. However, 'ill-defined problems' in 'entangled domains' prevent this kind of analysis because the person cannot decide what information can be adapted to make sense of the specific situation. Nespor suggests that the only way to overcome this is to have already experienced related situations and encoded them as 'rich knowledge' in the form of actual episodes rather than using the generalized knowledge of schemas. The episodes are examined closely to identify which one best fits the problem. Nespor argued that this episodic 'storing' of beliefs holds the key to solving the 'ill-defined problems' that teachers encounter, for two reasons. Firstly, beliefs have very loose links with specific events, which allows teachers to use them to explain very different situations to the ones where they originated. Secondly, belief systems seem more suited to 'ill-defined problems' because less effort is required in applying them to new situations compared to knowledge systems that involve interrogation using stricter rules. Nespor's explanation points to beliefs being efficient but potentially inaccurate ways of solving problems.

To summarize, there is considerable agreement in the literature that beliefs involve emotions and Nespor (1987) suggested that information is held together by *signature feelings*. Munby (1982) proposed that the feelings people have about their beliefs play an important part in influencing how new information is processed and Spiro

(1982) described the 'storage' of beliefs as *gestalts* that contain triggers for feelings related to episodes or situations. However, the most significant difference between belief systems and knowledge systems is made by Roehler *et al* (1988). They describe knowledge systems as factually based, held together through processes of logic requiring internal consistency and consensus, capable of revision, evolution and dynamism. In contrast, belief systems incorporate emotions that become evident when an individual articulates a particular personal view. Beliefs can be static and do not require consensus, which renders them inflexible. In short, beliefs are basis of 'camps of thought' that are highly resistant to change even when a person is confronted with a very different reality. This is why they are important in a beginner teacher's development of knowledge about the management of classroom behaviour and therefore, significant to this study.

2.4 Teachers' professional knowledge

There is very little disagreement in the literature that teachers' professional knowledge exists but Loughran *et al* (2003) point out that it is difficult to find concrete examples of what it looks like. As a result Mitchell (1999) argued that there is a lack of agreement of what constitutes professional knowledge, making it difficult to define. Carter (1993) added that the elusive nature of teachers' knowledge is heightened because we do not have a vocabulary to discuss it adequately.

Ryle (1949) attempted to identify teachers' professional knowledge in terms of their knowledge of things and knowledge of processes. Cochrane-Smith and Lytle (1999b)

built on this to clarify teachers' professional knowledge in relation to practice. They proposed three ways of relating knowledge to practice. *Knowledge of practice* describes information that teachers have that could be used in the design of lessons to enhance teaching. *Knowledge in practice* is the application of knowledge within lessons and *knowledge for practice* is the product of reflection on what has already happened in the lesson.

Elliot (1991) argues that teachers have no clear body of scientifically-based knowledge that singles them out as professionals. The professional knowledge of teachers is diverse and drawn from a wide range of disciplines including Philosophy, Psychology and Sociology together with knowledge of child development and pedagogy. Elbaz (1991) asserted that teachers do not operate in completely idiosyncratic ways because their actions have to make sense within the overall practice of teaching and in the context of the society and its understanding and traditions of teaching, learning and the process of education. From this, it is clear that the term teachers' professional knowledge cannot be easily defined and explains why it has been highly contested for the past two decades.

In the following section, I will review some of the literature on teachers' professional knowledge in order to establish a working definition of it that can be used in this study.

2.4.1 Forms of teachers' professional knowledge

Beginner teachers' personal thoughts can be studied in terms of the knowledge they have *of, in* and *for* practice. Elbaz (1991) suggested that teachers' thinking and action are often studied as separate domains. However, Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) argued that teacher behaviour and teachers' thoughts are inseparable parts of the same event. There is considerable evidence of this in the many studies carried out with teachers. For example, Clandinin and Connelly (1986) carried out studies into teachers' knowledge and reported that the narratives and stories teachers told about their work linked their thoughts and actions. Eraut (1982) and Becher *et al* (1981) found that teachers always talked about students' work as narratives by describing what they did, what came before and after, how long it took and the effects the context had on the outcomes. Therefore, gaining access to teachers' knowledge through what they say has implications to the design of this study and the kinds of data that will be collected.

Russell *et al* (1988) argue that teachers' knowledge consists of more than what they say. This points to a far more complex definition of teachers' knowledge than a taxonomical approach. To understand this complexity involves first understanding the many different ways that teachers' knowledge has been explained and defined.

2.4.2 Propositional knowledge

Propositional knowledge is the scientifically-based knowledge of many professions but forms only a part of teachers' professional knowledge. It is commonly identified

by beginner teachers as 'theory'. Skemp (1979) describes it as a series of conceptual structures that are constructed from and tested against a person's experiences of the world. He added that propositional knowledge can be tested against acknowledged criteria. Korthagen *et al* (2001) expanded on this definition of *propositional knowledge* by adding that it consists of assertions that can be explained, investigated, generalized to many situations, formulated in abstract terms, provable, consistent, timeless until disproved and unaffected by emotions, desires or specific contexts where it is applied.

2.4.3 Craft knowledge

In contrast, *craft knowledge* is specific to knowing how to do something. Huberman (1983) first coined the term to describe the knowledge that teachers had of their practice. He described it as idiosyncratic to the person and their situation and non-theoretical because changes in it come about from 'tinkering' with practice rather than systematic analysis of data or underlying patterns. *Craft knowledge* is characterized by being about experience and as a result, its value is determined by its usefulness in practice.

Brown and McIntyre (1986) suggested that *craft knowledge* has a moral dimension. Teachers talk about the ways they care for students, the process of building relationships to inspire confidence, the need to engender trust by ensuring that students are not alienated from the work and being inclusive by providing opportunities for collaboration and recognition. Sockett (1987) summarized the moral

dimension of *craft knowledge* as being as much about the means or process used as the goals or ends.

2.4.4 Experiential knowledge

Experiential knowledge can be understood as the product of combining knowledge forms within a specific context. Kolb and Fry (1975) described it as a cyclical process that involves the teacher making use of concrete experiences and *propositional knowledge* to reflect meta-cognitively on what has gone before in order to devise a new 'plan' of action. The plan is implemented and becomes a form of active experimentation that provides further concrete experiences so the cycle can begin again. Jamieson (1994) added that to be effective, the intervening period of reflection requires the assistance of a more experienced person acting as either a mentor or coach to assist in a process of systematic thinking. From this we can recognize Schön's (1983) reflection-*on*-practice.

2.4.5 Process knowledge

Eraut (1994) described *process knowledge* or 'know how' as the specific knowledge about particular people, situations, decisions or actions. He believed that it is not possible to codify in writing or express orally this kind of knowledge as it is expressed in the practice itself. For example, the way a teacher talks to a student who misbehaves involves more than words. To attempt to convey the other aspects of the

process requires being able to find ways of describing tone of voice, expression, stance and position.

Argyris and Schön (1974) elegantly defined *process knowledge* as the 'implicit theories-in-use' that teachers employ on a daily basis. In contrast, they called the aspects of a teacher's practice that they could explain 'espoused theories'.

2.4.6 Prescriptive knowledge

Kennedy (2002) described the knowledge gained from government and institutional policies, curriculum frameworks, text books and accountability systems such as examination syllabuses and Ofsted inspection criteria as *prescriptive knowledge*. It is used to guide the procedures of a school such as behaviour management or the teaching of subjects. Kennedy argued that *prescriptive knowledge* is "filtered through teachers' prior beliefs and values and may be interpreted differently than is intended" (p. 364). However, she adds that this adaptation of *prescriptive knowledge* is not necessarily because a teacher disagrees with what is being prescribed. It may be because the teacher feels that modifications improve its effectiveness in the particular context it is being applied.

2.4.7 Personal, practical and prior knowledge

Connelly and Clandinin (1984, p. 137) described *personal knowledge* as "the body of convictions and meanings, conscious and unconscious, which have arisen from

experience … and which are expressed in a person's actions". Tom and Valli (1990) amplified this definition to include the blending of values with facts to form meanings that teachers construct from educational encounters and called it *practical knowledge*. Together, these two definitions provide examples of the ways teachers articulate their beliefs through practice.

Yinger and Villar (1986) added that teachers build up a rich store of experiences of specific situations that are 'stored' and constitute *prior knowledge*. This *prior knowledge* forms the basis of our belief systems as well as providing concrete experiences for use in the reflective process.

2.4.8 Pedagogical content knowledge

Shulman (1986, p. 8) proposed that teachers' professional knowledge is a combination of knowledge forms because *content knowledge* alone "is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill". Shulman suggested that teachers' professional knowledge comprises *content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, knowledge of educational ends, purposes* and *values*. Grossman (1990) argued that teachers' professional knowledge involved more and added two categories – *knowledge and beliefs about the purposes of education* and *knowledge of curriculum materials*. Cochran *et al* (1993) refined this list into four much broader components of pedagogy - subject matter, content, student characteristics and context.

Hashweh (2005, p. 285) proposed a definition for one of the key components of *pedagogical content knowledge* as:

> *The set or repertoire of private and personal content-specific, general event-based as well as story-based pedagogical constructions, that the … teacher has developed as a result of repeated planning and teaching of, and reflection on their teaching.*

This definition draws together much of what the other definitions (except *propositional knowledge*) contain in varying degrees. Two points are particularly noteworthy about Hashwehs's definition. Firstly, the inclusion of the idea of 'story-based pedagogical constructions' implies that to gain access to a teacher's *pedagogical content knowledge* requires that they can offer an explanation in the form of narratives, something already highlighted by Clandinin and Connelly (1987), Eraut (1982) and Becher *et al* (1981). Secondly, the importance Hashweh places on the 'personal' and 'event-based' qualities that render this form of knowledge specific to the individual teacher.

2.4.9 Tacit knowledge

Of all the knowledge forms described in this section so far, *tacit knowledge* is the most elusive to define and yet, the most significant in terms of producing a definition of the kind of knowledge that teachers possess and develop in their practice.

Polanyi and Prosch (1975) first attempted to define *tacit knowledge* as the integration of feelings and cognitive information. Polanyi (1967) described *tacit knowledge* as extremely difficult to communicate using language and illustrated it with the example of being able to recognize one face among a crowd of a thousand people. We know how we do it but cannot explain exactly how. Polanyi suggested that as *tacit knowledge* is difficult to communicate via language it must also be acquired without language. He believed that people acquire it through observation, imitation and practice.

The acquisition of *tacit knowledge* has a number of similarities to the formation of beliefs. It includes information about the feelings and emotions associated with the stimulus. For example, the teacher may develop *tacit knowledge* of the ways students respond to praise through the interpretation of their tone of voice, facial expression and sense of pride even though they are unable to accurately describe how they are doing it.

Lowyck (1986) suggested that *tacit knowledge* is processed in non-linear ways allowing holistic 'storage' of sensory information. Hoz (1986) added that *tacit*

knowledge is 'stored' as cognitive maps that are only partly generalized. Sensory information is 'stored' in the form of episodes and scanned for meaning in the same way as beliefs, while the more concrete information is 'stored' in generalized schemas.

2.4.10 A definition of teachers' professional knowledge

What is required for this study is a definition that encompasses the handling of the many forms of knowledge within particular contexts to understand specific concrete cases. The scientific-based *propositional knowledge* is the 'expert knowledge' that can be generalized and when applied to all contexts, holds true. Plato (1955) called it *episteme*. However, *epistemological knowledge* is problematic in that its application to particular context-based problems does not always produce reliable results. This highlights the difficulty of applying 'theory' to practice. The problem is not with the knowledge itself as Korthagen (2001, p. 24) so eloquently argues because it is "provable and objectively true"). The problem is in the way the *epistemological knowledge* is handled in practice. This indicates that although teachers' professional knowledge may include *episteme*, it does not explain its entirety. The definition needs to be expanded to adequately include the aspects of handling and applying *epistemological knowledge* in practice.

The common feature of the forms of knowledge described in this section (excluding *epistemological knowledge*) is that they are context-related. Nussbaum (1986) explains this as allowing the particular features of a situation to have authority over

abstract propositional principles and Korthagen *et al* (2001, p. 25) describe it as looking into "the concrete details of the case rather than some theoretical domain".

Aristotle (1955) described the ability to understand both the knowledge of the particular facts of a situation and the generalities that can be applied to it as *phronesis*. Nussbaum (1986, p. 365) sums up *phronesis* as wisdom in practice and described it as being "flexible, ready for surprise, prepared to see [and] resourceful at improvisation". I am going to qualify *phronesis* into *substantive knowledge* and *process knowledge*. I will use the term *substantive knowledge* to describe a participant's knowledge gained from a specific context about the details, facts, incidents, events and people involved. It is knowledge of the situation within the context. I will use the term *process knowledge* to describe the knowledge that a participant has of how something has been done or could be done.

Korthagen *et al* (2001) add that to be competent at doing something requires becoming familiar in perceiving situations, making judgements about them and then designing a course of action. Developing this practical wisdom takes time but more importantly it involves gaining experience that can be reflected on and processed into a personal body of knowledge *of* teaching and *for* teaching.

2.5 Beginner teacher concerns - links between experiences and needs

Concerns are part of a beginner teacher's experience at all points in the early stages of their career, starting in the pre-service period with preconceptions of what lies ahead, then during the ITE course as they reflect on their practice as part of the process of becoming a teacher and on into the future, as they consider the relationship between the purpose of education and their role. The literature on initial teacher education suggests that beginner teachers have a range of concerns in common that change as they move through the different stages of their careers.

2.5.1 Concerns as indicators of a teacher's development

Early models such as the one proposed by Fuller (1969) were based on a linear sequence that begins with teachers being concerned about themselves and whether they are able to do the work (*self-concerns*), then on to concerns about the task and the situation (*task concerns*) and ultimately, to concerns about their students and the impact they were having as teachers (*impact concerns).*

A number of later studies, notably Nias (1989), Kagan (1992) and Burn *et al* (2000) support Fuller's model but provide greater or lesser emphasis on the importance of particular concerns. For example, Kagan draws our attention to the technical concerns of teaching such as being able to explain things, managing time effectively and having knowledge of the subject. Whereas others emphasize concerns grounded in a fear of being able to manage behaviour, being able to manage the workload, being adequately planned, deal with parents and coping with multifarious tasks.

Berliner (1988) indicated that the trajectory of a 'novice' to 'expert' can be tracked by examining how an individual deals with difficult situations, Emmer and Hickman (1991) proposed that perceptions of efficacy are indicators of an individual's development and Fuller and Bowen (1975) suggested that changes in the kinds of concerns a teacher has indicates growth as a teacher. For example, novice teachers have concerns about themselves, which 'evolve' into *task concerns* as they gain some experience and overcome the fears and eventually, they gain confidence and are able to direct their focus and energies into thinking about their practice in terms of how it will enable their students to learn more effectively.

2.5.2 Concerns and contexts

The Teacher Training Agency's annual survey of NQTs (2003) highlighted concerns connected with specific teaching contexts such as special educational needs, English as an additional language and individual students with particularly challenging behaviour. The concern for dealing with classroom discipline (including challenging behaviour) is a complex one and has been viewed from a number of perspectives including:

- concerns about managing low-level disruption of individual students

- concerns about losing control of the whole class

- concerns about how to respond to very challenging behaviour

- concerns about finding the right approaches to manage the behaviour of students different age or ability

- concerns about taking on a class with a 'reputation' for misbehaving

On face value, these concerns all appear to be *self-concerns* of the kind described by Fuller (1969), especially when they are expressed by beginner teachers. For example, a teacher may feel that if they cannot manage a student's behaviour, they will fail their ITE course. Fuller would classify this as a *self-concern*. Alternatively, they may frame the same situation as a concern about a student's inappropriate behaviour becoming a barrier to their learning. Fuller would classify this as an *impact concern*. Capel (2001) stressed the need to move away from understanding 'how' concerns can be solved to 'why' they occurred as a route to addressing them. In this way, the beginner teacher addresses both the cause of the concern and the effect of the solution. To do this requires pedagogical thinking which may need to be taught using structural aids to encourage 'why' questions (LaBoskey, 1993).

Capel (2001) acknowledged the results of other research that identify beginner teachers' initial concerns for 'survival' but concluded that once they begin teaching their concerns become non-linear. For example, very experienced teachers can have *self-concerns* about a particularly difficult class in terms of behaviour, and beginner teachers can have *impact concerns* connected with the progress of a student. Watzke (2007, p. 118) supported this and found that teachers experienced concerns about similar things during their careers. What differed was the way the concern was addressed with experienced teachers either arriving at a solution in a short space of time or developing more sophisticated solutions.

Stobart *et al* (2006) carried out a study to identify the factors which contributed to teachers' effectiveness over time and why teachers do, or do not, become more effective. Although the study involved teachers at various stages in their careers, its conclusions raise the issue of the connections between the quality rather than length of experience, the ability to understand experience and the generation of solutions that improve effectiveness. The study took place between 2001-5 and was carried out during a time of continuing policy change including the introduction of *National Key Stage 3 Strategies* in English and maths, the *Excellence and Enjoyment* initiative (DfES, 2003a) and the *National Agreement for Raising Standards and Teaching Workload* (DfES, 2003b). The study involved 300 teachers (primary and secondary) drawn from 100 schools across seven Local Authorities nationwide. A mixed method approach was used, consisting of each teacher being interviewed face-to-face. This was supplemented with a value-added analysis of students' progress and attainment, annual student surveys to measure student outcomes and explorations into the differences between classes and teaching groups.

Stobart *et al*'s findings supported those of Capel and Watzke that teacher development was not linear, neither was effectiveness a consequence of age or years of experience in the classroom as a teacher. They reported that some experienced secondary teachers found some classes they taught challenging, raising a number of questions. Firstly, whether a novice to expert continuum was too general in terms of explaining teacher development and secondly, whether Fuller's (1969) model provided a reliable way of conceptualizing teachers' concerns.

Stobart el al also reported further findings that raise doubts about a linear/sequential development of teachers' effectiveness. They found that teachers' identities were not stable during their careers and were influenced by external factors such as family circumstances and the level of school support. Kwakman (2003) found that professional learning is governed by the degree that these factors are present in a school culture and so a teacher of many years service, in a school lacking them may experience difficulties in developing the knowledge needed to 'solve' new problems connected with student behaviour.

Powell and Tod (2004) carried out a systematic review of how theories were being used to explain learning behaviour in school contexts. The aim of their study was to bring together the research about theoretical explanations for learning behaviour to increase understanding of student behaviour. A further aim was to promote the idea that beginner teachers could improve their classroom management skills to promote learning behaviour through better subject teaching and by reflecting on their practice. The study consisted of a wide-ranging search of the research, written in English, published between 1988 and 2002, covering theoretical links to learning behaviour in school contexts for pupils aged 3-16 years. Electronic databases and on-line journals were searched together with hand-searching journals in libraries.

They began their study from Olsen and Cooper's (2001, p. 14) perspective that "teachers adopt strategies based on ideology, common sense or school-based effectiveness but rarely evaluated the effectiveness of the strategies in terms of how

they enabled them to manage their classrooms in ways that resulted in gains in student learning."

Their study raised a further contradiction of the sequential development of concerns because a teacher may believe that they are the cause of the misbehaviour of a student or class. Powell and Tod found that approaching such concerns from a system-perspective (Bronfenbrenner, 1992 see appendix2) and helping beginner teachers to reframe the concern from being about themselves as the 'cause' to being a 'catalyst', could result in a change from a *self-concern* to an *impact concern*. This involved the beginner teacher examining their own behaviour as part of the 'system' of the classroom and finding a way of changing it to prevent or alter the chain of events (see Schön's 'frame experiment' later in this chapter).

Hobson *et al* (2009) found that some respondents began their ITE course with various *impact concerns* around working with children in order to make a difference to their lives, help them get good jobs and learn how to be good citizens by contributing to communities.

2.5.3 Negative and positive concerns

Fuller (1969) originally defined concerns as 'problems' that teachers perceive in relation to their work. George (1978) expanded on this by proposing that a teacher's concern is something they think about and want to act on in order to resolve the 'problem'. Schön (1987, p. 74) added that concerns arise out of planned action:

If plans proceed smoothly, little thought is expended in reflection. It is when the unexpected happens that practitioners analyze and hypothesize.

However, this perspective frames the 'unexpected' in a negative way. Conway and Clark (2003) attempted to give a more balanced perspective by conceptualizing concerns as either 'fears' or 'hopes' Hobson *et al* (2009) lent support to this and identified a range of what they described as 'negative' and 'positive' concerns. They found that the negative concerns most widely shared among beginner teachers included issues related to workload and student behaviour. They suggested that the quality of relationships with students was both a negative and a positive concern among beginner teachers who reported that their students could be the source of both 'highs' and 'lows'.

The concerns about building good relationships with the students was also highlighted by Powell and Tod (2004) as a way of engaging and motivating students to collaborate and participate in lessons. Stobart *et al* (2006) supported this and found that there were strong links between teachers' concerns about their ability to manage classroom behaviour and their ability to develop positive relationships. They concluded that the quality of the good relationships could result in appropriate learning behaviours and outcomes and equally, inappropriate learning behaviours could lead to poor relationships.

2.5.4 Problems with generalizing teacher concerns

Watske (2003) raised this issue and argued that beginner teachers may share similar concerns that originate from quite different experiences. Clearly, beginner teachers

have concerns and they can be grouped and classified in various ways such as self, task, impact, hopes and fears. What is problematic is that a number of teachers may appear to share the same concern but its origins are very different.

Ghaith and Shaaban (1999, p. 495) carried out a study with 292 teachers, at various points in their careers, from a wide range of diverse backgrounds and found that the origins of the teachers' concerns were inextricably linked with their experiences and perceptions of themselves. They concluded that the concerns they had about being teachers were "more likely to be context-specific than universal" and therefore, not generalizable. Hall *et al* (1979, p. 226) agree and add that concerns about teaching are particular to the individual because they are "composite representations of the feelings, preoccupations, thoughts and considerations" that the individual has about a specific teaching task or issue. The interconnections between these emphasize the importance of concerns in their development as teachers (Van den Berg, 2002). They form the bridge between a beginner teacher's prior experiences, the context they are working in and the knowledge and skills they need to acquire to alleviate their concerns (Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1981). Therefore, teacher concerns need to be reconceptualized as either fears or hopes that individuals have that arise out of their work at a particular point in their careers. To achieve this requires emphasizing the complex, multi-dimensional nature of concerns rather than the simplicity of the staged approach suggested by Fuller and others.

What is clear from this analysis of the literature is that concerns form an integral part of beginner teachers' thinking. Although there is considerable difference in how teachers' concerns are interpreted and categorized, there is a widely shared belief that they motivate needs in individuals to develop knowledge as a means of resolving their concerns. Reframing teacher concerns as hopes and fears implies that they have an emotional dimension. This will be considered in the next section.

2.6 Emotional perspectives of beginner teachers

In this chapter, I have been arguing that beginner teachers develop their knowledge to manage classroom behaviour through a 'transformative' approach that is predicated on enquiry. Beginner teachers do not come to their ITE courses as 'empty vessels'. They will have had considerable previous experience of schools as students. Furthermore, they may also have gained recent observational experience through pre-entry programmes such as the Student Associate Scheme[3]. These experiences contribute to the formation of beliefs, values and attitudes resulting in preconceptions about students, teachers and teaching. Beginner teachers' preconceptions lead to a range of concerns and associated emotions about what lies ahead for them. For example, Hobson *et al* (2009) reported that many beginner teachers have concerns about 'surviving the classroom'. This concern can lead to an emotion of fear, especially if things start to go badly wrong for them. Equally, if things go well it can lead to an emotion of elation. Hobson *et al* also reported that the experience of becoming a teacher is an:

> "intensely demanding and challenging one, which can be the source of great reward, satisfaction and enjoyment on the one hand, yet a source of frustration and unhappiness on the other" (p. x).

Eysenck (1982), and Maslow (1943) proposed that these positive and negative emotions can enhance or inhibit an individual's ability to reflect and Ashcraft and Kirk (2001) argue that negative emotions reduce the ability to find solutions. Hobson *et al* (2009, pp. 76-77) elaborated by explaining that for many, the process of becoming a teacher is a highly emotional journey because it involves building relationships with students, mentors, colleagues and parents that "can make, break or save them". Many beginner teachers in their study reported that the biggest sources of 'highs' and 'lows' during their ITE course and induction year were associated with student discipline and the relationships they had with their students. Therefore, it is important to understand how emotions inter-relate with their development of knowledge and skills to manage classroom behaviour.

2.6.1 Emotions as enhancers and inhibiters of knowledge development

Roseman and Smith (2001) believe that the emotion process starts when an individual finds a situation provocative. They appraise the features of the situation in order to identify how it will either enhance or inhibit any of their goals or concerns. Lazarus (1991) adds that this appraisal of a situation is more sophisticated and suggests that it has three stages. I will illustrate the stages using a typical example of a beginner teacher's initial experience during their first placement:

Goal relevance

Beginner teachers often observe the class they will be teaching to familiarize themselves with both the students and the room. A beginner teacher may devise a plan to manage behaviour, particularly focusing on any potentially challenging students. One of the beginner teacher's goals is to learn to manage the behaviour so identifying students that may propose a challenge is relevant to that goal.

Goal congruence

Lazarus divides this stage into two sub-sections *goal congruence* and *goal incongruence*. Continuing with the example above, the beginner teacher starts teaching the class and finds the plan is very effective, resulting in *goal congruence* because there is considerable agreement between the plan and the goal of managing behaviour effectively. *Goal congruence* of this kind is likely to lead to a positive emotion such as pleasure or satisfaction. Alternatively, *goal incongruence* could have resulted if the plan had not worked and the behaviour had deteriorated. The accompanying emotion would have been a negative one such as disappointment or frustration.

In this example, *goal congruence* will lead to the beginner teacher continuing to develop knowledge in line with the behaviour strategies used in the plan. *Goal incongruence* causes the teacher to reflect on their practice and develop knowledge of different strategies. Alternatively, the teacher may find they experience severe

negative emotion causing a setback, preventing them from reflecting and developing new knowledge of any strategies.

Ego involvement

This last stage links the first two stages to an individual's self-esteem via self-efficacy. For example, a beginner teacher experiencing *goal congruence* will experience a feeling of increased self-efficacy, which can lead to the emotion of pride. However, in the event of the plan going wrong, the situation would be perceived as having *goal incongruence*, leading to a negative emotion such as despair that can inhibit the individual's ability to reflect and think creatively. This results in a slow-down in the development of knowledge and it threatens the individual's self-esteem.

This is known as *Appraisal theory* and is used to explain the emotions that an individual experiences as they make progress towards a pre-determined goal. However, I am proposing that it can also be used to explain the change in a particular belief or preconception that a beginner teacher may hold. A view widely expressed in the literature is that the beliefs and preconceptions that beginner teachers have prior to starting their ITE programme are very resistant to change (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996; Kennedy, 2002; Korthagen *et al.*, 2001; Tann, 1993; Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1981). When a beginner teacher begins to teach and experiences a situation that does not show agreement with a belief they hold, their appraisal results in *goal incongruence*. For example, a beginner teacher may believe that they should

be strict in the management of classes at first in order to establish their authority. The classroom atmosphere becomes one of unwilling compliance. Over time, the beginner teacher realizes that the strict approach has led to the students becoming wary and resorting to low-level disruptive behaviour. The beginner teacher's actual experience has not matched their belief, resulting in *goal incongruence*. Experiences like these can raise doubt in an individual's mind about the reliability of a belief. They have the potential to enable the individual to challenge and 'unlearn' a belief and replace it with one based on a concrete experience gained within the context.

2.6.2 Emotional stability and colleague support

Colleagues play a vital role in supporting the emotional development of beginner teachers and therefore, their dispositions to develop new knowledge and skills. Stobart *et al* (2006) found that when teachers made considerable emotional investment in their work and things went well they felt good about themselves, leading to positive emotions. When things did not go as well as they hoped, they tended to over-react and experienced negative emotions leading to an inflation of self-doubt. Hoy and Spero (2005) and Kelchtermans (1996) found that these feelings of self-doubt were more to do with the individual's perception of their competence rather than their actual level of competence.

Borko (2004) reported that this error of perception was more prevalent with beginner teachers because they had significantly less actual experience on which to base their judgements, rendering them more vulnerable than experienced teachers. Furthermore,

Barton (2004) reported that beginner teachers recognized that they felt vulnerable but did not want to reveal it to senior colleagues for fear that they would be viewed as 'struggling', which would compound their original fears. Thornton's study (1999) into the reasons for male teachers leaving the profession supports this view but suggests that female beginner teachers are much more likely to share their weaknesses or problems with senior colleagues than their male counterparts.

Borko (2004) concluded that the relationship that beginner teachers had with colleagues was an important factor in the development of their knowledge. Stobart *et al* (2006) reinforced this with the findings of their study that indicated a strong correlation between beginner teachers' positive, stable identities and the quality of support given to them by their colleagues.

Hobson *et al* (2009) recommended that ITE providers, school-based mentors and school staff should be sufficiently sensitive to the emotional states and welfare of beginner teachers to enable them to address their learning needs, including managing developing knowledge and skills in managing classroom behaviour. Therefore, influence and support of colleagues, together with a team-culture based on collegiality is significant in the development of knowledge and one of the main contributory factors in becoming an effective teacher.

2.6.3 Conflicts between the beginner teacher and the class teacher

Schluk and Segal (2002) found that some beginner teachers experienced negative emotions when there were differences between their pedagogical and behavioural approaches and those of the class teachers in their placement schools. Kelchtermans (1996) added that when staff in the placement school were unwelcoming or uncooperative, the beginner teachers experienced increases in their emotional responses. Bathmaker and Avis (2005) reported that when such differences occurred, many beginner teachers coped by deferring to the class teacher and accepting their methods, even when they did not agree with them. Bathmaker and Avis reported that the resulting emotion that the respondents of their study experienced in such circumstances was one of guilt as they felt that their students were losing out. In some cases, feelings of guilt were accompanied by shame, for example when a beginner teacher adopted their class teacher's strategy of shouting at their students when they misbehaved.

Negative emotions like these can be useful because they cause the individual to question why they acted in that way. The result can be that they terminate developing further knowledge around the use of such strategies. They re-focus their efforts in line with their own beliefs about the kind of teacher they want to become and develop knowledge of alternative strategies that progress them towards their goal.

Golby (1996), Rogers (1994) and Sutton and Conway (2002) provide evidence of teachers learning to control certain negative emotions like anger and use it to manage

behaviour in particular situations. Woods and Jeffrey (1996) describe the controlled use of the raised voice, imposing stance and stern look as 'fake anger'. However, Rogers (1994) warned that developing knowledge of this approach, including how and where to use it should also involve understanding the effect it has on students.

2.6.4 Teachers' emotions can effect problem-solving

Eysenck (1982) asserted that high levels of anxiety can lead to negative thoughts that reduce an individual's working memory. Ashcraft and Kirk (2001) believed that this can also result in a reduction in task-relevant processing. For example, a beginner teacher who is anxious about 'surviving' their next lesson will find it difficult to reflect on what to do to ensure they 'survive'. Fredrickson and Branigan (2001) suggest the opposite also applies. For example, a teacher experiencing positive emotions may generate more ideas and strategies. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) proposed that this can lead to the development of broad-minded coping skills' such as empathizing and viewing problems from different perspectives (see appendix 2, System Perspective). Pekrun *et al* (2002) added that a beginner teacher's appraisal of a situation can lead to negative emotions such as frustration and de-motivation causing them to develop knowledge of alternative strategies.

Locke and Latham (1990) found that negative emotions can not only result in individuals feeling less motivated, they can also influence the solution that is chosen with less ambitious ones being selected. In the case of a teacher, it may be they experience serious negative emotions after teaching a particular class and decide to

opt for 'survival' strategies to manage behaviour that limit the chance of incidents occurring. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) described this as an example of an 'avoidance goal' as it illustrates how powerful emotions can be in a teacher's development of knowledge. Avoidance goals involve less ambitious pedagogies such as avoiding group work and setting tasks that require the students to work silently that in turn, limit learning (see also Linnenbrink and Pintrich, 2002; Meyer and Turner, 2002 for further discussion of mastery versus performance goals and approach versus avoidance goals).

2.6.5 Links between commitment, resilience and knowledge development

Stobart *et al* (2006) found that teachers who were committed to their work had a clear idea of who they were (their identity) and the knowledge they needed to become more effective (their teaching efficacy). Hargreaves (1998) proposed that the development of knowledge is influenced by a range of interconnected factors including personal and professional biographies (prior experiences), situational, emotional and psychological aspects together with the contextual factors relating to the organization of the school and its culture.

Bryk *et al* (1990) linked these factors to a teacher's commitment to want to develop knowledge and skills that would enable them to become more effective. They found that teachers with a low commitment to their work were less inclined to engage in ways of acquiring new knowledge that would improve their effectiveness. However, Ancess (1997) argued that the factors contributing to commitment are dynamic and

not linear. Therefore, an individual's level of commitment is subject to variation during their career, resulting in both changes in their disposition to develop new knowledge and changes in their effectiveness as teachers.

Stobart *et al* (2006) found that commitment on its own was not sufficient in sustaining a teacher's disposition to develop new knowledge and solve problems and being able to handle the 'knocks' that form the daily life of a teacher is also required. Luther *et al* (2000, p. 543) called this capacity *resilience* and described it as the "risks experienced and competence achieved by individuals…encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity". Oswald, Johnson and Howard (2003) proposed that teachers who successfully overcome adverse situations on more than one occasion, develop their capacity to succeed and in so doing, increase their *resilience* to deal with difficulties, usually involving problem-solving methods and enhanced self esteem.

2.7 Teacher identity and the development of knowledge

Hobson *et al* (2009) reported that the respondents of the *BaT* study brought very individualized life-histories to their ITE and came from very different backgrounds, which resulted in them having varied preconceptions, concerns and perceptions about themselves in relation to their roles as teachers. Bramald *et al* (1995) carried out a study of secondary beginner teachers that supports this view. They reported that the respondents of the study began their ITE with very strong 'images' of teacher-role identities, which they used to guide their actions. Hammerness, Darling-Hammond

and Bransford (2005) found that beginner teachers use these 'imagined' identities to shape the way they develop during their ITE. In particular, they are used to prioritizing and focusing on the knowledge and skills they believe will progress them towards their 'imagined' identities

Beauchamp and Thomas (2006) argue that understanding the formation of teacher identity is vital to the design of ITE programmes so that the changing needs of beginner teachers can be addressed. They also believe that the formation of teacher identity involves understanding how it relates to the interconnected web of concerns, emotions and professional efficacy, together with contextual factors such as the culture and ethos of the school. I am proposing that teacher identity is central to the development of knowledge about managing behaviour.

2.7.1 Experience and identity

Lortie (1973) suggested, some 35 years ago that beginner teachers undergo a kind of *apprenticeship of observation* during their own schooling that is likely to be of greater influence on them than other aspects of ITE. Pendry (1997) found that beginner teachers brought prior knowledge of pedagogical approaches and the management of classrooms to their ITE. Younger *et al* (2004) found in their small-scale study that beginner teachers' own memories of how their teachers managed classroom behaviour had a powerful influence on the strategies they developed. These memories led to strong preconceptions of 'good' and 'bad' teachers. The respondents had very clear ideas about the polar opposites of teachers who were very

caring and used effective, instructional strategies compared to teachers who were particularly aggressive or very weak in managing classroom behaviour and as a result, were ineffective or had dull teaching styles.

Kagan (1992) suggested that dramatic events in a beginner teacher's private life can provide the basis of beliefs and preconceptions and this includes having particularly bad experiences of being at school. Raffo and Hall (2006) added that beginner teachers' beliefs of this kind could prevent them from being open to new approaches. Fosnot (1996) proposed that teacher educators should actively encourage beginner teachers to challenge their prior knowledge of what teachers did in their own schooling in terms of pedagogies and behaviour management. This is achieved through discussion and reflection in order to help beginner teachers evaluate the effect and effectiveness of the methods their teachers used and develop new knowledge of strategies of their own.

Hobson *et al* (2009) and Younger *et al* (2004) found that beginner teachers' prior experiences and beliefs were important in the formation of identity. Teacher educators should encourage individual beginner teachers to build on their own personal experiences, knowledge and skills to form their professional identities as teachers. Hobson *et al* suggest that this should be done by helping teacher educators to understand beginner teachers' starting points so that they can plan when and where to provide conceptual input and skill development.

2.7.2 Changes in identity

It is widely agreed in the literature that teachers' professional identities can change during their careers (Beijaard, Verloop and Vermunt, 2000; Hobson *et al.*, 2009; Kerby, 1991; Nias, 1989; Stobart *et al.*, 2006). As I have already stated, teachers' identities shape the knowledge that they develop. Nias (1989) argues that this becomes particularly important when a person has to face changes that impact on their identity, for example when a beginner teacher takes on a new class or changes placement school and experiences difficulties managing the behaviour of the students. Their response is to develop knowledge of strategies that they believe will prevent them from perceiving themselves in other ways. Beijaard, Verloop and Vermunt (2000) explain that the reason for this is because the beginner teacher is forced to reconsider their personal perception of being a effective manager of behaviour. This also indicates the significant influence that the school context can have in the formation of identity and professional efficacy. Stobart *et al* (2006) support this conceptualization of identity and argue that it is dynamic because it is subject to a range of factors that go beyond the school context to include events in teachers' personal lives.

2.7.3 Identity and agency

Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) argue that an important feature of professional identity is *agency*. This involves a beginner teacher's realization that they can change things. Sfard and Pusak (2005) suggest that the development of identity utilizes *agency* and professional efficacy in a cyclical way. The cycle begins when a beginner

teacher realizes that they have affected a change. They experience an increase in their sense of *agency* and confidence leading to an enhanced perception of professional efficacy. This perception acts to strengthen the individual's identity as a teacher and in so doing, reinforces the belief in their *agency* to change things.

Gee (2000) describes a number of features that contribute to the formation of identity and suggests that the process of self-evaluation that takes place as a person becomes aware of their *agency* is informed by the interaction with others. Gee calls this *discourse identity*. It occurs when the beginner teacher receives praise, support, and encouragement as well as constructive advice usually from the mentor, teacher educators and colleagues in the school. Nias (1989) explained that the advice colleagues give is influenced by the culture and ethos of the school, which encompasses a set of values that lead to specific customs and practices.

2.7.4 The influence of the school culture on identity

Carter and Doyle (1996) suggested that the context is a major factor in the formation of professional identity because it causes teachers to adapt their values and ideals in relation to the cultures of the schools. This takes place as a teacher receives recognition from colleagues and results in acceptance into the teaching community of the school. Gee (2000) added that it is a two-way process with the teacher reciprocating by showing their allegiance to the shared culture of the school and described this as *affinity identity*.

Beijaard, Verloop and Vermunt (2000) describe schools as communities, each complete with its own culture and ethos but it can also contain communities within itself. Wenger (1998) added that members of these sub-communities or 'communities of practice' can have their own views on specific aspects that differ from those of the school as a whole. Members of a sub-community may identify with each other and perceive themselves as different from the rest of the staff when it comes to particular parts of the school's culture. For example, a number of teachers may join together for mutual support when they feel that a system in the school is failing them. Membership of a sub-community like this requires that the teachers develop knowledge of the alternative strategies that both holds them together and replaces those of the 'failing' system.

Teachers may develop more than one identity within the school and see themselves differently depending on the group they identify with at a particular time. For example, a teacher may be a teacher of English and a pastoral tutor. Each of these roles brings with it, its own identity and requires the teacher to develop different kinds of knowledge to fulfill each role. In the teaching role, the priority for managing behaviour will be to ensure that a disruptive student does not interrupt the flow of the lesson but in the pastoral role, the priority will be to try to find out why the student is disruptive in lessons. Different knowledge and skills are required to enable the teacher to carry out the roles. Therefore, the individual first needs to have 'imagined identities' of them self in each role and then develop different sets of knowledge and skills to enable them to make progress towards each of the identities.

A school culture can reinforce the identity of a beginner teacher through their recruitment to a particular ITE programme. For example, *Teach First* recruits high performing graduates and promotes the idea that they will be the 'leaders of tomorrow' (Ofsted, 2008, p. 4). *Teach First* participants are placed in challenging schools with the expectation that they will 'make a difference' and be 'marked out as a cut above the other staff (Hutchings *et al.*, 2006, p. 79). In their evaluation of *Teach First,* Hutchings *et al* (2006, p. 80) reported that participants differentiated themselves from their colleagues in the placement schools by suggesting that 'normal teachers' "whinge a lot" and have a "union mentality". Evidence of this difference in perceived identity is even more pronounced because *Teach First* promotes itself and is perceived as a graduate programme that precedes other careers. The implication of this is that *Teach First* participants are 'special' and although, Hutchings *et al* (2006, p. 79) reported that participants were well received by the schools, it also highlights the effect of the publicity in potentially belittling 'normal teachers' and causing a divide.

Wenger (1998) asserted that being accepted into a community of practice is as important for an individual as perceiving themselves as being different. De Lima's (2003) illustration of this within the school context shows that when beginner teachers were not welcomed or accepted into the professional life of the department or faculty, they started to adopt an individualistic attitude to teaching as being on their own and not supported by the permanent members of staff. This was heightened

by the expectations they had received while in university setting of teaching being a collaborative process.

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999a) proposed that the development of knowledge of alternative strategies is also an important part of beginner teachers' ITE and should be built into its design. Beginner teachers need to be exposed to a number of contexts to ensure they get opportunities to learn how different schools manage behaviour. The structure of university-based PGCE courses usually involve beginner teachers completing two placements of 8-12 weeks in schools that are different, for example a mixed-gender school and a single gender school. School-based ITE routes provide beginner teachers with a full academic year of experience in the main school, which includes a period of between 2-6 weeks spent in a second school.

Although spending time working in a second school has its benefits, making the transition between one school culture and another can be disorientating for the beginner teacher leading to additional stress. The consequence is that, at the start of the placement at least, they concentrate on developing 'survival strategies' rather than expanding their knowledge of behavioural strategies. The result is that the beginner teacher endeavours to 'survive' by adopting the strategies for managing behaviour that they see working in the school. This can have either a positive or a negative effect on a beginner teacher's identity.

2.8 Links between efficacy and the development of knowledge

The concept of personal efficacy is a construct located in a person's belief system and therefore, a factor internal to the individual that influences the knowledge they develop for managing classroom behaviour. It is in turn, influenced by other internal factors including the view an individual has of them self as a teacher (their identity), how they feel about them self as a teacher (their emotions), the problems that impact on their work as a teacher (their concerns) and on their understanding of the role of teacher (their preconceptions). Personal efficacy is also influenced by contextual factors that are usually out of their control including the classes they are given to teach, the colleagues they work with and the policies and practices of the school, the government and professional organizations.

A teacher's personal efficacy is a complex combination of feelings and beliefs about them self and their actions. Bandura (1986, p. 391) described personal efficacy as "…a judgement of one's capability to accomplish a certain level of performance" firmly establishing it as a bridge between behaviour and beliefs. Bandura also highlighted the close link between knowledge and behaviour by conceptualizing personal efficacy as an important mediator connecting them. Emmer and Hickman (1991, p. 756) added that personal efficacy is more specific than the construct of *self esteem* because it focuses on individuals' perceptions and judgements of their performance capabilities rather than on the broader concept of them as 'whole people'.

Ushar and Pajares (2008) proposed that the beliefs people have of their capacity, together with the outcomes of their efforts influence the ways they behave. In particular, beliefs help determine the choices individuals make which influences the knowledge they develop to achieve those choices. Therefore, it is important to consider the sources of beginner teachers' efficacy beliefs in order to understand how they affect the choices they make when managing classroom behaviour.

2.8.1 Sources of efficacy beliefs

The sources of efficacy beliefs are found in an individual's previous experiences of success and failure in terms of the judgement of their performance against the performances of others; the praise and encouragement received from colleagues and mentors and expectations about situations they will face in the future. Bandura (1997) organized these sources into four groups:

Mastery experience - is a source of efficacy belief based upon previous successes. It can lead to feelings of confidence and increased efficacy when tackling similar or related tasks. However, an individual's confidence and efficacy can also decrease if they invest a considerable amount of effort into a task that fails.

Vicarious experience - can be a powerful source of efficacy belief originating from comparisons of personal performance to those of others. Beginner teachers will also compare their performance to previous personal performances through the process of reflection.

Verbal and social persuasion - provides beginner teachers with a source of efficacy beliefs when they are not skilled in making accurate judgements of their own performance. It involves making use of praise, encouragement and support given by colleagues and mentors. This can be either a positive or a negative source of personal efficacy, depending on how it is given. Schluk and Segal (2002) suggest that those providing feedback to beginner teachers should be aware of the powerful effects of what they say. They should frame their feedback constructively to avoid the negative effects it can have on personal efficacy.

Emotional and physiological states - can directly affect a beginner teacher's performance and therefore, their personal efficacy. For example, a beginner teacher may dread taking a particular class because of their behaviour. Their emotional response acts as a barrier to their ability to 'think on their feet', resulting in them not managing the behaviour and experiencing a decrease in their personal efficacy. The opposite can also occur when a teacher experiences a feeling of happiness because they are going to take a class they particularly like. Providing other factors do not intervene, the lesson will increase their confidence and in turn, enhance their personal efficacy. Seligman (1990) describes this as *learned optimism*.

Clearly, there are emotional dimensions that influence and are influenced by an individual's perception of their efficacy. This in turn, influences the image they have of themselves as a teacher. However, Bandura (1986) argued that personal efficacy is intricately connected to the context where the teacher works and as a consequence,

where the sources of the teacher's efficacy originated. Bandura proposed that a teacher's personal efficacy reflects the strength and potential generality of their knowledge and skills across the context as a whole, rather than only being related to one part. In short, he argued that personal efficacy is based upon a holistic perception of performance in the role of a teacher.

Gibson and Dembo (1984) devised a measure of teacher efficacy made up of two dimensions. The *Personal Teaching Efficacy* dimension consists of a belief in the techniques that a teacher knows will help their students to learn and do better in their studies. It can be summarized as an individual's belief that they have the skills to teach. The *Teaching Efficacy* dimension reflects the belief that external influences such as home circumstances, limit the impact the teacher can have on the learner to improve in their studies. This dimension can be summarized as the individual's belief about the impact they can have as a teacher. These two dimensions also provide a means of understanding the ethos of a school and I will return to this in the next section.

One of the problems of Gibson and Dembo's research was that it focused on the broad field of teaching as a whole and as a result, their instrument for data-collection had only two items that were specifically about behaviour management. Emmer and Hickman (1991, p. 757) argued that classroom management and discipline form a separate domain that is both conceptually and behaviourally distinct from a teacher's ability to bring about improvements in learning and attainment. As already stated

earlier in this chapter, the management of behaviour is a major concern to many beginner teachers who focus considerable effort on it. Emmer and Hickman believed that the Gibson and Dembo conceptualization of the influences on teacher efficacy did not fully acknowledge this and so they devised a third dimension of teacher efficacy. The focus of this additional dimension was specifically on classroom management and discipline.

Emmer and Hickman carried out a study to investigate this aspect of a teacher's efficacy with 161 beginner teachers. They used a questionnaire of 36 items that yielded data about behaviour related to Gibson and Dembo's *Personal Teaching Efficacy* and *Teaching Efficacy*. An important finding of their study relevant to my research was the discovery of the inverse relationship between a low *Personal Teaching Efficacy* and the use of peer support such as referring students who are misbehaving to a colleague's class or summoning a senior manager to give assistance. Emmer and Hickman described this as a positive correlation because it indicated that the teacher recognized that they could not manage the student themselves but understood that their effectiveness would not be compromised if they utilized pre-agreed strategies described in the school behaviour policy. Emmer and Hickman identified this as an example of the teacher's belief that the student's behaviour could be changed through the agency of the school. This separated it from a belief that nothing could be done because external factors exerted a greater influence on the student.

Emmer and Hickman's findings have a similar drawback to those of Bandura and Gibson and Dembo in that they are based upon global perceptions, across a range of contexts such as all the classes an individual teaches. As a result, a teacher may have a reduced personal efficacy belief because of the difficulties they have with just one of the classes they teach. The scale of the difficulty of the experience with the one class becomes escalated in their mind and dwarfs their achievements with the other groups. For this reason, I am going to consider perceptions of effectiveness to manage classroom behaviour in terms of specific classes. This will enable more accurate data to be collected about the problems a participant is having with a specific class, the knowledge of strategies they are developing to deal with the problems and the assessments they are making about their effectiveness.

2.8.2 Links between beginner teachers' concerns and their efficacy beliefs

A beginner teacher's beliefs can result in preconceptions that they use to judge their effectiveness. Younger *et al* (2004) illustrated this in their study. The respondents described teachers from their own schooling as either 'good' or 'bad' depending on their perceptions of the pedagogical approaches their teachers used and the relationships they had with them. Haritos (2004) concluded that beginner teachers were using memories of their teachers to explore their own beliefs and make judgements about their own performance. The outcome of the process was concerns about themselves as teachers and the impact they felt they could have on their students.

Beginner teachers' concerns about themselves can be analyzed using Gibson and Dembo's *Personal Teaching Efficacy* dimension and concerns about the impact they are having can be analyzed using the *Teaching Efficacy* dimension. For example, Capel's (2001) study of the perceptions of secondary NQTs revealed that 73% of the 49 respondents had concerns about their ability to manage behaviour. Bearing in mind the criticism made above of global perceptions of efficacy, we can conclude from this data that respondents holding this concern can be described as having a low *Personal Teaching Efficacy* in Emmer and Hickman's classroom management and discipline dimension. This correlation between concerns and teaching efficacy is important to my study as it provides a means of charting beginner teachers' perceptions of their position at any particular point in time. Beginner teachers address their concerns by developing appropriate knowledge of strategies so a link can be made between decreasing levels of concern, the development of knowledge and increasing levels of *Personal Teaching Efficacy*. The opposite can also apply, a beginner teacher with a high *Personal Teaching Efficacy*, who suddenly encounters a challenging class may develop concerns about their ability to deal with the new situation. The result will be a decrease in their *Personal Teaching Efficacy* until they have developed the knowledge of strategies that work to alleviate their concerns. However, it should be noted that this is not the only indicator used because as Martin and Rippon (2005) point out, beginner teachers lack confidence in accurately judging their own performance.

2.8.3 Efficacy, emotions and identity

I have already argued that a beginner teacher's emotions and identity influence their development of knowledge. This is supported by Eysenck (1982), Ashcraft and Kirk (2001) and Hobson *et al* (2009) in relation to emotional influences and Bramald *et al* (1995) and Hammerness (2005) in relation to identity. Stobart *et al* (2006) also found that there was a link between emotions, identity and efficacy in their study and they concluded that individuals who had positive identities of themselves as teachers reported high *Personal Teaching Efficacies*. Friedman's (2000) study reinforced Stobart *et al*'s findings by providing evidence of the inverse. Friedman's findings suggest that beginner teachers' perceptions of themselves as teachers can be negatively affected by a range of sources of stress. These include feeling inappropriately trained, unsupported by colleagues and mentors, not receiving recognition for the contributions they make to the school and being isolated. The result is a weaker sense of personal identity and a lower *Personal Teaching Efficacy*. Hobfoll's (1988) *Conservation of Resources Theory of Stress* provides a way of understanding these negative perceptions. He suggested that the stress occurs when an individual's objectives are threatened or when they invest resources into their work and it either fails or goes unacknowledged. This is more likely during periods of emotional arousal such as in the early stages of a beginner teacher's ITE, or when they have to face difficult classes.

2.8.4 The influence of peer support and relationships on efficacy

The importance of peer support was referred to in the last section. Kwakman's (2003, p. 152) study reinforced Friedman's (2000) findings and indicated that there is a direct relationship between stress and learning. She concluded that teachers "…construct their own knowledge and direct their own learning" by first creating the right kind of environment. Kwakman identified a number of factors that enabled this including a culture of collaboration so that ideas can be exchanged, solutions to problems found, feedback given and support provided. Building on Kwakman's view that collaborative activity contributes to a favourable environment for the development of knowledge, Purdon (2001) suggests that those involved will identify with each other in their efforts to expand their horizons, resulting in increases in the *Personal Teaching Efficacy*. This is supported by Hobson *et al* (2009) who reported that 79% of the respondents in their ITE year rated the support they received as 'good' or 'very good' and 88% reported 'good' or 'very good' relationships with other teachers in their school-based placements. A slightly better picture emerged from their survey of respondents in their induction year. The respondents reporting negative experiences, cited poor relations with colleagues and students as the reason. Hobson *et al's* study points to an improvement over time in the respondents' perceptions of their efficacy, based upon their relationships with students, colleagues and mentors, together with the level of support they received. Hobson *et al's* study reinforces Kwakman's assertion that favourable environments conducive to learning new knowledge develop when beginner teachers enjoy good relationships that enable them to feel supported. The result is that beginner teachers experience increases in

their *Personal Teaching Efficacy* and become more confident in moving outside of their 'comfort zone' and more resilient when they experience failure.

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) points out that increases in professional efficacy are mitigated by the level of challenge the individual faces in their work. He argued that a discrepancy between existing (or perceived) professional skills and high job challenge can lead to a strong sense of professional inefficacy (a decrease in *Personal Teaching Efficacy*), which also produces high levels of stress. Therefore, the expansion of horizons needs to be carefully planned to include the development of appropriate knowledge and skills to ensure the individual's sense of efficacy is not damaged.

There is considerable acknowledgement in the literature of the positive effects that peer support can have during ITE. Hutchings *et al* (2006) reported that the practice of placing a group of *Teach First* candidates in the same school provided a peer group for support. The practice of placing two or more beginner teachers in a school at the same time helps reduce negative effects, especially the problem of feeling isolated. It also provides an opportunity for reinforcing the identities of beginner teachers by enabling them to perceive themselves as a distinct 'group' within the school.

Obeski *et al* (1999) found that joint placements enabled beginner teachers to share their concerns, reflect as a group and produce solutions that extended the knowledge of each member. Barton's (2004) study supported this and added that groups could

also include those in the early stages of their careers. Such groups could then be formed in every school and provide opportunities for sharing successes as well as concerns so that praise and encouragement can be offered, as recommended by Friedman (2000) as a way of increasing *Personal Teaching Efficacy*.

2.8.5 Efficacy and the retention of beginner teachers

A review of the literature indicates that teachers completing their ITE with a low *Personal Teaching Efficacy* are more likely to leave the profession. MORI (2001) found that beginner teachers who either left teaching immediately or soon after the end of their ITE appeared to have lower *Personal Teaching Efficacies*. The study concluded that the specific areas resulted in this reduction were connected with the preparation to manage classroom behaviour and pastoral matters.

Hoy and Spero's (2005) findings reinforced this link between retention and efficacy. They found that beginner teachers with high levels of *Personal Teaching Efficacy* had more positive views of their ITE than those with lower levels. Edmonds *et al* (2002) proposed that one of the early warning signs that a beginner teacher was likely to leave teaching was that they were struggling to manage behaviour. Basit *et al* (2006) found that beginner teachers would endure difficulties over an extended period of time before they made a decision to withdraw from their ITE programmes. They also found that withdrawal could have been avoided if action had been taken. The respondents of their study reported that they had experienced gradual reductions in their feeling of efficacy and felt that if they had received the 'right' kinds of support;

their withdrawal could have been prevented. This raises the question of how beginner

teachers having problems can be identified and supported to find effective solutions?

Understanding the interrelationship between beginner teachers' concerns, emotions,

identities and efficacy levels and the way they relate to the development of

knowledge for managing behaviour is an important first step in answering this

question.

2.8.6 Variations in beginner teacher's perceptions of their efficacy

Before concluding this section, it is important to highlight the differences in beginner

teachers' perceptions of their efficacy. Ball and Goodson (1985) and Goodson and

Hargreaves (1996) highlighted the significant effects that events, experiences and

personal life incidents can have on perceptions of efficacy. Smethem and Adey

(2005) and Moor *et al* (2005) pointed out that these factors can have a greater effect

on beginner teachers' efficacy at the beginning of their ITE programmes because they

lacked the confidence that they were doing the right things. Goddard *et al* (2006)

explained that beginner teachers were likely to experience more failure in the early

stages of their careers. Locke and Latham (1990) added that beginner teachers who

lacked resilience were more likely to resort to avoidance strategies. Ashton and Webb

(1986) suggested that variations in efficacy beliefs between teachers is related to the

level of motivation and resilience of the individual. They identified a link between

teachers' *Personal Teaching Efficacy* and their preference for particular classroom

strategies. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that a teacher with a high

Personal Teaching Efficacy is more likely to be motivated to try adventurous

strategies that involve risks compared to a teacher with a low *Personal Teaching Efficacy* (indicating low confidence levels) who will opt for 'safe' strategies.

Stobart *et al* (2006) found that the efficacy levels of individuals varied in different organizational contexts and professional life phases. The factors that caused variations included the positive and negative influences on student attitudes and behaviour; relationships beginner teachers had with colleagues; the leadership of the school and support they provided the beginner teachers; and external policies that impact on their work.

The factors originating out of the context not only influence a beginner teacher's *Personal Teaching Efficacy*, they also influence the knowledge a beginner teacher develops for managing behaviour. Therefore, the focus of the next section will be on the context of the school as a structuring influence on the kind of knowledge that beginner teachers develop.

2.9 School culture and ethos as factors in the development of knowledge

The context is a major factor in a beginner teacher's development of knowledge to manage classroom behaviour. It can affect both the kind of knowledge they develop and the process that they employ in its development. The routes into teaching can influence how beginner teachers develop their knowledge. Dowrick (1997) highlighted this by showing that when beginner teachers followed school-based ITE

routes, they tended to be less analytical than their university counterparts, resulting in fewer forward-looking solutions. Dowrick concluded that this was because the school culture had considerable influence on their development. He also found that mentors encouraged beginner teachers to reflect on their emotional needs and as a result, their reflection was less likely to lead to the production of new pedagogical strategies and schemas.

The Ofsted (2006) report of employment-based routes into teaching confirmed Dowrick's findings. It found that beginner teachers on GTP routes tended to be more confident in classroom management than those following university-based PGCE routes. However, Ofsted also found that beginner teachers on the GTP routes had a narrower range of strategies that were limited by the experiences gained in their main school.

Smagorinsky (2003) found that the more time beginner teachers spent in a school, the more they adopted its cultures, values and practices. He suggested that because these may differ from those of the university and the professional organizations involved in their ITE, beginner teachers would find themselves facing what he described as 'ideological loyalties'. While this presents a problem between the organizations involved, the authors did not suggest that a similar problem could occur within the school itself. Schools are made up of *communities of practice* holding differing views (Wenger, 1998) and the beginner teacher has to choose between them. The choice may be between the dominant culture of a school as promoted by the senior

managers and the practices of the department as promoted by its teachers. This can result in a beginner teacher developing knowledge in line with a sub-culture of the school.

2.9.1 Experienced teachers as powerful sources of expertise

Hagger and McIntyre (2006) argue for beginner teachers spending more time in school so they can learn from the systems in use and also from the experienced teachers. However, they found in their early studies that beginner teachers could not easily identify or recognize the subtleties of thinking and action of experienced teachers and as such, could not grasp what they were doing. Bransford *et al* (2000) explain that this is because an expert teacher's performance is seamless and tacit from the novice's perspective and consequently, difficult to unpick.

A beginner teacher observing an expert needs to understand the thinking that goes into the lesson as well as observe the performance. The reason is that two teachers can appear to being doing the same things but have different reasons for doing them so simply observing the action can lead to a range of interpretations. Learning from experienced teachers requires a structured approach to observation that includes discussions about the external aspects of their classroom management and teaching prior to and after the lesson. This enables the beginner teacher to understand the experienced teacher's thinking as well as their actions. It also enables the beginner teacher to link their own reasons for managing behaviour to the knowledge of the strategies they are developing.

2.9.2 School-based mentors

Su (1992) found that school-based mentors can be one of the most powerful sources of influence on beginner teachers. Hobson (2002) reinforced this in his findings, adding that beginner teachers identified the mentoring in the their placement schools as the key element in their ITE. Nettle's (1998) findings suggest that this is because beginner teachers take on some of the beliefs of their mentors. Other research has indicated that the school-based mentors of beginner teachers on the GTP routes focused more on helping them fit in than learning about the pedagogy (Dowrick, Fraser and Taylor, 1997). This reinforces the view that the mentors were responding to beginner teachers' *self-concerns*.

Hayes (2000) conducted a study of 43 beginner teachers and found that the mentor was the key to both supporting them during induction into the placement school as well as during the period of training. The respondents reported that their mentor helped them to settle in and orientate themselves as well as supporting them in the development of professional skills and knowledge to become teachers.

In a study of 4 postgraduate ITE programmes, Evans and Abbot (1997) found that mentors interpreted their roles in different ways. Some saw themselves as supervising beginner teachers to ensure they met the teaching standards in the ways described by Furlong *et al* (2002); while Feiman-Nemser (2001) suggested that they saw themselves more as 'co-thinkers', helping beginner teachers reflect on their school-based experience, connect their practice to theory and construct their own knowledge

of teaching and being a teacher. Hobson and Malderez (2002) argue that in order that school-based mentors can be effective in this way, they need to be carefully selected, be properly trained in facilitating the reflective process and given adequate time with beginner teachers in order to help them reflect on their experiences.

Steps have been taken since 2002 in this with many ITE providers requiring their mentors attend a number of whole-day training courses focused both on supporting beginner teachers to meet the teaching standards in their own schools and also, facilitating reflective approaches to enable them to construct knowledge from practice and theory. With more schools beginning to deliver ITE, ensuring that all school-based mentors can carry out both of these roles effectively will become a challenge for the providers.

2.9.3 Conflict between a beginner teacher's priorities and the school culture

Schluk and Segal (2002) found that problems could occur when the methods used by the placement class teacher were not ones that the beginner teacher agreed with, either because of their personal beliefs or what they had learned in earlier placements. Similarly, the same problem can occur when the culture of the school conflicts with the beginner teacher's beliefs. Situations like these can lead to the beginner teacher questioning whether they 'fit in' because they hold different views. In some cases, they can start to question whether they will get the kinds of experiences they need to prepare them adequately to teach in schools with different cultures.

Bathmaker and Avis (2005) found that the common approach adopted by beginner teachers was one of *strategic compliance*, where they deferred to the placement class teacher's approach without necessarily agreeing with the rationale underpinning the strategy. Although this approach would seem to obstruct a beginner teacher's *agency* and ability to develop knowledge for managing behaviour, it does serve to provide experiences of a kind that allows the individual to confirm in their own mind that they disagree with the strategy. Haritos (2004) suggested that this is more likely when beginner teachers start their ITE course with naïve, idealistic and unrealistic teaching beliefs and are shocked when they begin teaching.

2.9.4 The ethos of the school

Wideen *et al* (1998) argued that beginner teachers only learn to teach once they begin their first substantive post. Hargreaves and Jacka (1995) found that this may not be entirely true because there are significant differences between the experiences of beginner teachers on their ITE and those in their first year of teaching. This was reinforced by Capel (1998) who reported that under half of the respondents in her study said they were well prepared in terms of planning, preparation, subject and pedagogical knowledge by the end of their PGCE but only 27% said they felt well prepared in classroom management. Capel found that by the end of the induction year many beginner teachers said they were coping better and their concerns had reduced but she also reported that a number were still having trouble with student discipline.

The school ethos is particularly important in this process in terms of the kind of knowledge that beginner teachers can develop to manage classroom behaviour. Reynolds and Sullivan (1979) described schools that used a *coercive approach* to managing behaviour relied on its teachers establishing their authority over students through power relationships. A beginner teacher trying to fit in to such a school will have to develop the kind of knowledge that supports a *coercive approach*. This includes the frequent use of emotional control through shouting, expressions of anger and overly strict regimes. Barton's (2004) study found that respondents working in schools with poor discipline looked to the senior management teams to provide stronger sanctions and be much stricter. In contrast, Reynolds and Sullivan (1979) found that teachers working in schools with an *incorporative approach* will develop knowledge of strategies that are inclusive. These can include involving students in decision-making and reinforcing the need for good relationships to increase staff-student collaboration. This review of the literature points to a strong link between the ethos and culture of the school and the kind of knowledge beginner teachers develop about managing behaviour.

2.10 Conclusion

Freire (1988) has argued that schools have a powerful structuring influence on both students and teachers. The influence is communicated through the ethos, culture and practices as well as through the organization of the curriculum, pedagogies and hierarchies within the school. Apple (1996) argues that individuals are not passive in

this process and have *agency* to either accept or try to change the structuring factors that impact on them.

The research reviewed in this chapter on the modes of professional development shows how Apple's argument is articulated in practice through the *transformative* models. It gives *agency* to teachers to determine aspects of their work through the *reflective practitioner* approach. This can be summarized as allowing teachers to see themselves as active producers of knowledge and places them in a position of power in deciding what aspects to focus on in their practice. The result is that the new knowledge they develop is closely linked to the contexts they are working in and will therefore, have greater relevance to them as individuals.

The review of the empirical studies in this chapter points towards teachers exercising *discourse* agency (being aware of their own agency) as well as *affinity* agency (demonstrating allegiance to the school or group). The studies show that teachers do this by adapting as well as adopting practices in the school. They do this in a number of ways that include being *strategically compliant* when they hold *non-consensual* views. Individuals balance compliance of school practices with the need to fulfill their own image of being a teacher. In some cases, the pursuit of identity is based on strong beliefs about the reasons for managing classroom behaviour that can conflict with the approaches in the school. This can lead to powerful emotions that impact on an individual's knowledge development.

The research shows that emotions can have positive or negative affects on beginner teachers' abilities to manage behaviour that may contradict with their intellectually derived conclusions. For example, a teacher may experience the emotion of dread about teaching a class that he has not yet taught and another teacher may experience happy feelings about a class he is going to teach resulting in the lesson going really well and him experiencing enhanced feelings of *personal teaching efficacy*. Many emotional responses have their roots in beliefs formed early in a person's life.

The section on beliefs provides an insight into a teacher's sense of efficacy in terms of what is valued and therefore, what knowledge is being developed. In particular, the beliefs concerned with an individual's reasons for managing classroom behaviour offers some conceptual and methodological starting points for the research design of my study. Beliefs reveal the roots of beginner teachers' preconceptions about what they will encounter when they begin teaching, their concerns during their ITE, the triggers for their emotions when they encounter success and failure and 'templates' for their imagined identities. Beliefs also act as 'mediators' between the structuring influences of the context and an individual's *agency*. They enable the individual to interpret the constraining contextual factors against their beliefs in order that they can evaluate the situation. The result is a new plan for how they will change their actions in order to meet goals in terms of their reasons for managing behaviour.

The review of the empirical studies in this chapter has enabled me to identify a range of conceptual tools that can be used to analyse the data of my study. However, each

of the studies on their own offer tools that only provides a limited part of the picture.

For example, the conceptual tools proposed by Fuller and Bowen (1975) for

indicating a teacher's development by changes in their concerns is not only limited by

being too general but also does not take a teacher's emotions into account. Another

example is the efficacy scale of Gibson and Dembo (1984), designed to measure a

teacher's perceptions of effectiveness. It does not fully encompass the inter-related

factors of identity and emotion in relation to the structuring constraints of the context.

These studies show that teachers have developed individual positions in relation to

the structuring influences of the context. They reinforce a 'common sense' belief that

teachers develop their own knowledge for managing classroom behaviour by

responding to the institutional structures of behaviour policies and context-specific

strategies. However, there is an absence of empirical evidence showing how teachers

have *agency* to adapt rather than adopt institutional structures by developing new

knowledge for managing classroom behaviour.

This review of the empirical research indicates that beginner teachers believe they

have *agency* to determine their actions within the structuring environment of the

school and the institution of Education. The findings of this research provides

evidence that they have made judgements about their *agency* in terms of their efficacy

and feelings related their identity and 'membership' of the communities of practice,

within their placement schools, at the particular points in time when the studies took

place. They do not provide any evidence either of the respondents' knowledge for

managing classroom behaviour developing over time or the processes they employed

to increase their knowledge. As indicated in section 2.2, the use of *agency* to develop

professional knowledge is through the *transformative* models of professional

development, which can best be described as utilizing the *reflective practitioner*

approach. Therefore, before going on to devising a theoretical framework that utilizes

the conceptual tools identified in this chapter to chart the development of their

knowledge for managing classroom behaviour, it is important to review the literature

on reflection. This will enable beginner teachers' thinking to be conceptualized as a

dynamic process that takes place over time.

Chapter 3 Theoretical models for the development of knowledge

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, I set out the factors that influence a beginner teacher's development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. I proposed that these factors can be viewed as either 'external' or 'internal' to the individual. The 'external' factors reside within the context and structure the kind of knowledge the beginner teacher develops. The 'internal' factors enable the individual to exercise a degree of self-determination in constructing their own interpretation of their work.

The aim of this chapter is to develop a theoretical understanding of how beginner teachers think and plan to manage classroom behaviour. I begin in section 3.2 by reviewing the literature on the use of reflection as a 'tool' for developing knowledge. I will consider the work on reflective practice as a key aspect of the transformative process in the development of beginner teachers' knowledge and skills. I critically evaluate Schön's theory (1974; 1983; 1987) on reflection-*in*-action and propose that it can be used to understand how beginner teachers manage classroom behaviour by observing how they react to on-the-spot situations. I go on to suggest that Schön's theory on reflection-*on*-action can form a useful frame for understanding how beginner teachers manage classroom behaviour in pre-emptive ways. I will do this by interviewing them about how they plan to deal with situations and observing their plans in action. Although Schön's work on reflection *in* and *on* action forms a way of framing the classroom events and beginner teachers' (re)actions to them, it falls short

in providing a means of understanding the processes that beginner teachers utilize as they reflect on their actions.

In section 3.3, I pause to provide an examination of two processes for solving the problems before going on to propose how these thought processes can be conceptualized as models. Section 3.3.1 is an examination of the heuristic process and how it can be used to solve problems in lessons as well as between lessons. Schön's *Frame Analysis* is examined as a means of re-conceptualizing problems by reflecting-*on*-action in the intervening periods between lessons. I draw on Bronfenbrenner's (1992) work on *System Theory* to explain how this works in practice.

In sections 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6, I examine two theoretical models used to explain the process of planning responses to problems. Schön's reflection-*in*-action theory is critiqued using Miller *et al's* (1960) *single-loop* model as an alternative way of conceptualizing how a person reacts in a reflex or intuitive way to situations in actuality. Skemp's *double-loop* model is then used to build upon Miller *et al's single-loop* model as a way of understanding and supporting Schön's theory of reflection-*on*-action. The achievements of these three sections are two theoretical models for explaining how beginner teachers react to or pre-empt situations requiring them to manage classroom behaviour.

3.2 Reflection as a 'tool' in developing beginner teachers' knowledge

In chapter 1, the conflict between the performativity approach comprising competencies and standards versus the constructivist approach of reflective practice was considered. Murray (2012, p. 22) argues that despite the push for a performativity culture in teacher education, the results of recent research show that teacher educators are 'resisting' the "tyranny of measurable performance outcomes" by "continuing to engage in traditional and elaborated forms of pedagogy". This includes placing the emphasis on developing the reflective skills of beginner teachers to enable them to make sense of their experience and construct new knowledge and approaches thereby; expanding their horizons of what is possible rather than limiting them by identifying deficits in their competency as teachers.

The experiences that most beginner teachers will have had of education, prior to beginning their ITE is likely to have been of the formalized kind consisting of the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to student within the classroom context. Therefore, the practice common to many ITE courses of learning from experience through reflection will be new to them, and as such, they will need to be taught the process.

3.2.1 Dewey on reflection

The importance of a teacher's experience as a valuable stimulus for learning was promoted by Dewey (1938, p. 44). He believed that the value of an experience comes when an individual perceives something relevant in it that enables them to construct

meaning. Experiences are located in time and the individual links the past and the future through meaning-making. He argued that individuals may not be able to control the experiences they have but they can control the meanings they make from them.

Dewey (1933) coined the term *reflection* to describe a disciplined way of thinking that is used in the learning process. He suggested that the process begins when an individual experiences *disequilibrium* (sometimes referred to as *perplexity*) caused by a situation that they cannot fully understand. He described the feeling of a learner in this position as unsettled and in a state of *disequilibrium*. This feeling drives a need to find a resolution so that they can return to a state of balance or *equilibrium*. His use of terms such as *disequilibrium* and *perplexity* imply the existence of some kind of instability and when used in juxtaposition with "definite units that are linked together" suggest that something is incomplete (Dewey, 1944, p. 150). His reference to the notion of "sustained movement" implies that the process is dynamic and has the potential for growth and his use of the phrase "common end" shows that a point of stasis or *equilibrium* can eventually be reached. Dewey describes this point as becoming "whole".

Dewey proposed that individuals find some situations unsettling, causing them to become perplexed and identified their initial response as an emotional one. This is important because individual will attempt to resolve a situation with a reflex action, for example shielding one's eyes from a dazzling light, or a cognitive response based

on earlier experiences. Dewey goes on to describe reflection as identifying the 'problem' in the experience and then formulating it into a question. This suggests that it takes place after the initial stimulus and requires the willingness of the individual to hold back jumping to the first conclusion that comes to mind and focus in on what is missing in terms of a meaning to enable answers to be found that will balance the *disequilibrium*. Eventually the individual settles on one 'answer' that becomes the basis of what Dewey calls *intelligent action*. This action is tested resulting in more questions and more potential answers. From this we can see that Dewey's reflective process is an iterative one, however his description of how an individual develops 'solutions' into schemas is sketchy.

In the next section, I will consider Schön's work on reflective practice in order to answer this question.

3.2.2 Schön on reflection

Argyris and Schön (1974) proposed that people use their previous experiences to build mental maps or *theories of action* to guide their future actions and there are two kinds of theories involved. There are the ones that underpin what we do in practice, which they called *theories-in-use* and there are those that we articulate in words when we describe them to other people, which they call *espoused theories*.

Argyris and Schön (1978, p. 2) believed that learning from actions involves identifying and correcting a problem in the action. This is achieved either by making

changes to the action itself, which they called *single-loop* learning. Alternatively, the *theory-in-action* under-pinning it could be adjusted, and they called this *double-loop* learning. It is this idea of single and double loop learning that makes Schön's conceptualization of reflection different from Dewey's theory. Finger and Asún (2000) explained that it avoids having to go through the whole reflective process described by Dewey in order to learn new ways of doing things. All that needs to be done is to make adjustments or modifications to the *theory-in-action*.

Schön expanded Dewey's explanation to include two models of reflective practice, reflection-*in*-action and reflection-*on*-action. Reflection-*in*-action involves making adjustments to how something is being done at the time and can be recognized as 'thinking on your feet'. Schön illustrated this using his observations of an architectural student being tutored by her teacher. The tutorial spanned approximately 20 minutes and involved the teacher reflecting on the student's design and making suggestions for how it could be improved. It was a dynamic process, with the student responding to the teacher's suggestions with questions to clarify particular aspects of the design and both of them made modifications to the drawing. Schön (1987, p. 28) described the process of making revisions as the "action" and the revisions themselves as "on-the-spot experimentation". It is this "action", happening within the situation, which separates reflection-*in*-action from other types of reflective practice.

Many of the interactions that teachers have with their students as they manage their behaviour are spontaneous and short-lived making Schön's explanation of reflection-

in-action problematic. Eraut (1994) argued that the short time-span between the stimulus and the response in these kinds of interactions points to them being reflex actions. Munby and Russell (1989) reinforced this view by arguing that rapid responses (of the kind that teachers make when dealing with 'misbehaviour') do not show a clear distinction between the elements of the experience and the elements of the cognitive thought that had been identified by Dewey as *intelligent action*.

Examples of the reflex actions that teachers may make to deal with misbehaviour can include saying "Ssssh!" to get them to be quiet, telling a student to "return to your seat" when they have got up without permission and saying "don't shout out" when they do not put their hand up to answer a question. These reflex actions are intuitively selected from a range of strategies stored as *mental structures* that the teacher has acquired from either their own experiences of school as students or by reflecting on their practice as the class teacher. As they have not resulted from analytical deliberation within the situation, they cannot be considered to be examples of reflection-*in*-action. Therefore, an alternative explanation for these kinds of teacher responses is required. I shall return to this later when considering the work of Miller *et al* (1960) later in this chapter.

Schön's reflection-*on*-action theory is less problematic and provides a useful model for beginning to understand how teachers make sense of experience to generate new ways to manage classroom behaviour. The basis of this form of reflective practice is that we cannot have a full understanding of situations before we enter them.

However, we can plan generalized strategies for how we will act and then modify them using the dynamic process of reflecting on our experience in order to learn more about the way we reacted and the changes we can make to improve matters. Schön described the collections of strategies that we might draw on in a particular situation as a *repertoire*. The *process* of reflection-*on*-action involves thinking, in a structured way about a situation that has occurred and designing a strategy that can be used to improve our performance the next time it is encountered. Both Dewey and Schön saw the possession of a collection of images and ideas for strategies of action as essential to reflective thought.

Schön went a step further by proposing that sometimes a person cannot construct a new description from the 'problem' so they construct a different way of framing it. Schön called this the *frame experiment*. For example, a teacher finds that a student shouts out rather than putting put up their hand when they want to answer a question. The teacher reflects on the 'problem' and realizes that despite reminding the student each time they do it, no change occurs. Eventually, the teacher decides that the 'problem' can be re-framed by involving the student and getting them to make a note in a table each time they forget to put up their hand. Together, they review the results and the student starts to realize the extent of the 'problem'. Then over time, they start to set targets to try to reduce the 'problem'. This re-framing is particularly important to my study because it indicates how reflection-*on*-practice can be used to develop new theories.

3.2.3 The impact of preconceptions on the reflective process

Schön's reflection-*on*-practice can be described existentially as requiring individuals to view their actions as if they were observers. Boud *et al* (1985, p. 11) suggested that the "reflective process is a complex one in which both feelings and cognition are closely related and interactive." For it to be successful, the individual needs to be honest about what they 'see' when reflecting and critically objective in the way they interpret the experience. Furthermore, they need to possess a 'model' for what they are trying to achieve in order to evaluate the action and identify the 'missing' steps.

Lortie (1973) argued that beginner teachers have acquired 'models' or *mental structures* of teaching after spending many years in classrooms as students observing teachers. He called this the *apprenticeship of observation*. LaBoskey (1993) added that they do not begin ITE programmes as 'blank slates'. Eisner (1985, p. 92) described this process of observing and understanding what has been experienced as *connoisseurship*. However, there is a definite distinction between experiences derived from student perspectives and those acquired once they start teaching. These differences can result in misconceptions about the work of a teacher because they are incomplete, lacking the dimensions of what the teacher was trying to achieve, how they felt and why they were acting in particular ways. LaBoskey argued that beginner teachers' misconceptions block or hinder learning new information. The result will be that some beginner teachers will have a greater disposition for reflection as a means of growth and inquiry, leading to more rapid development as *pedagogical thinkers*. She described these beginner teachers as *alert novices* because they have a clear

vision of the pedagogical aspects of teaching and are able to benefit from reflective practices. At the other end of the continuum are beginner teachers with misconceptions about the role of the teacher that she described as *common sense thinkers*. It is harder for these beginner teachers to develop into *pedagogical thinkers* because they tend to ask mainly 'what' and 'how' questions of a technical nature. LaBoskey suggested that to change, they need to have powerful classroom experiences that challenge their misconceptions and prompt them to ask 'why' questions.

Whilst I agree with LaBoskey's explanation, it is possible that individuals develop a disposition for growth and inquiry in some areas of their work, leading to *pedagogical thinking* in those aspects while at the same time, being hindered by particular misconceptions in other areas, resulting in difficulties in finding solutions. LaBoskey stated that *common sense thinkers* need to have powerful classroom experiences to reflect on in order to challenge their misconceptions. However, I am proposing that a beginner teacher may suspend a particular 'misconception' in order to try out new strategy. Then, if the strategy works successfully, the beginner teacher changes their view or belief. Alternatively, they may continue to use the strategy without changing their original belief because it serves a purpose.

The practice of reflecting solely on experiences can be limiting, especially if the range of experiences that an individual has had is not broad enough to provide

alternative solutions to 'problems'. With this in mind, the next section focuses on the way that 'theory' is used in the process of reflecting-*on*-practice.

3.2.4 Theory and the reflective process

Zeichner (1996) argued that not all experience is beneficial and beginner teachers need to be discerning both in how they use experience and careful about relying on it at the expense of other sources of knowledge. Hagger *et al* (2008) added that simply 'looking back' on practice has its limits. Evans (1997) had previously advocated that beginner teachers need to be helped to make connections between their practice and theoretical knowledge. Lunenberg and Willemse's (2006) research into the work of teacher educators describes a structured approach for integrating theory into practice. It begins with the teacher educator identifying a theory relevant to the beginner teacher's particular 'problem'; together they identify from it the principles that apply to the 'problem'; the principles are translated into practice; the practice is evaluated against the original purpose of the theory and the cycle is repeated if necessary. The result of this is a transformative improvement (see Kennedy's model earlier) with theory being integrated, rather than driving practice.

Hobson *et al* (2009) conducted a large longitudinal study between 2003 and 2008 aimed at exploring the experiences of teachers from the start of their training through to their fifth year as qualified teachers (known as the *Becoming a teacher study or BaT*). They used a mixed-method approach consisting of self-complete questionnaire surveys, case study interviews, telephone surveys and case study e-journals. The total

population of 10,672 respondents was organized into six groups called *Waves* (see

Appendix 3 for the frequency of data over the period of the study).

The study revealed that many beginner teachers shared a preconception that learning

to teach would be based on gaining experience in the classroom and 'learning by

doing'. The study also reported that respondents regarded the 'theoretical' aspects of

their ITE course as being the formal academic input that they received at the higher

education institution (HEI). For example:

> *Ruth felt that the most valuable support had come from her colleagues "telling you when*
> *they think you've done something well and giving you suggestions and ideas" (p. 195).*

The difficulty with this approach is that experienced teachers are not always able to

articulate the specific features of what they do that could be of benefit to the beginner

teacher because their knowledge is "largely tacit and embedded in practice" (Hagger

and McIntyre, 2006, p. 37). What is required is an effective process of reflection that

makes use of both the beginner teacher's personal experiences, the mediated theory of

the mentor, together with their guidance in interpreting observation data.

Evans and Abbot (1997) suggested that mentors should be confident in introducing

theory into the reflective process. Hascher *et al* (2004, p. 635) amplify this and added

that it is the mentor's duty to ensure that the beginner teacher learns how to use

theory to reflect on their practice to prevent "essential learning aspects being lost

during the teaching placement resulting in the gap between theory and practice

persisting or even deepening".

So, according to Hobson *et al* (2009), many beginner teachers hold the view that they will learn how to teach and manage classroom behaviour by experiencing and 'doing', and the comments made by the respondents in the case studies of the BAT project support this:

> *I can't go and read a book and find out how to sort out classroom management or difficult children (Mark, p. 188).*

Another respondent commented that:

> *You can read all the theory books you like but when it comes down to using it, its gone (Simon, p. 220).*

The case study respondents of the BAT project reported that what was of more value than the lectures was the advice and guidance they received from experienced colleagues, together with the INSET in the placement schools and reveals the differences in the ways that theory can be interpreted. It shows that theory can be understood in a number of ways, there are the 'big' theories associated with the academic lectures; there are the 'utilitarian' theories associated with practice and there are the 'personal' theories, constructed as solutions to the problems that individuals experience. They differ in how they are acquired and where they are used.

One of the findings of the study into teacher supply and retention across six London boroughs carried out by Hutchings *et al* (2000, p. 30) was that beginner teachers preferred practical advice rooted in experience over theory of the kind they gained in the HEI or from reading books. Their preference was based on a very natural concern to 'survive' in the classroom. However, once they gained substantial experience, their concern for 'survival' faded and they started to look to theory to explain their actions and stimulate new insights and solutions into problems.

This raises important issues for the development of ITE. Firstly, beginner teachers' concerns about 'survival' need to be addressed early on so that they can begin to make effective use of theory in their practice. Secondly, beginner teachers' understanding of what is meant by 'theory' needs to be broadened to include the ideas given by mentors and colleagues in the form of mediated theory and thirdly, beginner teachers need to learn how to improve their practice by incorporating research evidence into their reflection (Petty, 2006; Wilkins, 2012) to develop new knowledge (Kwakman, 2003) to construct theories of their own (Argyris and Schön, 1974).

3.2.5 Korthagen on the integration of theory into practice using reflection

Korthagen *et al* (2001) furthered the debate about how theory is incorporated into the reflective process through their *Realistic Approach to Teacher Education*. They argued that theories that are empirically based, generalized and abstracted from practical situations are of little use to beginner teachers unless they are integrated into practice. They proposed that action alternates with reflection through the interaction between practice and theory and the alternation between classroom experience and interventions in the form of suggestions from mentors and teacher educators (Korthagen, 2002).

Korthagen also argued that beginner teachers cannot prepare for every type of situation because the educational 'landscape' is continually changing so they need to learn how to gain knew knowledge in order to solve the new 'problems' they will face. He asserted that beginner teachers needed to reflect on their practice and draw

on knowledge that was relevant to the 'problem' rather than acquiring 'stores' of theory in advance. Hatton and Smith (1995) described this use of reflection as a process of translating experiences into dynamic knowledge leading to the construction of personal theories.

Korthagen also argued that if reflection was to be an effective tool in solving 'problems' of practice, it stood to reason that the more experience and relevant theory that beginner teachers had access to, the more likely that solutions would be found. Therefore, the more practice they get, the more they have to reflect on. In this way, reflection becomes the basic tool for developing knowledge and turning it into action in the classroom. Korthagen's emphasis on beginner teachers' experience and how they perceive/reflect on it indicates the importance of the context as both the site for the production of knowledge and on what knowledge is developed.

The motivation to begin to develop knowledge about how to act in specific situations (rather than the acquisition of generalized, abstract, epistemological knowledge) follows Maslow's (1968) work on satisfying needs. He proposed that human action is driven by satisfying personal needs. The classroom triggers a need in beginner teachers to reflect on 'problems' that threaten their 'survival' and in turn, creates a need for epistemological knowledge to suit the situation. The *Realistic Approach to Teacher Education* described by Korthagen *et al* (2001) enables beginner teachers to address both the reasons that underpin their future actions (cognition) and also the

concerns that they have about themselves (emotions). This reinforces the view of Boud *et al* (1985) that emotion and cognition are interlinked in the reflective process.

This review of the literature points to teachers managing classroom behaviour in two distinct ways. They are either reacting to 'misbehaviour' in a reflex way or pre-empting it by developing plans that reduce the likelihood of it occurring. Understanding how beginner teachers develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour involves disentangling these two approaches and will be explored in the next section.

3.3 Approaches to problem-solving

Reacting to behaviour in the lesson requires a different kind of problem-solving than finding solutions to problems that have already occurred but not resolved in a satisfactory way. One involves thinking 'on-the-spot' and coming up with a response while the other can be considered over time, researched, discussed with colleagues to produce a strategy that can be trialled. In the following section, I will review two approaches to problem-solving. The heuristic approach has the potential to solve problems encountered during lessons or in the intervening periods between them. The *Frame Analysis* approach is not as flexible and is really only suitable for devising solutions after the problem has been experienced.

3.3.1 The heuristic approach

Miller *et al* (1960, p. 167) proposed that most people solve problems using a heuristic approach rather than devising exhaustive, systematic plans. This is achieved by carrying out a question and answer dialogue and going through their 'store' of related problems searching for similarities the one(s) that give the best fit. When there is no prior experience, they may restate the problem with slightly different characteristics that will lead to a solution, which can be applied to the original problem to move them nearer to a solution.

Several examples of this can be found in everyday life. A person may engage in a process that involves applying rules similar to the way a word can be found in a crossword when certain letters are known, for example, 'q' is followed by 'u' and only certain consonants can go together in particular ways such as 'ck'. Another strategy may be to try to transform the problem by either breaking it up into smaller problems that they can solve. This approach is commonly used in the mathematics teaching. For example, adding 27 to 15 can be achieved by breaking up the problem into a number of smaller stages. The tens and units are separated into 20 and 7; 10 and 5. The tens are added together to make 30; 7 and 5 are added together to make 12; 30 is added to 12 to make 42. Sometimes working backwards provides a useful strategy for breaking up the problem, for example, a division problem such as 'how many lots of 8 in 72 can be solved using the multiplication table for 8; 9 x 8 = 72; there are 9 lots of eight in 72 (Polya, 1992).

Poincáre (1952, pp. 50-51) described the heuristic process of discovery as "discernment and selection" because it is a search for useful rather than useless combinations. The drawback of the heuristic approach is that it can result in useful solutions being overlooked. However, it is less time consuming than systematically going through every possibility, which is what makes it so useful to teachers who need to be efficient with their time. The heuristic process provides one of the ways for beginner teachers to find solutions to problems when they engage in Schön's reflection-*on*-action.

3.3.2 The Frame Analysis approach

An alternative method of problem-solving is *Frame Analysis*. Schön (1983) suggested that when a person encounters a problem they carry out a heuristic survey of their 'stored' experiences in an effort to find a mental construct of a similar experience that can be used to form the basis of a 'new description' or solution for the problem. Sometimes it is not possible to construct a 'new description' because the demands of the problem seem incompatible with the person's normal approach. On reflecting on the values and behaviour that the person brings to the situation, they may conclude that the 'error' lies in how they framed the problem and their response.

Frame Analysis is a way of approaching the kinds of problems that do not appear to have solutions. Instead of focusing on the 'objects' within the frame, the individual focuses on the frame itself. The solution is reached by adopting a different perspective or way of framing the problem. This re-framing also involves a value or

belief shift. Bronfenbrenner's (1992) interpretation of *System Theory* illustrates how this happens. For example, a teacher with a *coercive approach* to managing behaviour finds that a student keeps shouting out answers rather than putting his hand up. As a result, he was frequently punishing him with detention. He blamed the student and attributed his behaviour to the poor parenting he was receiving at home. After discussing the student with colleagues, he decided to re-frame the 'problem' by examining how he dealt with his behaviour. He adopted a different approach by turning the questions into mini tasks that involved students working in pairs. The result was that his shouting out diminished.

The essential difference between these two approaches is in how they are employed. The heuristic approach has the potential to be utilized to solve problems both reactively and pre-emptively whereas the *Frame Analysis* approach is used to devise a solution that then needs to be tested in practice. In the next section, I will look at how reactive and pre-emptive problem-solving can be understood in terms of the different planning processes that a person goes through.

3.4 Indentifying and conceptualizing behaviour 'on-the-spot'

Schön (1983) puts forward two theories to describe how professionals make decisions. In the first, he uses the term reflection-*in*-action to cover thinking while in the situation. This is problematic because 'on-the-spot' situations require split-second responses so it is doubtful whether 'reflection' is possible. This way of improving performance is spontaneous, automatic and demonstrates increased mastery but

leaves little time to incorporate any kind of considered reflection. Munby and Russell (1989) suggest that Schön does not distinguish clearly the elements of experience and the elements of cognition in his explanation of reflection-*in*-action. This lack of clarity is particularly evident when applied to teaching situations. For example, a teacher asks the class a question and a student calls out instead of putting up his hand and waiting to be chosen. The teacher has a number of responses available that could include reprimanding the student for not raising his hand then asking another student to give an answer. Alternatively, he could take the student's answer, thank him for being keen to answer and remind him to raise his hand in future or he could take an answer from another student with their hand up and thank them for raising their hand and waiting to be chosen. In these cases there is very little time for reflection. The teacher rapidly reads the situation and acts intuitively. Skinner (1968) describes this as a reflex action based on previous similar experiences.

There are cases where a teacher will have a short time to deliberate. Consider the following example, a teacher walking around the classroom while the class is working quietly, notices a student not working. He watches the student to see if he eventually starts the work and during that time deliberates on whether to intervene and if so, which approach he will use. This example differs from the examples above in that it illustrates what Eraut (1994) calls 'time-out of action' allowing him to reflect on what to do rather than make a reflex action. This example is nearer to Schön's reflection-*in*-action because it allows this analytic dimension to be included.

Many of the decisions that teachers make involve deciding on a course of action 'on-the-spot' and are probably nearer to the first example. These responses will be intuitive and therefore, not examples of reflection-*in*-action. The second example provides a much clearer illustration of reflection-*in*-action in a teaching situation and highlights the importance of time in the reflective process. What remains unclear is the process of deliberation that connects the stimulus to the response when a person reflects-*in*-action.

3.4.1 The reactive approach - a director system for managing 'on-the-spot' behaviour

Miller, Gallanter and Pribram (1960) suggested that intuitive reactions of the kind teachers experience when they encounter unwanted behaviour begin with the recognition that an *incongruity* has occurred between what they expect to happen and what is actually happening. For example, a teacher begins with a plan of the class working in silence, which consists of an internal representation of the outer world. When a student starts to talk, an *incongruity* in the plan occurs. The *incongruity* is the stimulus sensed by the teacher who tests/compares inputs against some pre-established criteria - in this case, the student needs to stop talking, and then the teacher responds reflexively - by warning the student who then stops talking. The result of the action is then retested and if the *incongruity* persists, the student is warned again. Miller *et al* call this the *recursive feedback loop* and it continues until the test shows *congruity*. The process ends when the behaviour has either stopped or

been modified resulting in an exit from the system. Miller *et al* described this as the *Test-Operate-Test-Exit* model or TOTE.
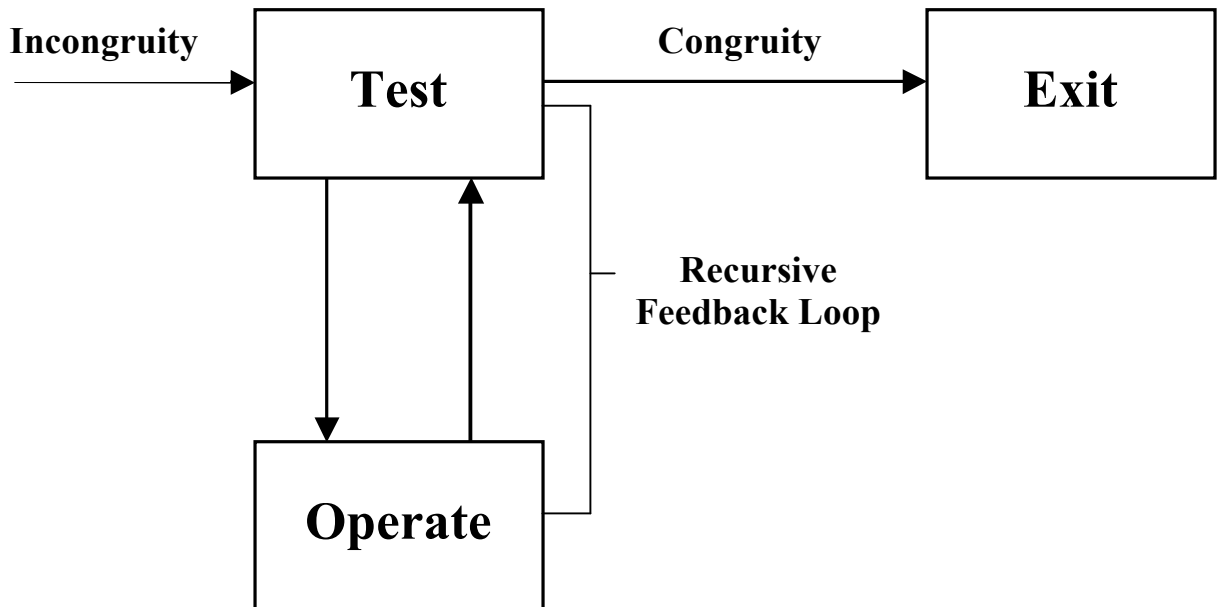
Adapted from Miller *et al* (1960)

There are two kinds of reflex action: *Wired-in Plans* are innate behaviours such as pulling away from heat. They function only in the environments for which they were intended such as touching a hot saucepan. Whereas, *Habit Plans* are learnt through repetition until they become automatic so they appear 'wired-in'. Writing is an example of a *Habit Plan* that involves the formation of letters and spelling of words, which eventually become habitual with practice. Individuals cultivate distinctive handwriting styles and sometimes develop errors in spelling in grammar. It is very difficult to change a handwriting style or correct spelling errors once they become habituated. Beginner teachers form *Habit Plans* from their prior experiences of observing teachers managing unwanted behaviour. These plans are intuitive and can

be difficult to change, often requiring conscious effort and help from more experienced colleagues.

Miller *et al's* TOTE model provides a more reliable description of what could be happening during a reflex response than Schön's reflection-*in*-action theory. We sense an *incongruity*, make automatic comparisons with the *mental models* formed by our previous experiences and act reflexively rather than reflecting consciously. The *incongruity* is tested and if it still exists the *recursive feedback loop* is activated. When we are finally satisfied that the situation has been resolved the TOTE unit is exited.

When a teacher is confronted with a behaviour problem that they have not had experience of or devised a plan for, they will respond using a reflex action that is influenced by pre-formed *mental models*. I call this reaction to incidents of unwanted behaviour using either a reflex or intuitive response, the *Initial Response stage*.

3.5 Differences between 'on-the-spot' responses and planned responses

In contrast, Schön's reflection-*on*-action of looking back at actions is a much more plausible explanation for what beginner teachers do after they have encountered behaviour issues. It is done between situations and has the distinct possibility of allowing deliberation to produce new actions for the future. It begins by the teacher reflecting on their actions and becoming consciously aware that they may need to

design a better way of responding. The starting point of reflection-*on*-action will be an 'image' of the event with 'parts' of the plan they used missing.

Miller *et al* suggested that the TOTE model could be used to consciously formulate plans in these situations. They proposed that the process begins by the individual having a motive for the production of a plan. Motives are made up of two parts, the *value* based upon the teacher's beliefs and the *intention,* drawn from the individual's knowledge systems and *repertoires* for action. The *value* refers to the 'image' the individual wants the situation to be like and in the case of a teacher, the image will be the way he wants the class to behave. The *intention* refers to the plan the teacher produces to respond to the *incongruity* between the way he wants the class to behave and the way they are actually behaving. When the *incongruity* poses a 'threat' to the teacher's image of how he wants the class to behave, the *intention* triggers the pre-prepared plan.

Miller *et al* believe that we all have a number of plans in use at any one time, for example, a teacher will have subject plans for dividing up the topics over the year, pedagogical plans for the teaching of particular topics and behaviour plans for managing the class. Each plan will be made up of sub-plans or *repertoires*, for example, behaviour plans are made up of a hierarchy of sub-plans to deal with a range of potential incidents such as talking out of turn, calling out, getting out of seat etc. Each sub-plan will have a chain of steps and the teacher will switch between

these plans when the situation requires and return to a previous plan, knowing where they were.

Many plans are formed using prior experience and preconceptions. For example, I have developed some skill playing tennis, I bought a book full of recipes for making cakes, I have some knowledge of how to get to Cornwall by car having travelled part way along of the same routes on my way to Devon. While I have no need for these plans at the moment, they remain 'stored'. Once I have a need such as going to Cornwall, I start to think about the incomplete parts of my plan and how I will address them such as whether to use the motorway or the A-roads and whether I will go through or around London. This focus on what to do about the incomplete parts of plans is what Schön described as reflection-*on*-action.

Thus, the intention reveals the crucial difference between reflection-*in*-action and reflection-*on*-action. The *Initial Response stage* consists of reflex responses that are incomplete courses of action. For example, a teacher tells a student using a phone in class to hand it over and expects compliance so when the student refuses, the teacher becomes uncertain about what to do next because he had not anticipated the challenge. The student's reaction forces him to draw on 'stored' responses used for other situations that involve challenge but for different reasons. In many cases, it will also include feelings of fear, aggression, frustration and impatience. This is a gap in his plan. The teacher moves from the *Initial Response stage* into a new stage when he starts to reflect on his actions away from situation. This begins with devising a new

plan to deal more effectively with similar incidents in the future. Plans devised using reflection-*on*-action will begin to be more complete because the teacher will be looking forward and trying to anticipate how they will work in a variety of similar situations using 'what if' scenarios. This process of reflecting on action and formulating new plans is an example of the synthesis of knowledge and is important feature of this thesis. It points towards teachers actively engaging in the development of new knowledge about managing classroom behaviour.

The problem with Miller *et al's* proposal is that the process of 'learning' to do something new is carried out using feedback from the environment. This can be illustrated using the example of the phone incident above. A Year 7 student takes out his phone (*incongruity*), the beginner teacher has a rule of no phones out in class and sees the student using it (*Test*), he demands the student hands it over (*Operate*), the student complies (*Test*) so the *recursive feedback loop* ends and the student goes back to work (*Exit*). The beginner teacher reflects on the incident later and realizes that his Year 7 class is a very compliant group and wondered what would have happened if it had been one of his Year 10 students, who were much more ready to challenge staff.

He realizes that he needs a different plan and reflects on it with the help of his mentor. The result of his reflection away from the incident is a new plan that enables the students to choose between putting their phones away, putting them on his desk or continuing to use them with the knowledge that the will receive a sanction later. From this, we can see that the beginner teacher's solution has not come from within the

Year 7 incident. The new plan originated from discussions with his mentor and was therefore, not a result of the TOTE feedback loop. Although the TOTE model provides an explanation for reflex and intuitive reactions, another explanation is needed for the development of new plans.

3.6 The pre-emptive approach - a director system for planned responses to behaviour

Skemp (1979) proposed a director system that explains how this may be achieved. He called the part of his director system for reacting to situations, the *Delta 1 system* and the part for devising new plans, the *Delta 2 system*. He suggested that individuals begin by bringing their 'stored' *mental models* based on prior experiences to bear upon the *incongruity* and reflect on the differences and gaps in an attempt to identify what is missing and what is not known. The person relates directly with the problem in the context so the *Delta 1 system* has similarities to the TOTE model. The *Delta 1 system* contains a second system, the *Delta 2 system* (see below). I will explain the *Delta 1 system* first before describing the interrelationship with the *Delta 2 system*.

3.6.1 Skemp's *Delta 1 director system* – the interface with actuality

The *Delta 1 system* is made up of the following parts – the *Operand* is the part of a system which can change one state to another, for example handle bars change a bike's direction, a class/or individual student can behave or learn something new. The *Operator* is the part of a system that does the work to change the state – turning the handle bars of a bike requires mechanical energy, the teacher exerts mental energy to

produce a strategy and implement it. The *Sensor* is the part that is sensitive to the

relevant aspect of the object (or person's behaviour) at any point in time. The *Present*

state is where the system is at any particular time and the *Goal state* is where the

system wants to be. The *Comparator* is the interpretation of the difference between

the *Goal state* and the *Present state*. The *Plan* determines what happens to move the

system from the *present state* to the *goal state* and keep it there (adapted from

Skemp, 1979, pp. 41-42). This is illustrated below:
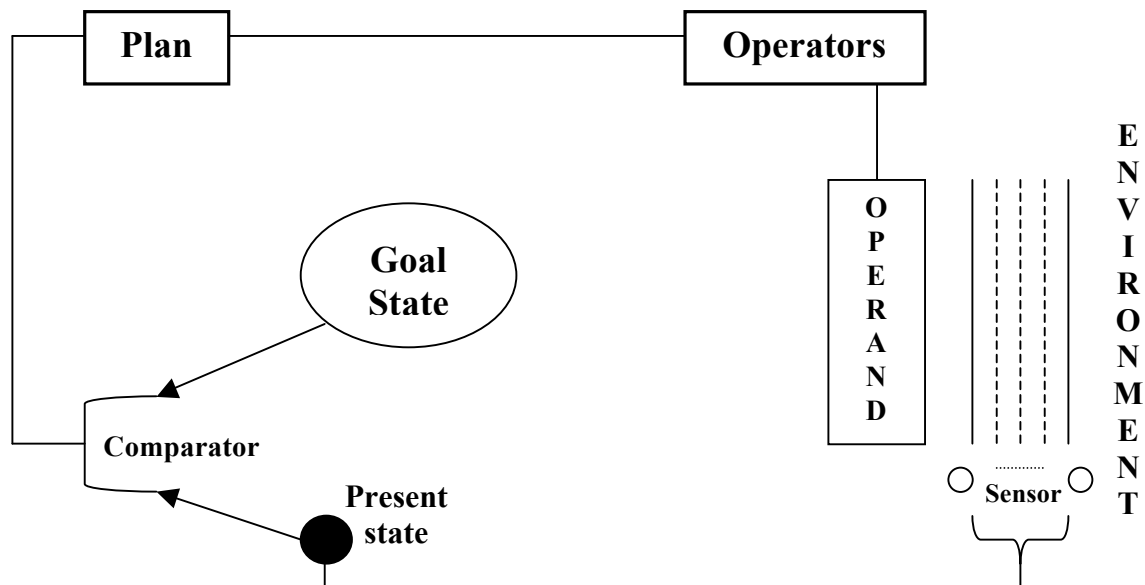
Adapted from Skemp (1979, p. 49)

The system works in the following way. The lines between the *Operand* and the

environment represent the relationship between the two. In the case of the classroom,

it will represent the relationship between a beginner teacher and the students. The two

small circles represent the *Sensor* that abstracts the details of the relationship. In the

example in section 3.4.1, the details will be a class working in silence. The bracket

leading to the single large black dot shows that the components of the classroom collectively specify the *Present state* of silent working. The *Comparator*, compares the *Present state* with the *Goal state*. Any change, such as student talking (an *incongruity*) is picked up by the *Sensor* causing a change in the *Present state*. This is compared with the *Goal state*, triggering a change in the *Plan*. As with Miller *et al's* director system, beginner teachers starting out only have limited plans made up of strategies for responding to situations drawn from prior experiences as students and observers but not as teachers. When an *incongruity* is encountered, they have to make use of the *mental models* that were used to formulate the plans. For example, the beginner teacher will have planned for the class to work in silence and may not have anticipated that they would talk so when a student did, he had to make use of his *mental model* of what he had seen teachers do in the past. He reacts in a very short space of time so the strongest mental structure is the one most likely to be utilized, which may be of a teacher warning the student to stop talking in a raised voice. The result will be the same in both Miller *et al* and Skemp's director systems; the beginner teacher reacts in a reflexive/intuitive way. A message goes to the *Operator* that a strong warning is required. The *Operand* issues the warning in a raised voice to the student to stop talking. If the student complies, the *Sensor* picks up the change and communicates it as a new *Present state* of silent working. The new *Present state* is compared with the *Goal state* resulting in a return to congruity.

3.6.2 Skemp's Delta 2 director system – the site of reflective learning

The *Delta 1 system* exposes the learning needs that can then be addressed by the *Delta 2 system.* The difference between the two systems is that the *Delta 1* is a first-order system whose *operand* (the part of the system that actually makes the change) is located in actuality. Whereas, the *Delta 2 system* is located within the *Delta 1 system* so it is a second-order system and its *Operand* is the *Delta 1 system* (shown as Δ 1 in the diagram below)*. *The function of the *Delta 2 system* is to take the *Delta 1 system* from a *Present state* in which it does not function optimally, to reach its *Goal state* in which it has an improved function. The *Plan* represents whatever means are employed to improve the functioning. In the example above of a teacher wanting to improve the way he manages particular behaviour, it may be to read a book, talk to a more experienced colleague or attend a training session. The products of the *Delta 2 system Plan* are new strategies for dealing with the original problem experienced by the *Delta 1 system*. These are shown as the *Mental operators.* The action of the *Delta 2 system* is to 'teach' the *Delta 1 system* so that it can perform the original function within actuality in a better way.

| Plan | | (Mental) Operators |

Comparator

Present state

Sensor

E N V I R O N M E N T
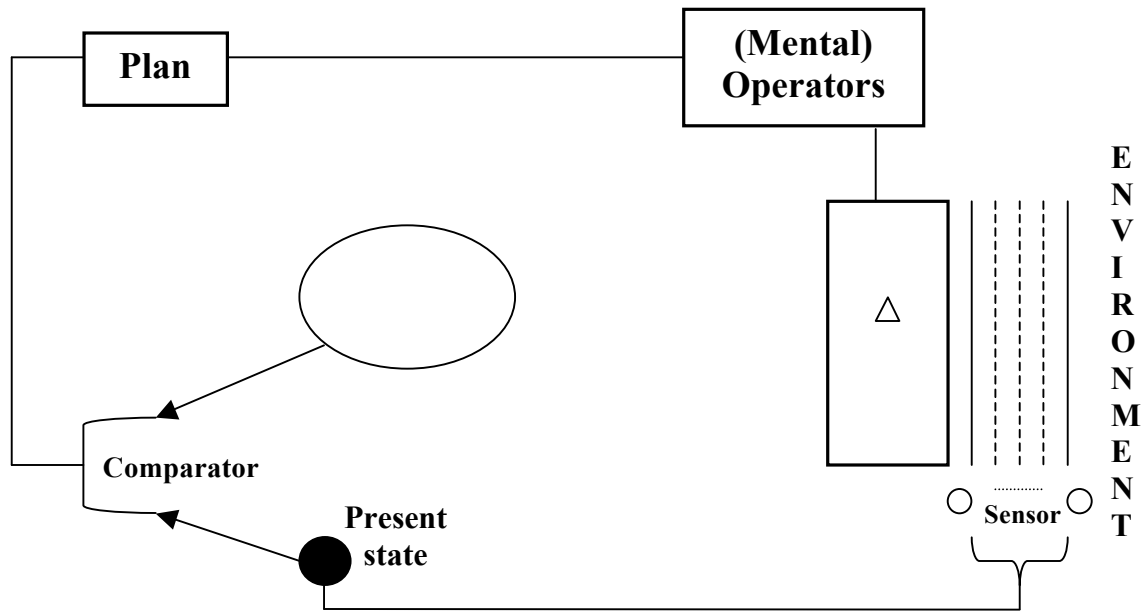
Adapted from Skemp (1979, p. 74)

The difference between the *Delta 1 system* and the *Delta 2 system* can be understood in terms of the two different levels of 'consciousness' they exhibit through their actions. The 'consciousness' of the *Delta 1 system* involves being aware of the response made by the *operand* on the unwanted behaviour within the environment. For example, a beginner teacher who notices a student passing a note to another and responds by asking them to put it in the waste bin will be conscious of the direction they have given. The 'consciousness' of the *Delta 2 system* is being aware of the new 'ideas' (*mental operators*) that are the products of reflective learning. To give an example, after reflecting on a problem and doing some reading about it, a person comes up with a new idea. They are conscious of a breakthrough even though they have not put the idea into practice. This realization is the product of the *Delta 2 system*. Once we begin to implement the new idea, the *operator* and *operand* of the *Delta 1 system* make the changes in the actual world. This ability to activate the *Delta*

2 system and design a plan for preventative strategies to move towards a *goal state* is

and example of Schön's reflection-*on*-action.

To summarize, the main difference between *Delta 2 system* and *Delta 1 system* is that

Delta 1 system is a teachable system and *Delta 2 system* does the teaching. The

learning takes place in a number of ways that make use of what Skemp calls *primary*

and *secondary concepts*. We form *primary concepts* by regularly encountering

something in actuality that eventually results in either a belief or is habituated in the

same way as described by Miller *et al* (1960). Ror example, many of the teachers that

taught me were aloof resulting in my belief that relationships between teachers and

their students were characterized by this 'aloofness'. *Secondary concepts* differ in

that they can be derived from either primary concepts or secondary concepts formed

previously. This is illustrated by my primary concept that many of my teachers were

aloof. A secondary concept may arise from the fact that many but not all of my

teachers were aloof, raising the possibility that there is a range of possible

teacher/student relationships. These could include a number of alternative behaviours

such as being aloof, friendly, aggressive, strict or caring. Furthermore, I do not need

to have experienced them all to know that they could exist.

Skemp suggests that the *Delta 2 system* forms these new concepts when we reflect on

original experience, input new epistemological knowledge gained from self-study,

training and advice and discuss them in relation to the problem we wish to solve. The

result is that the *Delta 2 system Plan* communicates the new strategies via the *mental*

operators to the *Delta 1 system plan* when the situation next occurs. The *Delta 1 system Operand* implements the new *Delta 1 system Plan* and the *Delta 2 system Comparator* detects any change and compares it with its original *Goal state*. If the strategy has not been effective, the *Delta 2 system Sensors* communicate the *incongruity* to the *Plan* and further reflection and knowledge is inputted and the process repeated until the *Delta 2 system Sensors* pick up congruous signals. Invariably, complete *congruity* with the *Goal state* will be unlikely during the early stages of solving a problem or designing a new strategy so the cycle of reflect, implement, test and reflect again is likely to be ongoing until the beginner teacher reaches a point where they are satisfied that they are achieving what they intended.

3.6.3 Adapting Goals

The goals of *Delta 1 system* and *Delta 2 systems* differ. This can be illustrated using a typical classroom example. A teacher of a Year 7 class has a set of 'stored' mental models or strategies that he uses to manage their behaviour. He is asked to teach a Year 10 class and after observing them prior to beginning teaching, he notices that the ways they interact with each other and their current teacher are quite different to his Year 7 class. He needs to develop some new strategies, which requires adapting the *Goal states* of his director systems. He can achieve this in two ways depending on the strategies he already has 'stored' as *mental models*.

Firstly, he can adapt his *Delta 1 system* by selecting different strategies from his 'store' of *mental models* and applying them through his *Plan* to the *Delta 1*

Operators. Alternatively, if he does not have suitable strategies 'stored', he can adapt the whole director system. This involves increasing the sensitivity of the *Sensors* of the *Delta 1 system* so that they can pick up the descriptions specific to the behaviour of the Year 10 class. The different information conveyed to the *Delta 2 system* changes its *Goal state* signalling a need for conceptual input to construct a new *Plan*. The product of this change in the *Delta 2 system* is tested with the Year 10 class and if it is found to work, 'stored' with other strategies for dealing with behaviour and connections are formed between similar strategies. For example, if a teacher developed a strategy for dealing with name-calling with a Year 10 class and already had a *repertoire* of other strategies for the same problem, connections form between them giving rise to a schema.

Skemp (1979) suggested that changes in the *Delta system's goal state* (and therefore, its other components) occur for the following reasons:

Survival

Changes usually happen in the same way as the example above when an individual either experiences a direct or potential threat to their survival.

Viability

The relationship between an individual and their environment is described as their *viability*. To be viable is to be able to survive. *Viability* can be understood as a spectrum. At one end is *Survival*, which involves reacting to new situations and can

be an exhausting process that requires every ounce of an individual's energy being

used on a daily basis. At the opposite end of the spectrum is *Adaptation,* which is still

essentially the pursuit of survival but the development of the skills gradually makes

survival easier. The result is that the individual does not need to use all their energy

in just surviving and finds that they have extra left in reserve. *Adaptation* is

characterized by perfecting the skills to use to survive and by looking into the future

and devising plans to deal with potential problems rather than waiting for them to

happen. Looking forward requires higher order thinking by making use of

imagination and creativity as well as logic in a consciously cognitive way using

reflection. It is this 'journey' of improvement that forms the basis of novice to expert

continuums.

Capacity

This is the extent that the *Operator* can change the *Operand*. For example, the ability

of a teacher's strategies (his *Operators*), to change the way the students behave (the

Operand). A teacher can increase their capacity by developing knowledge of new

strategies or improving existing ones.

Failure

This is the opposite of being viable and happens when an individual is unable to

reach the *Goal state* of their *Plan*. For example, a teacher finds that the students stop

responding to his rule of working in silence. The remedy will depend on how much

the individual wants to achieve the *Goal state* of the *Plan*. If his *Plan* only fails with

one of the groups he teaches then an adaptation must be made. This involves expanding the *Plan* to incorporate a new strategy to deal with that particular class.

3.7 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to develop a theoretical understanding of how beginner teachers plan to manage classroom behaviour. In chapter 2, I described the spectrum of models of professional development utilized in schools and proposed that the *reflective practitioner* approach provided beginner teachers with opportunities to exercise *agency* within the highly structured and structuring influence of the institutions of School and Education. A review of the literature of the factors that impact on teacher development suggested that *agency* is active in beginner teachers' concerns, emotions, identities and efficacy. Most of the studies did not identify changes over time because they utilized a single-survey approach carried out at a particular point in time. For example, Emmer and Hickman's (1991) study reported the efficacy beliefs of the respondents at the point when they completed the questionnaires.

The few exceptions such as the *Becoming a Teacher* study (Hobson *et al.*, 2009) provide evidence of teachers' *agency* leading to changes in concerns, efficacy beliefs and identities. These studies support the assertion that teachers are using their *agency* to develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour over time. What they do not do is provide explanations for how this development of knowledge takes place, beyond describing it as a product of reflection.

This highlights the need to understand the reflective process in more detail. Schön's (1983; 1987) reflection theories were analyzed and yielded explanations for how beginner teachers respond to behaviour in reactive and pre-emptive ways. These were then analyzed separately using a number of theoretical models to understand the different kinds of reflection utilized by each theory.

A critique of Schön's reflection-*in*-action theory found that it inadequately explained how teachers responded to classroom behaviour while in the situation. Teachers have very little time to respond to events in lessons and so Schön's proposal that reflection takes place in such situations is unlikely. Eraut (1994) argued that the short time-span between stimulus and response is better explained as a reflex action. He proposed that teachers in these kinds of situations draw intuitively on strategies 'stored' as *mental structures*. These are acquired from earlier experiences of school and Lortie (1973) argued that they are inadequate because they are from perspective of students rather than teachers. Schön's theory does not provide an explanation for how teachers reflect in action and so I fill this gap in part, with Miller *et al's* (1960) *single-loop* TOTE model. Their model is based on the teacher possessing a *Plan* for how something should be (*Congruity*). When the teacher senses that something is not right (*Incongruity*), they respond intuitively. The TOTE unit contains a *Recursive Feedback Loop* that allows the reflex action to be repeatedly tested against the *Plan* until *Congruity* returns. When it does, the TOTE unit is exited.

Schön's reflection-*on*-action theory provides a feasible explanation for how a teacher responds to behaviour by reflecting on the experience outside of the lesson. Skemp's (1979) *double-loop* model consists of a *Delta 1 system* similar to Miller *et al's* TOTE unit. Skemp's model differs from Miller *et al's* model because the *Delta 2 system* takes the *present state* stimulus sensed by the *Delta 1 system* and improves it by allowing learning to take place in the *Delta 2 system*. The result is an improved *Delta 1 Plan*.

This difference can be summarized in the following way - the *Delta 1 system* is a teachable system and the *Delta 2 system* does the teaching. The *Delta 2 system* achieves this by the teacher reflecting on the original experience and inputting new epistemological knowledge from a range of sources, resulting in the formation of strategies for dealing with the 'problem'. The teacher can adapt the *Delta 1 system* by selecting strategies already 'stored'. Alternatively, the whole director system can be adapted by increasing the sensitivity of the *Delta 1 sensors*. This signals to the *Delta 2 system* that there is a need for additional epistemological knowledge in order that a new plan can be constructed.

To recap, the *transformative* models of professional development that utilize the *reflective practitioner* approach can explain the concept of teacher *agency* within the structuring institution of Education. This can be understood as reacting in a reflex or intuitive way to actual situations or pre-empting potential situations by formulating plans. Both of these approaches result in the development of knowledge about

practice that is 'stored' as *mental structures* and made available for solving problems in the future. Solving 'problems' of practice in a pre-emptive way by utilizing an expanding body of *mental structures* based on experience is indicative of a teacher's 'growth' in expertise. It allows the individual to reflect on 'problems' of practice more creatively by employing heuristic methods to power their *Delta 2 system* to construct potential solutions and consider the implications of their application, prior to implementation. It also allows for what Schön (1983) called the *Frame Analysis*, making use of Bronfenbrenner's (1992) *System Theory* to consider a problem from the perspectives of other people in the system.

In chapter 2, I proposed, on the basis of the analysis of relevant research and literature, that beginner teachers are not passive recipients of the structuring influences of the institutions of the school and the Education system. The empirical studies suggested that teachers had *agency* and had used it to adapt as well as adopt the recognized practices of the school for managing behaviour in their lessons. In this chapter, I have explored the ways in which teachers can engage in a cycle of reflection resulting in the construction of new and revised *plans* in the intervening periods between lessons, followed by their implementation. This suggests that their *agency* is dynamic, often occurring over extended periods of time and can be interpreted as 'growth' when it leads to improvements in classroom practice. However, understanding the nature of this 'growth' remains problematic and will be addressed in the next chapter.

Chapter 4 The theoretical framework for this study

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I describe the theoretical framework for structuring the research design and describing and analyzing the empirical data. The theoretical framework is made up of three components: an analytical language; a model that describes the process of developing knowledge for managing classroom behaviour; a set of conceptual 'tools' for analyzing the dialectical relationship between the subjective internal perspectives of the participants and the objective external perspectives of the contexts where they work. I begin by developing the analytical language part of the framework.

4.2 Conceptualizing the practice of managing classroom behaviour

In Chapter 2, I argued that practice can be viewed from two inter-related perspectives, those 'internal' to the beginner teacher and those 'external' to them. In this section, I show how Bourdieu's *Theory of Practice*, is used to conceptualize these perspectives to provide a way of analyzing beginner teachers' development of knowledge and the 'growth' in their expertise in managing classroom behaviour.

Bourdieu (1989) believed in a dialectical relationship between the subjectivity of an individual's experience and the objectivity of the context. The products of the inter-relationship were what he called 'thinking tools', which became visible through their use in practice together with the results they yielded. He also believed that practice

and theorizing are dependant on each other not separate or displaced by time. Theory arises from practice and is intended to improve practice.

4.2.1 The relationship between the individuals and the contexts

Bourdieu (1989, p. 11) proposed that the social world can be perceived as a synthesis of subjectivism (represented by the individuals) and objectivism (represented by the context). He described the context as "…objective structures, independent of consciousness and will of agents, which are capable of guiding and constraining their practices" (p. 11).

For the purposes of this study, these can be identified as the institution of Education as it is organized in this country at the time when the empirical data is collected and the schools where the participants carry out their teaching placements and are employed in their first teaching post as qualified teachers.

Bourdieu called the 'structuring' contexts located in the objective world, the *fields* and the thoughts and activity of individuals in those *fields*, their *habitus*.

4.2.2 Constructive-Structuralism

Bourdieu (1990) described the dialectical relationship between individuals and the contexts they occupied as one based upon power. He proposed that people are structured and reproduce the structures of the *field* they inhabit. He argued that people

do not simply repeat actions without evolution. Reproduction goes beyond replication by including variation and limitations in how people can think and act. Bourdieu (1989) coined the terms 'structural-constructivism' and 'constructivist structuralism' to describe the dynamic nature of this dialectical relationship.

Construction does not occur in a vacuum; it is subject to influences of the social world and the specific factors in play within the specific social field that the individual is located. Furthermore, a group or an individual can engage in the process of constructing knowledge. The freedom an individual has to think and act within the *field* is called *agency*. The products of *agency* are knowledge and skills. Therefore, the knowledge for managing classroom behaviour is socially constructed and assigned value as *capital* by the specific social *field* of the school where it is recognized.

4.2.3 *Field*

Bourdieu (1989) believed that the evolution of societies led to the creation of *fields* that provide the frames of analysis of the relationships between individuals and groups. The result of such analyses is a kind of social differentiation with each *field* (or *sub-field*) having its own rules. For example, Education as a 'parent *field*' structures teachers through the rules associated with being a professional and the customs and practices of a school ensure teachers support its ethos. Teachers inhabit the *field* of the classroom where they establish rules for the students.

This concept of the *field* provides a way of dividing the objective space to pinpoint where the participants of my study are developing their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour.

4.2.4 *Habitus*

Bourdieu (1989) defined *habitus* as the dispositions of agents within the social world. Dispositions in this respect are the ways individuals think and act. Bourdieu described these dispositions as *mental structures* that enable individuals to perceive situations in multi-sensory ways akin to Polanyi's (1967) concept of tacit understanding (see section 2.4.9). For example, a person may have a 'feel for the game' or a 'knack' for doing something or in the case of a teacher, a sense of a lesson going well. Bourdieu suggested that for each social position in a *field*, there is a corresponding *habitus*. He argued that an individual occupying a social position can exercise a structuring influence as well as being structured by the *field*.

This concept of *habitus* enables me to map the participants of my study onto the *field* at particular points in time. Changes in individuals' *habitus* and positions in the *field(s)* will then be compared to chart their 'growth'.

4.2.5 *Agency* and *capital*

Bourdieu (1987) defined the *sub-field* as a social place where individuals engage with the 'forces' that attempt to structure their behaviour. He described their efforts and

freedom to act with or against such forces as *agency* and the professional resources they possessed as *capital*.

These concepts can be better understood using *Role Theory*. This involves assigning roles to the individuals and groups within the *field*. In the *field* of *Schooling*, role-pairs exist between the institution and its teachers. The relationship is typically one of unequal power with individual teachers being structured by the institution. In the *field* of *classroom management of behaviour*, the role-pair consists of the teacher and the student(s). Again, the relationship is one of unequal power with the teacher articulating how the classroom operates and establishing the roles for both himself and the students in terms of rights and responsibilities. It is quite common for this process to be carried out in a cooperative way involving the students but it is clearly led and facilitated by the teacher. The result is a set of responsibilities for the students that correspond to the rights of the teacher and visa-versa.

As all individuals have the capacity for thoughts and actions, it follows that they will have some *capital*. However, the freedom to use it is determined by whether its value is recognized within the *field*. Individuals with *capital* that has value within the *field* will have *agency*. Individuals with *capital* that is not recognized will find it has no value rendering their *agency* ineffective. Getzels (1963) and Parsons (1965) explained that when the thoughts and actions of a teacher are in accord with the school's expectations of the role of 'teacher' they are exhibiting *institutional goal-orientated behaviour* and when they originate from their own preconceptions and concerns they

are *individual goal-orientated behaviours*. The same applies to the role-pair of the

teacher and student. The *institutional goal-orientated behaviour* is set out by the

teacher and articulated through the rules in the classroom. Skemp (1979) argued that

in order that individuals can think in the ways expected by the others in the *field,* they

need to know what the effect of their actions will be on their partner in the role-pair.

This requires the creation of a *mental model* of the *operand* and the environment (the

field) that affects the outcome. It is achieved by building a model of their partner's

director system (see section 3.6) that directs their behaviour. For example, a school

with a *coercive ethos* will have teachers exhibiting *institutional goal-orientated*

behaviours for managing classroom behaviour that tend towards punishment rather

than praise and support. To 'fit in', a new teacher will need to build a model of their

director system that enables him to behave in the coercive ways used in the school.

Similarly, students build models of the teacher's *director system(s)* for classroom

management to enable them to meet his expectations. The process in both of these

cases involves learning in a variety of ways using observation, discussion and written

communication. Biddle (1986) suggested that teachers develop their own *mental*

models of the role of 'teacher' using their personal experiences of school as students.

Horowitz (1967) believes that a key feature of *Role Theory* is predictability. The

teacher's *mental models* of his students' behaviour need to be accurate enough to

enable him to predict their actions. Equally, the students need to understand the

teacher's *institutional goal-orientated behaviour* and their own *individual goal*

orientated behaviour needs to match. This is not always the case, resulting in 'misbehaviour'.

Merton (1957) explained that the problems arise when one member of the role-pair's behaviour is perceived by the other as unfair, unrealistic or false. For example, a teacher may expect the students to respect him and demonstrate it with appropriate behaviour. However, the students may decide that the teacher behaves in a way that does not match their model for the role of 'teacher' and react by deliberately 'misbehaving'. Breakdowns like these are a product of differences in power. Students with less power will feel that their rights have been reduced and be less obligated to carry out the responsibilities assigned them by the teacher. Galloway (1982) describes this diminishment of *institutional goal-orientated behaviour* as an act of resistance. However, Willis (1977) argues that this resistance may be present in the school as a result of power relationships rooted in class differences rather than individual treatment by particular teachers.

4.2.6 *Reservoir* and *repertoire*

Beginner teachers develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour in at least two schools during their ITE. Bernstein (1990) calls the knowledge and strategies they develop their *repertoires*. They add to and draw on their *repertoires* throughout their careers. Bernstein called the full range of professional resources available to teachers, the *reservoir*. The development and expansion of a teacher's

repertoire occurs when the need arises and there will be times when not all of their *repertoire* is being developed because it is either not valued in the school or not required. Although, there are similarities between Bourdieu's concept of *agency* and *capital* and Bernstein's concept of *reservoir* and *repertoire*, they serve slightly different purposes. I am including them both because a teacher's *agency* and *capital* gives indication of 'growth' but does not provide a way of showing differential development over time that is evident in an expanding *repertoire*.

4.3 Mapping the *field*

In this section, I will describe how the *field* of *Education* can be divided up in order to pinpoint the positions of the participants of my study. This will enable me to analyze their changes in position and *habitus* over the two-year period of data collection.

4.3.1 Pinpointing the participants in space

Hargreaves (1995) argued that understanding how beginner teachers develop their knowledge requires understanding the process in space and time. Grenfell and James (1998) describe *Education* as a *parent field* with many *fields* and *sub-fields* that are interconnected. My study is concerned with particular parts of the *parent field* of *Education*, specifically the *fields* of *Secondary Schooling* and *Higher Education* where ITE is located. Although the focus of my study is on individual beginner

teachers, the findings will have implications for practice in the *fields* connected to the delivery of ITE and the *field* of *Secondary Schooling* (see diagram. below).

Parent-field of *Education*		
Field of *Secondary Schooling*	*Field* of *Higher Education*	Other *fields* of *Education*

Key: Zone of interconnections
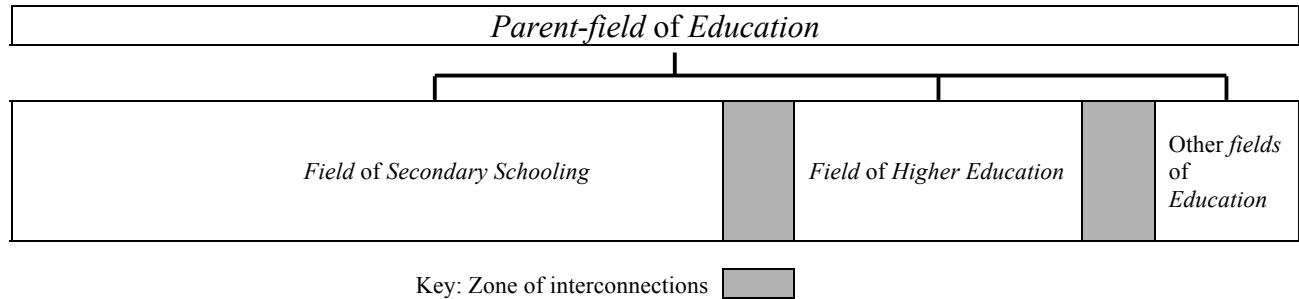
With this in mind, it is important to map the 'route' from the 'starting point' of the *field* of *Education* to the destination where the participants are developing their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. There are a number of ways this can be achieved and the interconnections identified. A linear-horizontal approach can be used rather like drawing a route on a street map. The problem with this method is that it does not provide a means of indicating the importance of certain *fields* over others. Neither does it provide a way of indicating the combined routes of *Secondary Schooling* and *Higher Education* experience that make up the overall experience of ITE. The solution lies in the hierarchical approach described by Hargreaves (1995) that conceptualizes the *parent field* into three levels. This enables routes through the *fields* of *Secondary Schooling* and *Higher Education* to be mapped and the connections between them identified. Hargreaves divided the space below the *parent field* into the *macro, meso* and *micro* levels (see next page).

	Parent-field of Education		
Macro Level	Field of Secondary Schooling	Field of Higher Education	Other fields of Education
Meso Level			
Micro Level			
Participants			

Key: Zone of interconnections
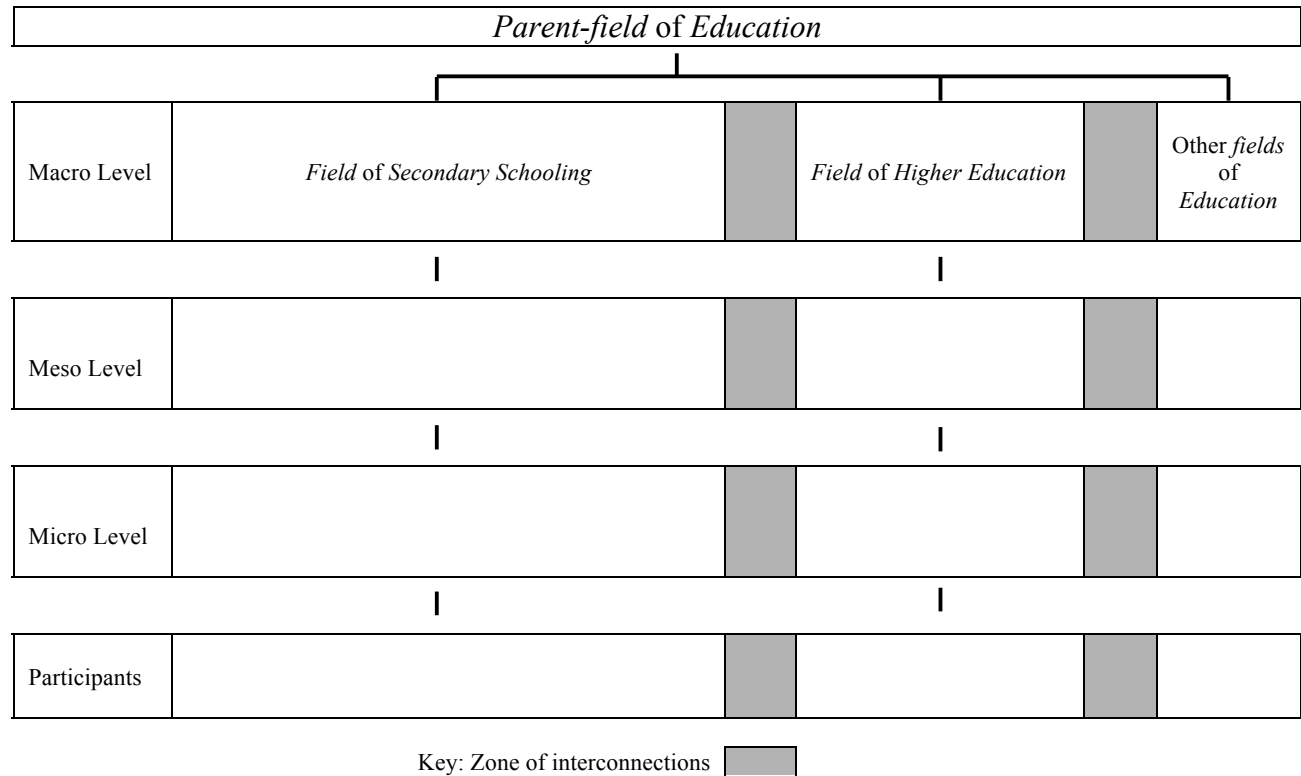
The macro level consists of the institutions that are responsible for the policy-making, governance and organisation of secondary school ITE at a national level. The *meso* level consists of the *fields* of *Education* located within specific institutions such as secondary schools and universities. The *micro* level contains the specific *fields* within those institutions where beginner teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour The first phase of my study will follows individuals engaged on a full-time, Secondary PGCE located within an Higher Education institution in London. Specifically, they are drawn from the English and Drama strand of that PGCE route. They carry out their teaching placements in the English and Drama departments of secondary schools located in and around London. The precise focus is

on their actual experience of managing behaviour while on those teaching

placements. (see below).

Parent-field of Education				
Macro Level	*Field* of *Secondary Schooling*		*Field* of *Higher Education*	Other *fields* of *Education*
Meso Level	Full-time HE PGCE placements in specific Secondary Schools in the London area		Full-time HE Secondary PGCE route in a specific University in the London area	
Micro Level	HE PGCE placements in English and Drama classrooms		English and Drama PGCE route	
Sub-field of managing classroom behaviour	Actual experience managing behaviour as a beginner teacher		Classroom management as an element of the English and Drama route	
Participants	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5	

Key: Zone of interconnections

The second phase of the study takes place once the participants have completed their

ITE and taken up posts as qualified teachers in specific secondary schools. This phase

differs from the first in that the participants are qualified and take sole responsibility

for teaching a number of classes rather than working under the supervision of the

teachers of those classes. This second phase is shown in the figure below by dividing

the *field* of *Secondary Schooling* into two columns. The right column represents the

ITE phase and the left column represents the qualified teacher phase.

This process of dividing the *field* enables the participants to be accurately pinpointed

in space in either phase of the study. Data can then be gathered from them about their

thoughts and actions in relation to how they manage classroom behaviour.

	Parent-field of *Education*					
Macro Level	*Field* of *Secondary Schooling*			*Field* of *Higher Education*		Other *fields* of *Education*
Meso Level	First posts as qualified teachers in specific Secondary Schools		Full-time HE PGCE placements in specific Secondary Schools in the London area	Full-time HE Secondary PGCE route in a specific University in the London area		
Micro Level	Qualified teachers in English and Drama classrooms		HE PGCE placements in English and Drama classrooms	English and Drama PGCE route		
Sub-field of managing classroom behaviour	Actual experience managing classroom behaviour as a qualified teacher		Actual experience managing behaviour as a beginner teacher	Classroom management as an element of the English and Drama route		
Participants	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5		

Key: Zone of interconnections �(grey box)

4.3.2 Positioning the participants in time

Developing knowledge is a dynamic process that takes place over time. Therefore, positioning the participants in space only provides part of the picture. This was identified as a shortcoming of many of the studies reviewed in chapter 2. The ITE *field* is subject to the changing influences of other *fields* including government policy, Ofsted, local authorities, Higher Education, schools and professional organizations. Practices of managing behaviour are produced and reproduced by both the *fields* of *Secondary Schooling* and *Higher Education*. ITE straddles both *fields*, making it a site of debate and contestation. As already indicated in chapter 1, HEIs are under threat as the main providers of ITE as school-based routes such as the *Graduate Teacher Programme*, *Teach First* and *School Direct* increase in number and importance due to government patronage.

The professional resources available within a *field* originate from and are structured by it as a product of historical thoughts, actions and discourses. How individuals make use of the *reservoir* of professional resources in the development of a *repertoire* for managing classroom behaviour using Schön's transformative approach of the *reflective practitioner* was discussed in chapter 3. The work of Miller *et al* and Skemp was used to understand Schön's theories of reflection-*in*-action and reflection-*on*-action. Although they provided explanations for how these two forms of reflection could be taking place they did not provide indication of time. The conclusion drawn was that a means of charting the developments over time was needed. This will be addressed in the next section.

4.4 Models for charting 'growth' over time

In this section, I will critically review the models proposed by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980), Tomporoski (2003), Bore (2006) and Temple (2008), Skemp (1979) and Korthagen *et al* (2001). The purpose of the critique is to attempt to conceptualize 'growth' as a number of stages that an individual passes through as they develop knowledge to manage classroom behaviour. The objective is to design a framework that can be used to analyze the data of my study in order to chart 'growth' of the participants.

4.4.1 The Dreyfus model of skill acquisition

The model has five levels. Level 1-*Novice* involves the individual receiving context-free instruction about the features and rules of the desired action. Improvement occurs when the individual's behaviour conforms to the rules of the desired action. Level 2-*Competency* is reached when the individual is consistently able to recall the features of the desired action and behave in ways that conform to the rules. The main observable characteristics of this level are close adherence to 'rules' or methods and coping under pressure. Level 3-*Proficiency* marks the beginning of the individual being able to apprehend the circumstances of a situation in a holistic way and respond appropriately. Incidents are experienced and 'stored' to provide a basis for dealing with similar situations, viewed from similar perspectives. Continued experience results in aspects being fore-grounded or back-grounded depending on their relevance to the desired action. This results in the development of a set of salient features that are organized into a schema. From this point on, progress is only made by intuitive

decision-making and situational understanding. Level 4-*Expertise* involves the improvement of a skill by mental processing. For example, an expert teacher's *repertoire* of experienced situations is so wide that they are able to respond to an 'incident' intuitively, whereas a *novice's* response is based on unconnected or only partially understood experiences. Level 5-*Mastery* is the point where "performance transcends even its usual high level". Principles are not referred to consciously through deliberation as "all mental energy is employed in making instantaneously, the appropriate perspective and its associated action" (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1980, p. 14).

This model is based on our capacity to develop flexible behaviour by understanding situations rather than learning and following rules. The emphasis is on perception and decision-making. Although the model includes deliberation in the early stages, the indication that a person can perform a skill to a high level is when it appears second nature. In this respect, the model is one based on learning from experience. The pathway to competence is in recognizing the features of practical situations and discriminating between them. The strength of the model is in its explanation for dealing with unstructured problems in intuitive ways. Its disadvantage is that it does not deal with the reflective planning that teachers do outside of teaching situations.

4.4.2 Tomporoski's model for learning skills

Tomporoski (2003) claimed that skill is a human endeavour based upon the natural motivation to learn. His model is a composite one with each successive stage started once the preceding one has been mastered. The model has five steps beginning at the

Experiential stage when an individual starts to experience situations in an intuitive and playful way. The *Cognitive* stage begins when the individual starts to reflect on courses of action. The new experience is compared to previous, similar experiences in order to identify the common principals. Similar 'experiences' are 'stored together. Progression to the next stage only occurs once an individual's responses prove to be accurate and reliable. The *Associate* stage is characterized by aspects of an experience being fore-grounded or back-grounded according to their relevance to the desired action. The result is a set of salient features that form the basis of the schema. The observable sign that this stage has been reached is that performance appears smooth and executed with confidence. Progress to the final *Autonomous* stage can only occur with further learning. This is achieved by applying the schema to new contexts. The individual will also be able to explain what they are doing and how it links to an underlying belief. The part of this model that is relevant to my study is the fore and back-grounding of aspects that provides an explanation for Schön's concept of *Frame analysis*. This selection of particular aspects of a 'problem' enables it to be analyzed from a different perspective. Similarly, it also underpins Bronfenbrenner's (1992) *System Theory* in shifting the emphasis within a system onto other people who can change the overall outcome rather than simply adopting a cause and effect approach focused on the perpetrator of 'misbehaviour'. The disadvantage of this model is the reduction of deliberative thinking beyond the *Cognitive* stage resulting in reflection based more on perceptive experience rather than conceptual knowledge.

4.4.3 A model for creative development

This model owes its origins to Bore's (2006) four-phased process to instill creativity in the Science curriculum. I am including it because the initial *Uncertainty* stage provides a way of conceptualizing the readiness to act with the indecision about what to do. Temple (2008) relates it to the development of design students and proposed that it explains how complex states of awareness and understanding emerge over time. Bore (2006, p. 414) describes it as "grappling with the ambiguity of circumstances necessary for creativity". The process begins in the same way as Tomporoski's model but the design student does more than experience the situation in a playful way because they are already sensitized to the need for a design solution in the same way as the teacher is aware that a solution is required to manage an incident in the classroom. The result is a particular kind of attitude towards the problem that is purposeful, reflectively experimental in the construction of a plan and playful in respect of keeping options open rather than settling for the first idea that comes to mind. I am not going to describe the other phases as they are similar to Tomporoski's 2nd, 3rd and 4th stages. It is with the *Uncertainty* phase that Bore and Temple make a contribution to the theoretical framework of my study.

4.4.4 Skemp's model of theory-building

This begins with perception of the 'problem'. The event occurs and is perceived and reacted to in a reflex or intuitive way. The individual forms a *mental structure* of the event that is 'stored' as an incomplete *Gestalt* that has gaps that require further experiences to fill them. *Gestalts* can include a range of sensory perceptions such as

images, sounds, smells, tastes, emotions and abstract entities like intuition or tacit

feelings.

There are five steps in Skemp's (1979) model beginning with *Realization*. This

involves adding the new *Gestalt* formed from the 'problem' to a 'store' of similar

Gestalts. For example, a teacher may have a 'store of *Gestalts* formed from incidents

where they have praised students and found it led to good behaviour. Step 2-

Assimilation occurs when the individual recognizes the similarities between the

Gestalts 'stored' together. For example, praising students appears to motivate them to

achieve more as well as secure good behaviour. Step 3-*Expansion* requires the

individual to spot the differences between the new *Gestalt* and the existing 'stored'

Gestalts. The differences are utilized to form a schema for use in similar situations

but in different contexts. For example, a teacher may find they need to praise older

students differently to younger students. The final step-*Differentiation* is the

development of a concept or strategy to enable the schema to be expanded. Rumelhart

and Norman (1981) describe this as gradual increase in information as *Accretion*. It is

only reached when the new concept or strategy has been tested and proved to be

successful. For example, *differentiation* could be giving unqualified praise at first -

"Well done, Alan". Then qualifying it resulting in the desired improvement - "I really

liked how you used examples from the text to support your argument, Alan".

An additional step may be necessary if the individual encounters a situation that

challenges their schema revealing its inadequacy, resulting in the need for it to be

restructured. Vosniadou and Brewer (1987) and Rumelhart and Norman (1981) describe the creation of a new schema as *Restructuring*. Skemp (1979) incorporated this as the *Reconstruction* step. For example, a teacher has a well-defined schema for using praise to reward students when they achieve something significant such as getting a really high mark in a test. Therefore, the schema is based on praising <u>achievement</u>. When the teacher is faced with a suggestion that he praise to encourage and motivate he finds his existing schema is inadequate because a different kind of behaviour is required. He needs to reconstruct his existing schema to include the belief that praise can be <u>encouraging</u>. It then needs developing and testing. However, reconstruction may be difficult if the teacher believes that he should not need to praise students for doing what is expected such as putting in effort, remembering to bring books and paying attention.

Skemp's model is clearly capable of showing development over time. It goes beyond the Dreyfus model by making provision for pre-emptive ways of developing knowledge. He incorporates Tomporoski's initial stage of *Perception* and points towards the 'incomplete' nature of the *Gestalt* by implying that it can be expanded. His model also goes further than the others because it includes the use of cognitive deliberation in the construction of a plan that can be tested in new contexts. In this respect it describes Schön's reflection-*on*-action theory but is lacking in its explanation for the early stages of intuitive/reflex responses teachers make before they realize that they have a 'problem' that requires solving.

4.4.5 Korthagen *et al's* 'Three levels of learning' model

Korthagen *et al* (2001) acknowledged the difference between the teacher's behaviour within a teaching situation and outside of lessons. This begins with perception of the 'problem'. Dolk *et al* (1995) described perception, interpretation and reaction as inseparable in lessons whereas outside of lessons, the experience of actuality can be interpreted through the reflective process and gives rise to a plan for future action.

Korthagen *et al's* model has three clear stages beginning with *Gestalt Formation*. This involves the establishment of a need usually in the shape of a 'problem' that requires solving. The stimulus may occur within a lesson or after it triggering "a unity of needs, thoughts, feelings, values, meaning and action tendencies" (2001, p. 180). Korthagen *et al* suggest that the formation of a *Gestalt* occurs in an unconscious and unintentional way. This agrees with Skemp's *Realization* step because we only become conscious of it once we realize that the event that triggered it caused a need. Korthagen *et al* add that language plays only a minor part at this point.

The *Gestalt Formation* stage may result in no further action if the individual is satisfied with their response. Alternatively, further reflection may be required resulting in what Schön described as reflection-*on*-action. During this process connections between features may emerge signalling the transition into the next stage. The *Schematization* stage involves the development of connections between the 'stored' *Gestalts* with similarities. These arise from reflection-*on*-action and result in a new plan, often accompanied by changes in behaviour. This stage resembles the

intervening 'space' between Skemp's *Assimilation* and *Expansion* steps. Korthagen *et al* proposed that once the schema can be performed smoothly and with less conscious effort it can be used to solve a wider range of 'problems' across more contexts than the original *Gestalt.* Indication that an individual is engaged in schematization is that they are able to explain what they are doing and justify their actions. Increased sophistication and complexity of the explanations signals their readiness to move to the final *Theory* stage. Korthagen *et al* (2001, p. 192) argue that in most everyday situations individuals find that their *Gestalts* and schemata are usually adequate.

Kuhn (1977) proposed that individuals engage in theory-building by accurately utilizing relevant data to confirm what is known across a range of contexts. The ideas they create must be internally consistent as well as showing consistency with other theories. A theory must connect, order and explain a variety of isolated phenomena as simply as possible and result in new results or solutions.

Korthagen *et al's* 'Three levels of learning' model makes a considerable contribution to my theoretical framework in two distinct ways. Firstly, 'growth' over time is clearly indicated in the changes in the way an individual describes their actions. Secondly, the 'changes' in the kinds of knowledge developed from context-based, situational and craft knowledge observable in the early stages, to epistemological knowledge identifiable in explanations and *phronesis* observable in performance. The overall structure of the model is too broad and lacks differentiation whereas the other models either omit certain stages or are narrowly differentiated. Therefore, I will

utilize aspects of each model in the construction of a new model that incorporates both reactive and pre-emptive responses to 'problems' experienced in teaching situations.

4.5 Conceptual model for a teacher's development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour

This model owes its origins to the work of Dewey (1933), Schön (1983), Miller *et al* (1960) Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980), Tomporoski (2003), Bore (2006) and Temple (2008), Skemp (1979) and Korthagen *et al* (2001). The overall architecture is based on Korthagen *et al's* model. It has five sequential stages. These are the *Intuitive Stage*, the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage*, the *Complete Gestalt Stage*, the *Schema Stage* and the *Theory Stage*. A supplementary *Uncertainty Stage* can occur either before the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage* or the *Schema Stage*. These stages will be described in the following sections. When I refer to the observable behaviour for each stage or step I include what the teacher may say in interviews as well as what can be seen and heard in the teaching situations.

4.5.1 The *Intuitive* Stage - concrete experience

This is the teacher's encounter with the *incongruity* or 'problem' in actuality and resembles the Miller *et al TOTE* process described in section 3.4.1. The action the teacher takes will be determined by his previous experience of similar situations. Where the teacher has no such experience in the role of 'teacher', other experience is utilized. The observable behaviour of a teacher without previous experience will be

reflexive or intuitive resulting in a reactive response. The lack of a plan is not necessarily observable. However, beginner teachers dealing with difficult behaviour 'on-the-spot' are more likely to exhibit signs of stress associated with fear and indecision than teachers who have already encountered similar situations. The signs may be detectable by an experienced observer and can include delays in giving directions, changes in speech modulation, body language and facial expression.

There are occasions where teachers are able to reflect within the teaching situation. Schön (1987) calls this 'time-out-of-action'. In these situations, the teacher is able to consider the details of the 'problem' and design a response rather than acting in a reflex way. What is absent is the possibility of discussing the 'problem' with a mentor or gaining epistemological knowledge to assist the 'problem-solving process'. In this respect, it does not conform to Schön's reflection-*in*-action theory and is still a reactive approach.

A product of the event will be a rudimentary *Gestalt* that the teacher used to check the *incongruity* of the situation. It resembles the *Experiential* stage of Tomporoski's model because the teacher's encounter with the 'problem' is unplanned, intuitive and reactive. This rudimentary *Gestalt* has 'gaps' created by the lack of experience and strategies and forms the basis of the next stage of my theoretical framework. There may be occasions where the teacher may not be able to understand the 'problem' and not know what to do about it. When this does occur, a period of *Uncertainty* precedes

the next stage as they come to grips with how to move forward. This is explained in the next section.

4.5.2 The *Uncertainty Stage* – the supplementary stage

This stage can take two forms. The first is being uncertain about what to do because the teacher cannot identify the 'problem'. The second is formulating a plan and then becoming uncertain about it because it contradicts the teacher's beliefs or conflicts with their identity as a teacher. Schön (1987) suggested that when an individual begins to learn something new, they are not clear about what they need to learn. Beginner teachers who encounter 'problems' and reflect on the way they responded may experience this feeling of uncertainty. The reason is that they lack prior knowledge of similar situations, which prevents their reflection from being as productive. In some cases, they may find that they are unable to engage with the 'problem' effectively resulting in a repetition of the original action. In this respect, they cannot begin to devise a plan for the 'problem' that they do not understand. Dewey (1938) called this the *state of perplexity*.

The route to understanding a 'problem' is in the realization that it exists and the analysis of the antecedents and the related *Gestalts* of the individuals involved. Carrying out this process after the actual event involves reviewing the *Gestalt* and comparing it with the original *Goal state* in order to identify the *congruent* and *incongruent* parts. This is the diagnosis of the event. Identification of the *incongruent* parts of the *Gestalt* is the first step in pinpointing the 'gaps' that need to be addressed

to prevent reoccurrence. A 'gap' becomes the site for the development of knowledge of a strategy or skill. The beginner teacher's *repertoire* may not include the skills needed to fill the 'gap' so they will either draw from experiences of school as a student (Biddle, 1986; Lortie, 1973), experiences gained from non-school contexts (Shulman, 1986) or use of beliefs to structure responses they think will progress their imagined identity as a teacher. Dewey (1933) suggests that an individual formulates an *incongruity* into a question and then searches for an answer. Initially, the beginner teacher will endeavour to find their own solution until they can be given the help of an experienced colleague who can provide mediated epistemological knowledge of strategies that can be used to construct a plan. Schön (1987, p. 88) calls this "the problem of the problem".

The second form of uncertainty follows Bore (2006) and Temple's (2008) models in that one or more 'solutions' are entertained and eventually a plan is devised. This is implemented and can result in the initial 'problem' being solved. However, it may also lead to what can be described as a dissonance in the way the beginner teacher feels about the strategy and the resulting 'solution' in terms of its value. This can happen when the 'solution' to one 'problem' creates another 'problem'. For example, a teacher holds a belief that it is important to be consistent when dealing with behaviour in the lesson but lets one student go unchallenged. He devises a plan to ensure that every incident is dealt with and implements it for a period of time. Eventually, he realizes that challenging every 'incident' is slowing down the pace of the lesson. He reflects on the advantages and disadvantages of consistency versus

challenging every 'incident' and decides to formulate a new plan. This involves tactically ignoring low-level misbehaviour while praising on-task behaviour that does not interfere with the pace of the lesson. The second plan is completely different to the first plan because it utilizes a different set of assumptions and strategies.

The first example of *Uncertainty* described above is based on not being able to understand the 'problem' and as a result, is more likely to occur before a plan is formulated (prior to the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage*). The observable behaviour of this example will be an inability to explain the 'problem' and any plan of action. If the 'problem' reoccurs, the individual will appear to respond in the same way. They may also exhibit increasing levels of emotion. This may manifest as frustration and impatience accompanied by aggressive or sarcastic behaviour. Alternatively, it may manifest as helplessness and sadness with the teacher trying to persuade by appealing to or pleading with the students to comply.

The second example occurs when a plan has been implemented. It is likely to occur before the *Schema Stage*. In this case, it results in the teacher returning to the beginning of the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage* in order to formulate a new plan. The observable behaviour will be a description of the initial strategy including the reasons for changes. The new plan will be described and reinforced with clear reasons why it is necessary. The plan will be observable in lessons as the teacher refines and develops its strategies.

4.5.3 The *Incomplete Gestalt Stage* - focused action

This stage has two steps. The first is *Gestalt Realization*. A teacher will form a *Gestalt* of an event but is not aware they have done so at the time. Realization comes in two parts. Firstly, the teacher becomes aware of the 'problem' that triggered the *incongruity* and secondly, the response they made. It takes place after the event and the thoughts the teacher has will be an example of Schön's reflection-*on*-action theory. The kind of thoughts that the teacher has will include an evaluation of the *Gestalt* against the *Goal state* for what they intended should happen in the lesson. The evaluation results in identification of 'deficiencies' and 'gaps' in the *Gestalt* that caused the incongruity. Reflecting on the action will include making use of previous, similar experiences in the way described by Tomporoski in his *Cognitive* stage. Gradually a plan of action is formulated after grappling with the 'problem' and possibly repeating the same initial response.

The observable behaviour of a teacher in this part of the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage* will be that they can describe a specific event in detail, recalling multi-sensory features, names and feelings. They may describe the event as if it were a series of 'still' images or as a 'moving' image.

The next step of this stage is *Gestalt Evaluation*. This involves making comparisons with other 'stored' *Gestalts* to identify similarities as described by Skemp. These are then fore-grounded as the key features of the event. For example, a teacher recognized that he had handled an incident of off-task behaviour in a reflex way that

was aggressive and went against his intention of building relationships with the students. He devised a plan to address the features of the event that needed to change so that he could get back to his intention of relationship-building. It involved a re-direction strategy rather than reprimanding the student.

The observable behaviour of this part of the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage* will be seeing the strategy in action in the classroom with the same student group. The teacher will be able to explain the plan and give specific examples of its application. Testing and re-testing eventually results in the teacher carrying out the strategy in a confident and polished manner.

4.5.4 The *Complete Gestalt Stage* - holistic action

This stage continues on from the *Gestalt Evaluation* part of the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage*. It resembles Tomporoski's *Association* stage. The differences between the new *Gestalt* formed when the 'problem' was first encountered and the 'stored' *Gestalts* for similar 'problems' will have been evaluated and used to construct the plan. The teacher will have been testing their plan with the same class of students and making improvements to it to ensure it met the initial needs of the 'problem'.

The *Complete Gestalt Stage* involves reflecting further on the plan and searching for ways to make it more efficient. This includes considering how it can be expanded to serve more than one purpose in the original context with the same students. For example, a teacher may devise a plan for getting students to participate in class

discussions. It includes encouraging them by giving unqualified praise such as "Well done, Peter" and "Thank you for that, Ellen". He observes another teacher and discusses the use of praise to focus the students on the value of their contributions. As a result, he expands his plan to include qualified praise such as "Peter has made a very interesting point about Wedgewood's moral contribution to society" and "Ellen's description of Wedgewood's role in helping abolish slavery was something I hadn't considered". In this way, the plan enables the teacher to not only encourage students to participate by praising their involvement but also to use praise to emphasize the points the students make in order to increase their understanding.

The observable behaviour of this stage is in how much more polished the actions of the teacher are in execution of their plan. The expansion of the *Gestalt* to include other functions indicates that the teacher has answered the questions of the initial 'problem' and developed a holistic approach such as the example above that incorporates securing participation and enhancing learning opportunities. The explanation the teacher gives will still be context-specific and detailed by including names, places and times. The difference between these explanations and the ones given in the earlier stages is in how the 'problem' is stated and the way that the teacher is beginning to develop links with other 'problems' of practice. This linking up indicates the transition into the *Schema Stage* and is heralded by thoughts like "I wonder if this will work with other classes I teach?"

4.5.5 The *Schema Stage* - connecting related *Gestalts*

Schemas are formed by organizing past reactions or experiences in ways that allow their common features to emerge and be abstracted. The process of abstraction allows links to be made between the *Gestalts* rather than reviewing every one individually. Bartlett (1932) described the formation of schemas as the most fundamental way in which we can be influenced by reactions and experiences that occurred in the past.

Skemp (1979) called the process of schema-building *Reflective Extrapolation*. I have expanded it in order to make clear the differences and observable behaviour of each step. The *Schema Stage* begins with the *Schema Need* step. This has similarities to *Realization* in the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage*. It occurs when the teacher becomes aware that a *Gestalt* they have been developing may be useful in solving a 'problem' in another context such as a different year group, subject or school.

The observable behaviour of this step is in more confident explanations than those given in the *Gestalt* stages. The teacher will begin to explain the salient features that link the *Gestalts* that are used to understand the 'problem' (and resembles the *Proficient* stage in the Dreyfus and Dreyfus model). The way the teacher explains these salient features indicates that they have understood them and that they have been used to analyze the 'problems' of practice.

The teacher is able to recognize that the problem is solvable but there is a variety of options requiring different methods and resulting in different outcomes. This is the

point where the teacher may experience *Uncertainty* and decide to re-think the approach. They recognize that the previous course of action may not 'sit well' with their way of thinking and back-track to the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage* in order to re-examine the 'store' of *Gestalts* to find a new solution. Temple (2008) describes this as becoming aware of the purpose of the action and experimenting with combinations of ideas in order to produce an innovative solution. The process involves a review of the 'stored' *Gestalts* and leads to a more abstract, less context-bound plan. Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980) describe it as taking a 'global view'.

The next step is *Schema Forming*, which involves making modifications to the plan devised in the *Gestalt Stage* so it can be applied to a new context. The plan is expanded to include changes that may be required. For example, a teacher who has been using praise to encourage and motivate Year 7 students may decide that it will work for Year 10 students. Clearly, the age difference needs addressing. Students in Year 7 are younger and will be less conscious of themselves in relation to their peers than Year 10 students. Consideration needs to be given to when to praise, whether to praise in public or privately as well as the phrases and tone used for each age group. Finding the answers to questions like these will require experience that can be gained from watching or talking to teachers of the Year 10 group. The strategy is gained and integrated into the teacher's schema for motivating students using praise. Once the plan has been modified for the new context, it is tested and revised accordingly.

The observable behaviour will be in knowing that the teacher has a plan and seeing it being implemented in the new context. A characteristic of the *Schema Stage* is the increased emphasis on language. This becomes evident in the way the teacher describes the salient features and names and describes them to another person. The teacher has a clearer view of what they are trying to do in relation to a particular aspect of their practice. They make connections between the salient features that result in a mental framework of the relationships between the concepts. The descriptions that the teacher gives also begin to be more generalized.

Schema Explaining begins after it has been formed, tested and internalized. The latter happens in two ways. Firstly, in the actual execution of it in practice. The skills and strategies that make up the schema appear smooth and polished. Whereas, at the beginning of *Schema Formation*, the performance appeared laboured, requiring considerable effort, now it appears second nature. Secondly, the teacher has internalized and reflected on its execution and can explain and justify its features and purpose. He is also able to describe how its application has been changed for use in the different context.

The fourth step is *Schema Differentiation*. This occurs after a period of trialing, reflecting and modifying its use in the new context. The key feature of this step is the cognitive connections that are consciously made to fundamental beliefs that the individual holds. These can include the purpose of teaching, their role as a teacher or how behaviour should be managed. A link starts to appear between a number of

aspects of practice and an underlying reason or belief that the teacher is able to describe and justify. This differentiation can also be observed in the teaching situation but its origins or reasons can only be known through discussion with the teacher.

The final step of the *Schema Stage* is *Schema Expansion*. This involves employing the schema in more new contexts. Like the *Schema Forming* step, it requires consideration to be given to what modifications need to be made to transfer it to the new contexts to ensure it works. Following successful testing, the schema can be viewed as a 'whole' and the salient features generalized. The new knowledge can be extracted and explained in a conceptual way. Less attention is paid to the particular features of the contexts such as the names of students, dates and specific incidents. Arrival at this point indicates the transition into the *Theory Stage*.

4.5.6 The *Theory Stage* - logical ordering of relations

This is the final stage of my theoretical framework. The kinds of theories that teachers develop out of their practice are arrived at through inductive reasoning. A theory of practice of this kind is formed when a rich network of schemas result in consistent outcomes, across a number of contexts, under conditions for which it was developed. In the preceding sections, I have suggested that the teacher begins the process of theory-building with the initial response and develops a *Gestalt* that they can only describe in terms of contextual details. Gradually, they develop a plan and are able to describe its features using words and images. Theorizing differs in that it

requires putting everything into words in order to develop logical arguments (Korthagen *et al.*, 2001).

The purpose of a teacher's own theories for practice is that they enable improvements to be secured. The key feature of a teacher's personal theories is that they enable them to predict what will happen when they are applied. A theory must have a plan for achieving the desired result if it is to be of use in practice and there should be a set of possible strategies to choose from that have been proven to work in the same or similar contexts.

The observable behaviour of this stage will be the teacher's descriptions of their theories. In particular, they will be able to explain and justify how a theory could work in a new context. They will provide a coherent description of the theory with examples illustrating how its salient features work consistently across the contexts. Deliberation will only occur when the theory fails or an opportunity to modify or expand it arises (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1980). The teacher will execute the strategies intuitively and with pleasure. Decision-making will appear rapid and decisive and incidents of student behaviour related to the theory will be pre-empted. In short, thinking and doing become integrated. The following table presents a summary of the stages in my proposed model with some suggested observable indicators for each stage.

Stage	Interview and observable signs indicating activity in a stage
Initial Response Stage	Signs of stress - raised voice, anger, pleas for compliance, changes on speech modulation, facial expression Protective' body language Withdrawal into the teacher's zone of the room Delays in giving directions Lack of confidence

Stage	Interview and observable signs indicating activity in a stage
Uncertainty Stage	Inability to explain the 'problem' No apparent plan Re-occurrence of 'problem' behaviour accompanied by the same responses as those used previously Increased levels of emotion including frustration and impatience Aggressive or sarcastic comments may be used in lessons or the participant may exhibit helplessness and sadness. This will be accompanied by pleading or trying to persuade students to comply

Stage	Interview and observable signs indicating activity in a stage
Incomplete *Gestalt* Stage	Events and aspects of the 'problem' will be described in detail Names, times and places are included Multi-sensory details are used in the descriptions The event will be described as if it was a series of still images from a film or a moving sequence The participant will have a plan but will not necessarily be able to articulate it at first If the plan can be explained, evidence of it will be seen in the lessons The aspects of the plan will gradually become more polished leading to greater confidence

Stage	Interview and observable signs indicating activity in a stage
Complete *Gestalt* Stage	The participant can describe the plan The plan is executed confidently with the original group of students where it was devised Descriptions indicate that the plan is being expanded to deal with other related 'problems' with the original group Explanation shows the participant is able to state the problem more clearly than in the previous stages Together, these indicate a more holistic view of managing behaviour Evidence of reflection-*on*-practice is emerging through descriptions of the 'problems' and solutions The participant starts to ask questions like "I wonder if this will work with other classes I teach?" Decisions related to the plan in the teaching situation start to occur more rapidly in the original context

Stage	Interview and observable signs indicating activity in a stage
Uncertainty Stage	The initial plan will be described and reasons given for not continuing with it At first a new plan cannot be described but this will change as the participant begins to emerge from their 'uncertainty' The participant recognizes that a particular problem may have a variety of solutions The new plan will be reinforced with reasons why it is necessary Links are being explored between the strategy and the participant's beliefs about the purpose of Education and/or managing behaviour The plan will be observable in the lessons

Stage	Interview and observable signs indicating activity in a stage
Schema Stage	**Schema Need** The participant becomes aware that a strategy they have been developing may be useful in other contexts where they teach Confident explanations are given Less contextual detail is included Salient features of related *Gestalts* are abstracted and described in more generalized ways The participant recognizes that a particular problem may have a variety of solutions and give reasons for their final choice The participant has identified a link between the original plan and the participant's beliefs about the purpose of Education and/or managing behaviour and is able to articulate it

	The plan is not yet observable in other contexts because it is undergoing rethinking
	Schema Forming
	The plan is modified to fit a new context
	The changes can be described and justified
	Once initial implementation occurs, the participant will be able to articulate changes they have made or need to make to improve it
	The new plan will be observable in the new context
	If it is known, the connection between the original plan and the participant's beliefs about the purpose of Education and/or managing behaviour is observable in their practice
	The participant starts to exhibit pleasure as the schema proves successful
	Schema Explaining
	The new plan is observable and if viewed regularly, testing and modification may be identified
	The execution of the plan will start to appear polished in all the contexts where it is used
	The performance of the plan appears second nature indicating that it has become internalized
	The changes can be described and justified
	Schema Differentiation
	This is observable once the new plan has been tested and modified in new contexts for a period of time
	Decision-making across the contexts is rapid and decisive
	Less attention is paid to describing the specific features of the various contexts
	The participant can confidently describe and justify the link between the schema and their beliefs about the purpose of Education and/or managing behaviour
	When the participant starts to extract the salient features of the whole schema and generalize them, they are nearing transition into the Theory Stage

Theory Stage	The theory is articulated in words
	Examples are used to illustrate its salient features
	Predictions can be made about what may happen when the participant takes a new class
	The theory contains a plan for implementation when required
	Its application in practice appears consistent
	Deliberation occurs if the theory needs modifying or fails to work
	Execution is intuitive, polished and seamless
	The participant exhibits pleasure when it is employed
	Any decision-making is rapid and decisive

Note, that not every descriptor may be observable for a particular stage

4.6 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter has been to develop a theoretical framework for two purposes,

firstly, to structure the research design and secondly, for use in describing and

analyzing the empirical data. The theoretical framework is made up of three

components: an analytical language; a model that describes the process of developing

knowledge for managing classroom behaviour and a set of conceptual 'tools' for

analyzing the dialectical relationship between the subjective internal perspectives of

the participants and the objective external perspectives of the contexts where they work.

In Chapter 2, I argued that practice and therefore, the development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour can be viewed from these two interrelated perspectives. I have used Bourdieu's *Theory of Practice* to provide an analytical language to describe the dialectical relationship between these two perspectives. I have adopted Bourdieu's (1989; 1990) *Structural-Constructivism* and *Constructive-Structuralism* to describe the dynamic nature of this relationship.

I have used Bourdieu's concept of *field* to describe the external perspective and make use of the multi-layered approach suggested by Hargreaves (1995) to divide up the *fields* into *macro*, *meso* and *micro* levels. This enables me to describe, analyze and identify the contexts where the participants of my study develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. I will use the concept of a multi-layered *field* to pinpoint each participant in space at various times during the period of the study.

		Parent-field of *Education*				
Macro Level		*Field* of *Secondary Schooling*		*Field* of *Higher Education*		Other *fields* of *Education*
Meso Level	First posts as qualified teachers in specific Secondary Schools		Full-time HE PGCE placements in specific Secondary Schools in the London area		Full-time HE Secondary PGCE route in a specific University in the London area	
Micro Level	Qualified teachers in English and Drama classrooms		HE PGCE placements in English and Drama classrooms		English and Drama PGCE route	
Sub-field of managing classroom behaviour	Actual experience managing classroom behaviour as a qualified teacher		Actual experience managing behaviour as a beginner teacher		Classroom management as an element of the English and Drama route	

Direction of 'growth'

Participants	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5	

Key: Zone of interconnections ▨

I will utilize Bourdieu's concept of *agency* to describe the freedom the participants

have to develop knowledge of particular strategies for managing classroom behaviour

and I will use *habitus* to encapsulate the participants' internal perspectives. These are

the dispositions to think and act in a *field*. A participant's *habitus* comprises their

beliefs, concerns, emotions, identity, efficacy and prior knowledge. I will analyze

changes in *habitus* as indication of a participant's *agency* at particular points in time

and specific contexts.

I will employ Bourdieu's concept of *capital* to describe the value of any particular

strategies at a specific point in time. I will describe a strategy that is valued and used

in a context as having 'currency'.

I draw on Bernstein's (1990) concept of *reservoir* to describe all the strategies for

managing classroom behaviour available to the participants. I will use his term

repertoire to describe a participant's range of strategies of which they have

knowledge.

In Chapter 3, I reviewed the work of Dewey (1933) and Schön (1983) on the

reflective process used by teachers to develop knowledge. I showed that Schön's

theory of reflection-*in*-action only partly explained how teachers develop knowledge

within the teaching situation. I proposed that teachers with no experience of a

particular 'problem' as the 'teacher' do not respond in a reflective way. Instead, they

react either reflexively and/or intuitively, drawing on prior knowledge gained from

other sources. I showed how Miller *et al's* (1960) TOTE model and Skemp's (1979)

director system provided explanations for how teachers react to and pre-empt

'problems'.

Faced with the problem of how to explain the process of moving from an initial reflex reaction to a sophisticated, planned response, I turned to the work of Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980), Tomporoski (2003), Bore (2006) and Temple (2008), Skemp (1979) and Korthagen *et al* (2001) for the answer. Each of these models for the development of knowledge and skills offered feasible but incomplete explanations for the problem identified in my study. As a result, I designed a new model, drawing from each of these models. This new model has five stages and is shown on the next page.

```
┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Initial Response Stage  │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            │      ┌──────────────┐
            │      │  Uncertainty │
            │      │    Stage     │
            │      └──────────────┘
            │              │
            ▼              ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Incomplete Gestalt Stage │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Complete Gestalt Stage  │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            │      ┌──────────────┐
            │      │  Uncertainty │
            │      │    Stage     │
            │      └──────────────┘
            │              │
            ▼              ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│      Schema Stage        │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│      Theory Stage        │
└─────────────────────────┘
```
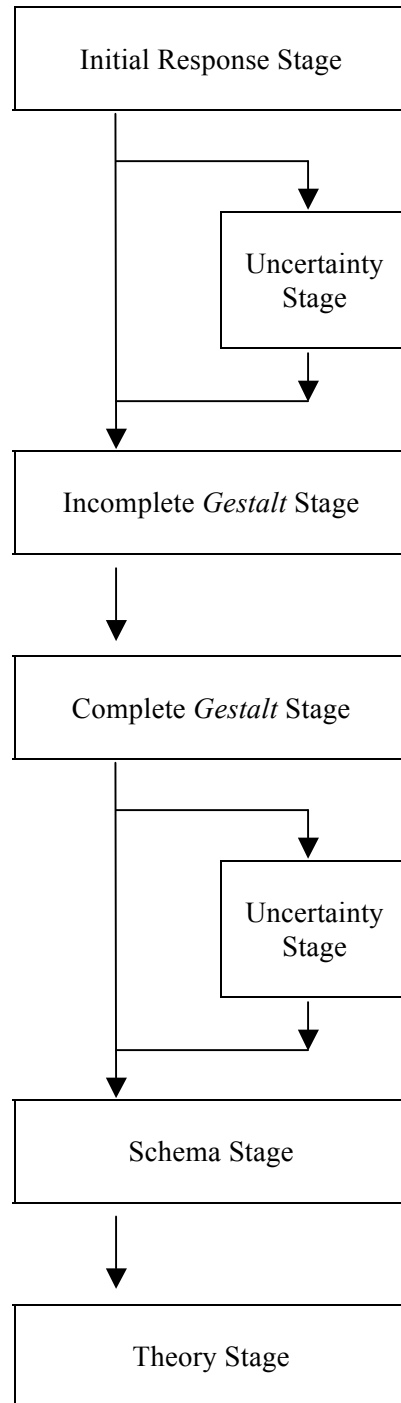
As Bourdieu has suggested, the development of knowledge and therefore movement

through this kind of model is not straightforward. The value that the school places on

a teacher's *capital* will affect the *agency* he has to bring his internal perspective to bear on developing knowledge to solve 'problems'. The data collected from the participants will have two dimensions. The development dimension is the data that show movement through the model from the *Initial Response Stage* towards the *Theory Stage*. This data will be about the knowledge being developed. The contextual dimension is the data about the factors that enhance or inhibit forward movement through the model. This data will be concerned with the nature of the *field* and the individual participant's *habitus*.

In Chapter 2, I described the factors internal to the participant as their beliefs, concerns, emotions, identity and efficacy. The factors external to the participant are the school culture and ethos. I reviewed the literature on both dimensions and produced a set of conceptual 'tools'. These 'tools' will be used to analyze the data in terms of how a participant's forward progress through the model is enhanced or inhibited by their internal *habitus* factors and the external *field* or context factors (see next page)

Internal *habitus* conceptual 'tools'

Aspect	Tool	Description
Belief	Alternativity	Believing something without direct experience of it
	Opposite Alternativity	Believing in a way opposite to what has been directly experienced
	Non-consensuality	Disagreeing with something
	Un-derived belief	Belief formed by first-hand experience
	Derived belief	Belief formed from secondary sources

Concerns	Self-concern	Concerns about whether the participant can do the work

	Task concern	Concerns about the task or the resources
	Impact concerns	Concerns about the impact the participant can have on the students as their teacher

Emotions		
	Appraisal Theory	
	Goal Relevance	Positive feelings about the task and its relevance to their personal goals
	Goal Congruence	Positive emotions resulting from achieving the desired goal
	Goal Incongruence	Negative feelings resulting from failure to reach a goal
	Ego Involvement	Effects of success and failure on self-esteem and efficacy

Identity	Affinity	Congruence between a participant's identity and what they believe is expected of them by their colleagues
	Disaffinity	Incongruence between a participant's identity and the school expectations
	Community of Practice	A group or sub-group of staff in the school

Efficacy	Mastery Experience	Source of efficacy based on previous success
	Vicarious Experience	Source of efficacy based on comparing personal performance with colleagues' performances
	Verbal and Social Persuasion	Source of efficacy based on colleague's judgement of personal performance
	Learned Optimism	Looking forwards to something previously done well results in increased personal efficacy
	Learned Pessimism	Dreading something results in reduced personal efficacy
	Efficacy Measure	
	Personal Teaching Efficacy Dimension	Belief that the techniques the participant is using will help students do better
	Teaching Efficacy Dimension	Belief that influences beyond the school limit the impact the participant can have on their students

External *field* or context 'tools'

Aspect	Tool	Description
School Culture and Ethos	Coercive approach	Use of power relationships to manage classroom behaviour
	Incorporative Approach	Inclusive strategies are used to manage classroom behaviour

	Strategic Compliance	Complying with the school ethos without agreeing with it (see also Non-consensuality and Affinity)
	System Theory	Recognizing that the classroom is a 'system' and other parts of it can be changed to solve the problem rather than focusing solely on the student
	Role Theory	
	Institutional Goal-orientated Behaviour	A participant's thoughts and actions will appear to be in accord with those of the school
	Individual Goal-orientated Behaviour	A participant's thoughts and actions may or may not appear to be in accord with those of the school

In the next chapter, I will describe how this theoretical framework is used in the

design of the research strategy.

Chapter 5 Research design

5.1 Introduction

In this section, I set out the starting points for the research design. These are as follows:

(i) The purpose of the research design is to collect data at the *micro* level of the individual participants within the *sub-field* of the management of classroom behaviour. This included their placements and first posts.

(ii) The design arises from the need to engage with the participants' understanding of their experiences of managing classroom behaviour.

(iii) The study focuses in the inter-relationship between the participants' 'growth' and the contextual factors that enhance or inhibit their *agency* as teachers.

(iv) The contextual factors are sub-divided into internal and external factors. The internal factors are the participants' beliefs, concerns, emotions, identities, efficacies and prior experiences about becoming teachers. Understanding how these enhance or inhibit *agency* cannot be revealed by observation alone. The reasons that underpinned their actions could only be known by talking to the participants.

(v) The research design had to involve data collection methods that would draw out the participants' thoughts and reasons for their actions to enable links to be made between them.

(vi) The most appropriate methods for gathering data that could reveal these links were judged to be interviews with the participants backed up by

observations of their practice. The rationale for this decision will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

In section 5.2, I describe how the research strategy was selected using Yin's (2003) matrix to link the research question to the most appropriate methodology. In section 5.3, I describe how *replication logic* was used to select a multiple, embedded case study approach. In section 5.4, I evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of being a practitioner-researcher. In section 5.5, I describe how I selected the Higher Education institution that provided the participants for this study and the rationale for the selection of the participants. In section 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8, I describe the 'tools' used to collect the empirical data. In section 5.9, I explain how the pilot study was operationalized. Section 5.10, describes how the participants were kept informed and section 5.11 concludes the chapter.

5.2 Selection of a research strategy

Yin (2003, p. 51) suggests that the best strategy for answering the research question(s) can be selected by considering the links between the form of the questions on the one hand and the degree of control required over behavioural events and whether the focus is on historical or contemporary events. Yin proposes a matrix for aiding the selection of an appropriate research strategy (see appendix 4). I have used this matrix to evaluate the five main strategies in order to identify the one most suited to my study. This decision is explained below.

5.2.1 Indentifying the operational aspects within the research questions

The research questions for this study are:

1. *How* are beginner teachers learning to manage classroom behaviour within the current performativity culture?

2. *How* does moving from one school to the next affect beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

3. *What* are the factors that facilitate and impede beginner teachers' development of strategies and knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

The 'what' operation of question 3 has been dealt with already by the review of the literature in chapter 2. The 'how' operation of question 1 has been addressed in part in reviews of the literature about professional development in section 2.2, the literature about reflective practice in chapter 3. Question 2 asks 'how' moving from one school to the next affects beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. This has been dealt with theoretically in the design of the model proposed in section 4.5. However, this model will need 'testing' to establish its utility in practice.

Before moving on to the other aspects identified above, it is useful to show how time was utilized as a means of narrowing the choices of the research design. 'How' and 'why' questions deal with the operational aspects that need to be traced over time. Whereas 'what', 'who', 'where', 'how many' and 'how much' questions deal with frequencies and incidences, which are best served using surveys and archival analysis

(Yin, 2003, p. 6). The fieldwork of my study took place over a two-year period in order to establish 'growth' of knowledge. Using Yin's matrix enabled me to narrow down the choice to experiment, history and case study designs.

My study is concerned with how the participants developed their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. This involved understanding the relationships between their thoughts and actions (the internal factors) and the contexts where they worked (the external factors). Therefore, understanding their actions (behaviour) was an important aspect of my study. I did not need to control their actions, quite the opposite; I sought to minimize the effects the study could have on them. The only research strategy in Yin's matrix that requires control over behavioural events is the experiment. Eliminating this left me with the choice of either the history strategy or the case study.

This study is concerned with how beginner teachers are currently developing their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour in order to inform the current and future practice in schools and ITE. The fieldwork was located in real time over the two-year period of 2007-2009. A historical strategy has its focus on past events and so it was eliminated. Case studies can have their focus on contemporary events. Therefore, it was the most suitable choice for the research design.

5.3 Establishing the type of case study design

I have already stressed the importance of the context to this study. Yin (2003, p. 40) asserts that every case study design needs to analyze contextual conditions in relation to the 'case'. Therefore, I chose to use his matrix of the four kinds of case study design (see appendix 5) to establish the most appropriate one for my study.

Yin (2003, pp. 40-42) sets out five criteria for opting for a single case study design over a multiple one. Only the *longitudinal* criterion of gathering data at a number of points over time matched my study. Therefore, the single case study approaches in Yin's matrix (Type 1 and Type 2) were eliminated. This left a choice of either the *holistic* or the *embedded* multiple case study design.

Yin (2003, p. 47) argues that multiple 'cases' should be considered in the same way as multiple experiments. Each participant of my study constituted what Yin regarded as a 'whole' case. I proposed that each participant developed more than one strategy at any one point in time. Thus, each strategy represented a *unit of analysis* within a 'case'. The findings from each *unit of analysis* were compared to the findings of the other *units of analysis* within each 'case' and between 'cases'. They were also used to 'test' my theoretical model described in section 4.5. I have also chosen to regard the *units of analysis* as replications of each other in the same way as experiments are replicated to test the findings of the others in the set. From this, I concluded that the embedded, multiple case study design was the most suitable one for my study.

However, further work was needed before I was able to settle firmly on the embedded approach.

5.3.1 Using replication logic to confirm the choice

The two kinds of logic commonly used in research design are *sampling* and *replication*. It is useful to show why *sampling logic* was not adopted in my study before going on to show how *replication logic* was used.

Sampling logic involves a representative group or sub-set to be selected from the entire 'population'. This is carried out using a statistical process that ensures the group reflects the 'population'. Yin (2003, p. 48) argues that *sampling logic* is misplaced when used with case studies because it is not the best way of assessing the prevalence of a phenomena. The reason is that attempts to "cover the phenomenon of interest and its contents yields a large number of potentially relevant variables [and] would require an impossible large number of cases".

Shakir (2002) suggests that case studies rely on analytical generalization rather than the statistical generalization used in surveys and experiments. Hersen and Barlow (1976) proposed that analytical generalization is achieved by *replication logic* in the same way as experiments are replicated to test their findings. Continued replication leads to the findings being considered reliable and robust. Yin (2003, p. 47) assert that "the logic underlying the use of multiple case studies is the same".

As stated in section 5.3.2, my study had the potential for replication between the

embedded *units of analysis* within the individual cases as well as across the cases.

Therefore, I concluded that *replication logic* was the most relevant means of selecting

the multiple, embedded case study design. However, Shakir (2002) suggests that

replication logic does not provide methodological guidelines for reliably selecting

one case study design over another.

5.3.2 Using methodological guidelines to confirm the selection of a case study design

Shakir (2002) proposed that a useful starting point in increasing reliability in the

choice of research design can be gained using Patton's (1990, pp. 182-182) 'Sixteen

Purposeful Sampling Strategies' framework (see appendix 6). All of my participants

were similar for the following reasons: they were in the early stages of their careers;

enrolled on a secondary English and Drama PGCE at a London University; carried

out their teaching placements and gained their first teaching jobs in schools in the

Greater London area. Therefore, using Patton's framework, they could be described

as *homogenous cases*.

The participants were members of the sub-group of beginner teachers, which

facilitated comparisons. My study was designed to understand how they were

developing their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. It did not have to

lead to findings that were representative of all beginner teachers. Therefore, they

were *stratified purposeful cases*. An additional purpose of the study was to 'test' my

theoretical model and so my research also provided a *theoretical case*. Finally, the study was designed to yield 'rich data' about the participants. This was gathered while they were engaged in teaching in mainstream secondary schools (not PRUs or SEBD schools) so they were *intensity cases* rather than *extreme cases*.

Shakir (2002) designed a 'Three-Cluster Framework' (see appendix 7) that encompassed Patton's framework. It is based on the two criteria suggested by Kurzel (1999) for ensuring the quality of research design - *appropriateness* and *adequacy*. I used Shakir's framework to ensure that the multiple, embedded case study design met these requirements. Shakir (2002) suggests that *appropriateness* is achieved when there is a 'fit' between both the purpose of the study and the demonstration of the phenomenon under investigation. The purpose of my study is to understand how beginner teachers develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. The phenomenon under investigation is the process of theory building as the way that knowledge is developed. Shakir advocates the use of a combination strategy that included one choice from each of the three clusters. Using the framework, it is evident that my study is appropriate because the strategies described in section 5.3.4 - *homogenous case*, *stratified purposeful cases*, *intensity cases* and *theoretical cases* are spread across all three clusters.

The purpose of my study was to create and test a new interpretation (Kurzel, 1999). This could only be done by interviewing the participants to understand the reasons behind their actions that in turn, revealed the knowledge they were developing.

Adequacy is a trade-off between breadth and depth. Understanding how the participants were developing their knowledge involved collecting in-depth information from them. The richness of the data would have decreased if I had tried to involve more participants to increase the breadth of the study. Therefore, *adequacy* was assured by collecting rich data about a small number of participants over an extended period using a variety of data collection methods.

5.4 My involvement as a practitioner-researcher

In section 1.2, I described how my professional background as a teacher, headteacher and consultant headteacher had led me to this research. Being a practitioner and a researcher in the field of Education has implications on how the study is conducted. One of these implications is how to address the question of being involved as a participant rather than remaining outside of the study as a researcher. This involved considering the question of what to tell the participants and their students about my experience as a teacher. Brown and Dowling (2010) recommend being honest and open whilst ensuring that the information given does not influence the findings of the study. I ensured that this did not happen by providing information sheets to the University, the placement schools and the participants (see appendices 8, 9 and 10). The sheets described the study and its aims together with biographical detail about myself as a practitioner and researcher.

A further issue of being a practitioner researcher was in how to prevent my involvement adversely influencing the data. Glesne and Peskin (1992) argue that it is

not possible for a practitioner-researcher to be completely objective because they bring their own knowledge to the research process. However, it is possible to minimize the influence on the data by ensuring that advice and feedback is not offered about what is being observed and discussed.

My particular position as a practitioner-researcher has afforded some advantages to the research design which foregrounds me in the process (Day, 1995). My knowledge allowed me to interpret the literature from the perspectives of a teacher and a headteacher. For example, some of the literature reviewed was not directly related to Education or the management of behaviour. I used my experience to interpret it and offer analogous examples to illustrate it relevance to this study. My experience as a teacher of over 20 years also enabled me to make decisions about the data in terms of sorting and analysis. An example of this was being able to recognize teacher behaviour such as rule-reminding and tactically ignoring as strategies for managing classroom behaviour and raising them with the participants to ascertain the relevance and reason for their actions.

5.5 The sample: selecting the university and the participants

The principle behind the research design was to understand the process that beginner teachers were using to develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. As stated earlier, beginner teachers develop *repertoires* to deal with 'problems' they encounter in the classroom. These *repertoires* are made up of strategies for teaching the curriculum subjects and managing the classrooms where they work. Therefore,

the participants of this study can be classified as 'typical' beginner teachers on the basis that they also develop *repertoires* made up of strategies for teaching and classroom management. This negated the need for a *sampling logic* process for the selection of participants or the universities where they were enrolled. Differences in gender, race, age, background and disability were not regarded as key variables of this study. This study is concerned with how development takes place and determining how these important social differences might, specifically, influence this development was considered to be beyond its scope. However, future studies are recommended to investigate how such differences can influence the form and rate of development of knowledge.

Replication logic was applied to the design of the study at the *micro* level of the individual participants to increase the reliability and validity of the findings. This was achieved by replicating and comparing the findings between the *units of analysis* of an individual participant to determine the process they were using to develop their knowledge. Replication was also applied laterally by comparing similar *units of analysis* being developed by more than one participant.

The use of *replication logic* allowed for the selection of universities that expressed an interest in being involved in the study and who placed their beginner teachers in urban schools. I initially approached a number of universities that offered full-time secondary PGCE programmes (see appendices 8 and 11) and two replied. One was located in London and the other on the outskirts of a city sixty miles north of my

home in Essex. Both satisfied the requirement of offering a full-time PGCE but only

the London university arranged teaching placements in urban-only schools. The other

had partnerships with schools in urban, semi rural and rural areas. A further

consideration was the distance from my home and work. I was conducting the

research on a part-time basis travelling sixty miles placed a considerable burden on

me in terms of additional time and financial resources. For this reason, the London

university was selected.

As explained above, *replication logic* allowed for the selection of the participants to

be based on criteria other than producing a representative sample of the whole

'population' of beginner teachers. The main criterion was that the participants were

enrolled on a full-time, secondary PGCE university-based programme beginning in

September 2007. The selection of the university was based on the placement of its

beginner teachers in urban schools. The secondary criterion for selecting the

participants was that they could commit to the requirements of the study over the

two-year period. Asking the participants to volunteer stood a greater chance of

securing that commitment.

The process of selection began by contacting the PGCE course leader and setting up a

meeting to discuss which group to approach and then arranging a date to meet them.

The English and Drama strand of the PGCE was selected and I attended one of their

sessions at the university where I explained my study and circulated the information

sheet (see appendix 9). Time was allowed for questions and at the end of the sessions,

those interested signed up with the proviso that they had a week to 'cool off' and confirm their continued interest (see appendix 16). I began the study with six participants and two reserves that could be called upon if any withdrew prior to the first teaching placement observations in November 2007. The six participants comprised of three coming from completion of undergraduate degrees, two had experience of work and recently gained Masters' degrees and one was retraining after a career in advertizing.

A disadvantage of using volunteers was that they may have already been interested in the management of classroom behaviour and therefore, be more sensitized to the purpose of my study than other beginner teachers. Although the study could influence which strategies were developed, it could not influence how they developed knowledge of them. A further disadvantage of volunteering was that the participants could withdraw whenever they chose. This did happen with one participant leaving in November 2007. I made the decision not to engage one of the reserves at this late stage as I considered that five participants still provided a viable number for the first year of the study.

At the end of the PGCE year, the number of participants was reduced to three. The reason for this was so that I could spend more time with the remaining participants to increase the depth of the study. The selection of the three participants was based on where they had gained their first full-time posts as qualified teachers. Two of the five gained posts at independent schools so I selected one of them on the basis that he was

the only male participant. Two gained posts at comprehensive schools in Inner

London boroughs. I was currently working in the same local authority as one of the

participants and my role had expanded to include succession planning. This required

developing senior leaders and included the management of classroom behaviour. I

concluded that there was a possibility that this research would filter down and effect

how teachers developed their knowledge of classroom management so I selected the

other participant. The third participant was selected because she had gained a post in

an urban school on the fringe of London, which had a distinctly different student

profile from the inner London comprehensive school where the other participant was

working. To summarize, the continuing group of three participants comprised one

teaching in an independent school, one in an inner city comprehensive school and one

in an urban comprehensive school on the fringe of London.

5.6 Interviews

Interviews provide access to what Tuckman (1972) and Feiman-Nemser and Floden

(1986) describe as what is 'inside' a person's head, making it possible to measure

what a person knows (knowledge) what a person likes or dislikes (values and

preferences) and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). This made it an

appropriate method of collecting data for my study.

5.6.1 The interview design

The aim of interviewing was to achieve what Cohen *et al* (2007) described as revealing the similarities and opinions in order to find common approaches. At the same time, I wanted to allow the participants to describe the unique aspects of their approaches by highlighting the complexities of the contexts and say what they wanted to say in their own words.

Interviews are social interactions involving an exchange of views between the researcher and the participants (Kvale, 1996). Mischler (1986) argued that one-shot interviews that follow a fixed schedule and do not include biographical detail are suspect. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 89) added that interviews are "meetings between two strangers who cannot make out one-another's socially organized frames of meaning". Therefore, multiple interviews that included sharing biographical detail were selected to enable the participants and researcher to reach understanding and construct meanings about their work. In this respect, the interviews were neither subjective or objective but what Laing (1967, p. 66) described as *intersubjective* because they provided opportunities for the participants to interpret the management of behaviour from their own points-of-view. As a result, both the participants and I constructed meanings using our own orientations that originated from our beliefs, dispositions, knowledge, concerns, emotions, identities, attitudes and interests.

Kvale's (1996) list of key characteristics underpin the approach I used in the interviews. These included understanding the participants' 'worlds', using a common

language and eliciting detailed descriptions of specific events rather than generalizations. I remained open to new data rather than being pre-structured, which meant accepting that new insights could arise and that participants may change their opinions over time. Finally, I ensured that the interviews were positive experiences for the participants.

Cohen *et al* (2007) described interviews as explanatory devices to help identify the variables and relationships in the study. Tuckman (1972) added that the variables of a study point to where to begin to design an interview schedule. The variables of my study were the different schools where the participants developed their knowledge (contexts); the changes in personal views over time (concerns); the differences between the classes and students the participants taught that led to variations in their feelings (emotions) and the match in views about managing behaviour between staff in the schools and the participants' personal views (*capital* and *agency*).

The starting point for the interview design was to gain an initial insight into the participants' 'worlds'. The first round of interviews was conducted in September 2007 prior to the first teaching placements. One focus of those interviews was on understanding why participants chose to become teachers by getting them to describe their 'journeys' to ITE. Embedded in the 'conversations' were questions that yielded data about their initial thoughts on how they were going to manage classroom behaviour together with concerns they had about becoming teachers. A second focus was on how teachers had managed behaviour during their own schooling and how

their parents had disciplined them in the home. The remaining rounds of interviews during the PGCE year were organized to coincide with the two teaching placements and their first posts as qualified teachers. This enabled me to study the variables associated with working in different schools. The final round of interviews were considerably longer so the participants could describe in detail all the strategies they had been developing and the reasons that underpinned them.

Cohen *et al* (2007) suggested that interviews can also be used to identify the relationships in the data. The main relationship within the individual 'cases' was associated with the similarities between a participant's strategies (*units of analysis*). Relationships were also identified between 'cases' in the similarities of approach and/or similarities in the connections between the strategies and the reasons underpinning them.

To summarize, the variables and relationships informed the design of the interview schedule (see appendix 14).

5.6.2 Types of interview questions

The semi-structured interview approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982) was selected over the structured interviews (Oppenheim, 1992) and the informal conversational interviews (Patton, 1990). The reasons for this choice are described in this section. I had an existing agenda related to my theoretical model. A structure was required while still allowing for the exploration of ideas that arose. However, some features of

the other interview styles were also utilized. For example, the questions needed to be adapted to take account of the personalities and circumstances of the individual participants. Equally, standardized questions were used to achieve what Oppenhiem (1992) described as *stimulus equivalence*, which is that participants understood a question in the same way. Questions did not need to be asked using exactly the same words but they had to result in the same interpretations.

Spradley (1979) and Patton's (1990) lists of *substantive* questions formed the basis of the earlier interviews. These kinds of questions aimed to elicit descriptions about events and people; allow the participants to describe specific experiences and consider how they had influenced them; demonstrate the knowledge that they were drawing on when dealing with students and fill in background details where necessary. Kvale's (1996) *process* questions were used to interpret the participants' replies; directly ask them information about an event; follow-up on an idea they had communicated previously and most importantly, to encourage them to use specific examples to illustrate their responses. The questions were predominantly open rather than closed to facilitate these intentions.

5.6.3 Interviews as narratives

Vitz (1990) and Mischler (1990) suggested that teachers give explanations in the form of narratives rather than abstract, propositional statements. Mischler (1986) explained that the participant and interviewer co-construct meaning by producing a 'story' around the 'facts'. Elbaz (1991) added that teachers use their 'stories' to make

sense of their work. MacIntyre (1984) points out that the stories they tell are detailed and are embedded in the communities and contexts where they originate. Butt *et al* (1988) and Janesick (1982), Clark and Peterson (1986) and Gudmundsdottir (1988) talk about the importance of providing teachers with the opportunity to tell their stories as a means of understanding how they construct their identities. I allowed the participants to foreground their 'voice' to yield data about their identities and access details about specific events, people, incidents, reasons for actions and contextual influences. The more they were able to say, the freer they became. This resulted in their explanations yielding data about how they felt, their beliefs and the concerns they had about becoming teachers. Schluk and Segal (2002) found that many of the accounts that teachers gave were examples of event-based memory. This agrees with Abelson's (1979) view of beliefs being composed of information 'stored' episodically (see section 2.3.3) and points to teachers' stories being vehicles for articulating their beliefs.

Interviews provided opportunities for the participants to use language to communicate their emerging schemas. This may have been the first time they had attempted to verbalize their ideas so care was taken not to give advice that would assist their understanding. However, the act of questioning may have prompted deeper thinking, which could have advanced their 'growth'.

Encouraging the participants to use narratives ensured their responses would be personal, related to specific contexts and rooted in practice. Observation data was

used to ensure that what each participant said they did reflected their practice. In summary, narratives prevented the participants giving answers they thought I wanted to hear, avoided closed responses and reduced the likelihood of generalizations

5.6.4 Ethical considerations of interviewing

Informed consent

I ensured that informed consent was gained in advance in writing from each participant (see appendix 9). I explained the interview process, the means of recording the interviews, the transcription procedure and the storage of the data.

Protection of privacy

This was ensured by deleting the sound recordings once they were transcribed in writing. Students were given with fictitious names in the transcription. The participants' names were changed in the transcription and the final thesis. The 'host' schools and university were not named.

Non-maleficence

Following Aronson and Carlsmith (1969), I ensured that the balance was right between the need to pursue my study and in maintaining the dignity of the participants. Care was taken to ensure that the interviews were conducted in private, did not present any physical or reputational threat and maintained levels of respect for them as members staff at the school, members of the teaching profession and as human beings (Strike, 1990).

5.7 Observations

Purposeful observation requires careful planning that is driven by what it is designed to reveal. The factors that I considered prior to entering the field were - why, what, where, when and how to observe. These are explained in the following sections.

Why observe

The reason for observing the participants' practice was to ensure that what did was what they said they did (Robson, 2002). Observing practice needed to ensure that it revealed what the participants said they did and minimized the chance of missing it by incorporating a range of design features. Observation can reveal a great deal that cannot be obtained by other methods. Cooper and Schindler (2001) suggest that it allows things that have been taken for granted be seen afresh. This is particularly important in my study because a new understanding can only come from seeing something like the management of classroom behaviour from a pedagogical perspective rather than a naturally occurring phenomenon.

Bailey (1994) described the advantage of repeated observations of the same person over time as being able to notice trends in practice. Carspeckin (1996) added that it leads to 'thick descriptions' of their behaviour. These detailed changes provide data for analysis of 'growth' of a participant's strategies over time and reveal the enhancing and inhibiting factors on their *agency*.

Moyles (2002) explained that the effects of the context on the phenomenon can become apparent through observations. The context is important to my study, not only as the site of the development of knowledge and its application but also as the external structuring influence on the participants' *agency*. Morrison (1993) added that the interactions between a participant and the students provides the need for strategies to manage behaviour. Wragg (1994) highlights the significance of these interactions as the sites for initial responses to 'incidents' that the participants had not previously experienced.

What is observed

The focus of the observations was on the ways the participants were managing classroom behaviour. I called these 'ways', the strategies that made up a participant's *repertoire*. Wilkinson's (2000) *molecular* and *molar* classification provided a means of categorizing the content of observations. Wilkinson described the *molecular* units as the participant's gestures, speech, tone of voice and non-verbal communication. The *molar* units are the themes made up of strategies and reasons for their selection. The reason behind the choice of a particular strategy was made known to me either in advance in the interview or in the post-observation discussion. The connections between strategies and reasons were cautiously made using what Sacks (1992) described as *inferential analysis*. These inferences could then be applied in what Silverman (1993) described as *etic* and *emic* relationships. The *emic* aspect is the conceptual framework of the person being observed and the *etic* aspect is the

observer's theoretical model. I used my *etic* model to analyze the observation data in order to understand the participants' *emic* conceptual frameworks.

Where to observe

The purpose of this study was to understand how the participants were developing their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. As already discussed, this takes place within a context and so the observations needed to take place in the classrooms where the participants worked. In the first year of the study, this was in the 'host' schools where the participants carried out their teaching placements. Each participant completed two placements in different schools. One headteacher of a 'host' school declined permission allowing me to observe the participant because "a lot of observation was already going on" (Yasmin, 2nd Teaching Placement, 2008). The other four participants were observed during both placements resulting in fourteen observations in the first year. In the second year, all three of the remaining participants were observed for between three and five lessons each, resulting in twelve observations. The overall total was twenty-six observations in the two-year period in ten different schools, made up of eight mixed comprehensives, one same-sex grammar school, one same-sex comprehensive and one independent school.

When to observe

The first round of observations during the PGCE year took place during the second half of the autumn term in 2007. This enabled observations to be carried out of the participant's early experiences of the being teachers. The second round took place

between April and June 2008, towards the end of their longer twelve-week

placements. These observations provided data about the participants' emerging

strategies for managing classroom behaviour and in particular, the differences in their

styles between the two placement schools. The final round of observations took place

in 2009 during the summer term in the second year of the study. This provided data

about the participants' approaches to classroom behaviour after nearly a year working

as qualified teachers. The expectation was that they had begun to think beyond

managing behaviour for 'survival' purposes to more student-centered reasons.

How to observe

This involved careful planning to ensure that the advantages offered by observation

were not outweighed by the disadvantages. The first consideration was on what kind

of observation strategy to employ. Using Flick's (1998) three dimensions of

observation, a *semi-structured* approach was selected over the *highly structured* and

unstructured approaches. The reason for this choice was that I had an agenda of

issues and needed to gather data in a systematic but not highly structured way.

LeCompte and Preissle (1993) proposed that there are degrees of participation in

observation. These are clearly described in Gold's (1958) continuum for the

researcher role in observation (see next page).

Complete participant

Participant as observer

Observer as participant

Complete observer

Complete involvement

Involvement and detachment is balanced

Complete detachment
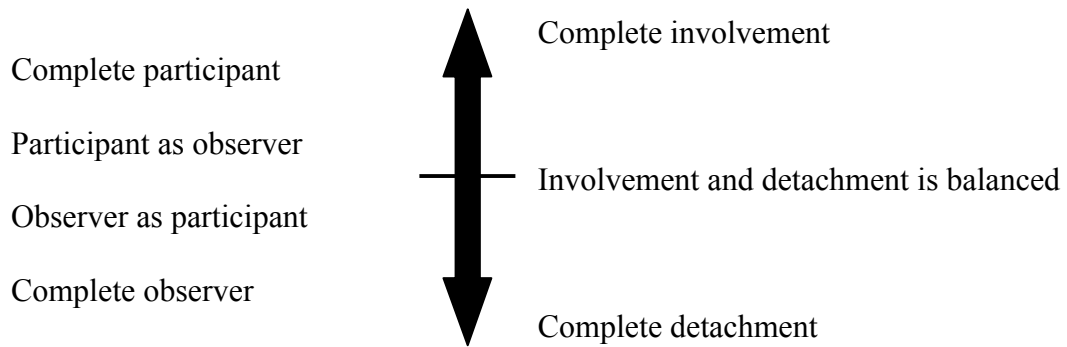
Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) describe complete involvement as taking on a membership role within the event while still observing. This can be done overtly or covertly and will be covered later in the section on ethical considerations. They describe complete detachment as looking through a one-way mirror. I opted to observe with complete detachment or what Adler and Adler (1994) call the non-interventionist approach because I did not want to manipulate situations or subjects or get involved in the lesson activities.

5.7.1 Avoiding bias

Wilkinson (2000) and Shaunessy *et al* (2003) warned of the risk of bias in observing events because of the subjective nature of the process. Cohen *et al's* (2007) list of the 'problems' of observations was used to design measures to reduce bias.

<u>Selective attention of the observer</u> is minimized by avoiding seeing the event from just the students' or teacher's point of view. I positioned myself at the side of the room so I could see all the people involved.

<u>Reactivity</u> occurs when those being observed change their behaviour. The focus was on how the participants developed their knowledge so all of their reactions yielded data, even when it was different from usual. The participants' responses would provide data of their initial responses to 'incidents' they had not previously experienced.

<u>Attention deficit</u> was avoided by ensuring I did not get distracted by events beyond the classroom or by students attempting to engage me in conversation.

<u>Validity of constructs</u> was ensured by achieving a balance between the *molecular* and *molar* units of the participants' actions so that holistic interpretations could be made.

<u>Selective data entry</u> was avoided by recording what actually happened in terms of who was involved, what was said and done, the antecedents to critical incidents, results of interventions and the times and durations. This reduced the likelihood of making interpretations at the point of data entry. The interpretative stage took place after the observation by analyzing the data itself.

<u>Selective memory</u> was prevented by recording in real-time during the lesson reducing the loss or temptation to foreground some elements over others.

<u>Interpersonal matters</u> are caused by allowing subjective views about individuals to enter the data. I ensured I remained detached and only analyzed 'incidents' in terms of cause and effect rather than making judgements about who was right or wrong.

<u>Expectancy effects</u> were reduced by approaching observation events with an open mind and recording what was actually seen rather than only recording things that confirmed initial views.

<u>Inference</u> can only be achieved with accuracy if the reason for the action is known. The interview data and post-observation discussions were used to clarify things I did not understand or actions that seemed to have links with earlier events.

5.7.2 Developing a 'tool' for recording observations

Having established the observation process and procedures, I needed a 'tool' to record the data. I utilized the checklists of LeCompte and Preissle (1993, pp. 188-200), Lofland (1971) and Spradley (1980) to design a recording form (see appendix 15). The form addresses a number of criteria, which are explained in this section.

The physical setting was mapped by providing a space for sketching the classroom layout. The students were shown as numbers and their gender indicated with the + and ↗ symbols. Space was made on the form to record the date, time and duration of the observation. The participant's objectives for the lesson were obtained in advance and recorded as the 'goals'. The form had a section for recording the events

and activities, together with the times when they occurred within the lesson. Relationships between students and the participant were recorded together with notes about their emotions.

Flanagan (1949) argued that critical incidents are particular occurrences that can shed light on the reactions and responses of the teacher and so care was taken to ensure that they were recorded. A final section was included on the form for what Bogdan and Biklen (1982) called 'reflection'. In the context of an observation, this is the interpretation and meaning that arises either within or immediately after the event.

5.7.3 Ethical considerations for observing lessons

The issue of covert observation was mentioned earlier. My observations were completely overt and this was ensured by gaining informed consent in advance, in writing from the school (see appendix 12) and the participant (see appendix 9). The participant gained consent from the class teacher and the students on my behalf. The students were used to people observing the participants as part of their PGCE and NQT programmes and in-school lesson observations for monitoring purposes.

Protection of privacy was ensured by recording observations in writing. No sound or visual recording devices were used in the lessons. Students' names were not recorded. The students and participants were given fictitious names in the final thesis. The 'host' schools and the university were not named.

Although my *modus operandi* was not to intervene during observations, I was duty-bound on moral and legal grounds to intervene on a student's behalf as a 'responsible adult' to offer care or protection if their welfare or safety was at risk.

When I visited the schools, I carried with me an enhanced Criminal Records Bureau certificate (CRB) and a letter from my university. I also ensured I completed the 'host' school's visitor registration log and wore an identity badge. This enabled everyone in the school to identify me as a visitor on legitimate business.

5.8 Questionnaires

The interviews provided data about the participants' perceptions of how they were developing knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. Initially, I identified the relationship between the teacher and their students as an important feature in this process. I considered relationships to be an important factor in how teachers responded to 'problems' in the classroom and therefore, the site where their plans originated.

Researching relationships involves understanding the opinions and views that underpin them. This kind of data can be obtained by interviewing but I considered that impractical because students needed to be included. Eventually, I chose a questionnaire as the best way of collecting a similar kind of data from two groups - the participant teachers and participant students. The original purpose of using a questionnaire was to contribute new information and not to triangulate existing data.

Single items about a topic are not a reliable way of finding out about a person's opinions. Brown and Dowling (2010) suggest using a range of questions about the same phenomenon to reduce unintentional bias or idiosyncratic responses. This approach enables different aspects of the same opinion to surface. The range or set of questions are then be considered together as a single unit.

The key factor in using a questionnaire in this way is to ensure each unit has discriminative power. The set needs to have the power to discriminate between the top 25 % and bottom 25 % of those being 'tested'. This is achieved in two ways, firstly by ensuring that the number of respondents is large enough (Dowling and Brown, 2010) and secondly, that the questions within a set are made up of negative and positive statements about the same issue. Robson (2002) calls this *face-validity*.

I began developing a questionnaire based on LaForge and Suczek's (1955) work on interpersonal dimensions' of personality. This led to a tool devised by Leary (1957) called the *Interpersonal Adjective Checklist* designed to understand the relationships between teachers and their students. The problem with this tool was that responses could only consist of 'yes' or 'no'. Eventually, I chose a questionnaire developed and used in the field by Wubbels *et al* (1993) because it covered aspects of teacher-student relationships relevant to my study (see appendix 20). The questions were organized into eight sets that described particular aspects of a teacher's interpersonal communication style (see appendix 21). The advantage of this questionnaire over Leary's tool was the inclusion of a Likert scale (Likert, 1932). The scale is made up

of five points allowing for a frequency evaluation between 'A - Never' and 'E - Always'. The values could be reversed for positive or negatively worded statements about the same issue. The scale is converted to numerical values and totals for each of the eight sets produced. I used these to make comparisons between different points in time for the same participant and also between several participants at one point on time.

During the course of the study, the focus gradually changed from being on the teacher - student relationship to relationships between the teacher's *habitus* and the *field* they inhabited. Teacher - student relationships were no longer considered to be as important as the relationships between the knowledge a participant developed and the factors that enhanced or inhibited its development. The students became one of the external contextual factors along with the culture of the schools and the communities of practice within them. However, some of the questionnaire data, particularly the participants' responses turned out to be useful because they provided their perceptions on certain events that helped fill in gaps in the analysis. To summarize, the questionnaire data only made a small contribution to the findings of the study in comparison to the interview and observation data.

5.8.1 Ethical considerations for using questionnaires

The question of asking students to complete the questionnaire was considered very carefully. A number of factors were taken into account in reaching a decision to involve students and these are explained in this section.

Completing a questionnaire is a decision that individuals make so they are not passive

data providers. As such, this makes them *subjects* not *objects* of research (Woodhead

and Faulkner, 2000). Participation is under their control at various points including

deciding whether to be involved; withdrawing after giving permission and selectively

completing the questionnaire by not responding to some items. Informed consent was

gained from the participant teachers (see appendix 16) and their students (see

appendix 13). The questionnaire was administered during my visit to the school. This

enabled me to provide further information to the students about my study, allow them

to ask questions and offer them another opportunity to decide whether they still

wanted to be involved. Reassurance was given that the questionnaires would be

confidential and they did not need to give their names to ensure anonymity.

Responses to items were converted to numerical values and the whole class's

responses for a question were aggregated. The totals for all of the questions in a set

were aggregated to give one score for that aspect. This anonymised individual

responses to particular questions. The only information reported to the participant

teachers were the totals for each set and this did not happen until the end of the study,

long after they had finished teaching the classes involved. This reduced the potential

for *beneficence* and *maleficence*.

The students and the participant teacher had the option to refuse to answer questions

they did not want to for whatever their reason. Some students exercised this freedom

resulting in a number of incomplete questionnaires.

The issue of potential *maleficence* between students and the participant teacher was considered carefully. The questionnaire had already been widely used by Wubbels *et al* (1993) in schools in many countries including England. Putting students in a position where they can evaluate aspects of teachers' work is widespread. Many schools provide opportunities for students to comment on the quality of teaching as part of their annual monitoring processes (Bevan, 2012; Duffy, Roehler and Rackliffe, 1986; Hamblin, 2013; Meighan, 1978; Wilce, 2006). Some schools have programmes that involve students in the observation of lessons, which legitimizes their feedback. Two important questions underlie any form of involvement of students in providing feedback about lessons, learning opportunities and teaching. Firstly, how will the data-collection process ensure *non-maleficence* and secondly, how accurate or truthful will the data be that is collected?

Spencer and Flin (1993) explained these issues and argued that "by the age of 3 to 4 years, children understand the essential difference between the truth and a lie" (Birbeck and Drummond, 2007, p. 24). Hill *et al* (1996) and Powell and Thomas (2001) found that asking children a question about something once, resulted in more accurate responses than repeatedly questioning them or following up a question with supplementary questions to elicit more detail. Therefore, using a questionnaire that contains negative and positive forms of questions about the same topic was more likely to yield accurate data than one that contained items that pursued topics with follow-up items. These findings also indicated that a questionnaire was a more reliable way of gaining accurate information from children than interviewing.

Spencer and Flin (1993) concluded that as long as children are allowed to participate in the information collecting process in an appropriate way, which included being treated as *subjects*, not *objects* in the research "there is no reason why perceptions and thoughts should be regarded as anything other than competent" (Birbeck and Drummond, 2007, p. 27). A view supported by Meighan (1978). With this in mind, I ensured that the data they gave about teachers was treated confidentially and with care to make certain there was no risk of maleficence to students or teachers.

5.9 The pilot study

A pilot study was carried out to test the subjects' reactions to the data collection procedures. It followed Foster's (2013, p. 1) recommendations that include determining the percentages of the forms completed successfully, the suitability of the observation, the time needed to carry out the interviews and questionnaires, the subjects' willingness to follow the interview protocol and any unanticipated variance in their responses. The full details of the pilot are contained in appendix 22.

Pilots were carried out on the initial interview questions and the questionnaire to ensure that they would yield useful empirical data and any procedural issues could be overcome. The pilots took place between June 2006 and July 2007. The aim of the pilot was to involve at least one of each of the following: a beginner teacher on a teaching practice; a qualified teacher in their induction year and an experienced teacher with a proven track-record for managing classroom behaviour. Experienced teachers were invited to participate in order to provide an insight into the different

perspectives they might have on classroom management, in particular, the stages they had gone through since they entered teaching.

The pilot interviews were designed to test the pre-course interview questions to find out if they would yield useful responses about the participants' childhoods, the ways their teachers and parents had managed classroom behaviour and the ways they managed classroom behaviour.

Three teachers volunteered to be involved in testing the questionnaires to identify any procedural difficulties in administering it with the students. One was a beginner teacher, one an experienced teacher and one a senior manager with a class responsibility. The beginner teacher was representative of the participants of the main study and so any problems that she encountered might be resolved in advance.

They administered the questionnaires simultaneously in June 2007 to satisfy the requirement that it was not used in the first two weeks of the school year. The reason for this is that questionnaire should only be administered once the teacher and the class have developed a relationship over a period of time. The teachers asked their students to volunteer to ascertain whether enough would participate and in all three cases, over fifteen students from each class came forward.

The observation form was piloted in three lessons and provided an effective tool for recording observations. The only modification required was to provide more space

for recording the events and activities. The use of gender signs worked well but I decided only to indicate female students with a + symbol making it unnecessary to indicate the male students.

5.10 Keeping the participants informed

Maintaining the participants' interest and helping them feel valued was important. Ignoring this could have led to one or more participants withdrawing, resulting in insufficient data being available to support the conclusions. I avoided this by keeping the participants informed about the study. I briefed the participants at the end of each interview about what I would be doing and when I would contact them next. Prior to each interview or a visit to a 'host' school, I contacted the participants via email to make the arrangements for my visit and gain the informed consents in writing from all those involved. At the start of each lesson observation, the participants discussed their aims, highlighted things they felt I might be interested in and gave me details about the class and the roles of other staff in the room. After the lesson we had a post-observation discussion to ensure I had grasped the significance of the events, incidents and their actions.

A copy of the finished thesis was sent to each of the participants prior to binding and their comments were used to clarify points or make corrections where appropriate. The participants were also reminded about how the research findings would be disseminated.

5.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have described the research design and the 'tools' used to collect the empirical data. I have rooted the empirical work within the case study paradigm and shown how the multiple embedded case study approach best suits the needs of this study. I have also described how collecting 'rich data' from a small number of participants supports the interpretative methodology. This is further reinforced by treating each 'encounter' with a participant as a *unit of analysis* (Yin, 2003). The number of potential *units of analysis* totalled seventy-one, consisting of nineteen interviews, twenty-six observations and twenty-six sets of questionnaires. These enabled me to compare and analyze a significant amount of data collected in a variety of ways. Furthermore, as the data was collected over a two-year period it provided opportunities to identify when a participant exercised *agency* to enable 'growth' in their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour and how internal and external factors influenced that *agency*.

I have described how the multiple embedded case study approach with its *units of analysis* enabled me to use *replication logic* to select the university and participants of the study. I have also described how the two the main data collection tools were selected and how they were used. The study yielded a significant amount of data and I begin the next chapter with an explanation of the coding methodology I used to sort it into themes.

Chapter 6 The analysis process

6.1 Introduction

In this section, I set out the process used to organize and analyze the data of the empirical part of the study. In section 6.2, I describe how the narrative data was analyzed using the *molar* and *molecular* approach in order to ensure a holistic interpretation. In section 6.3, I provide detailed explanations for how each of the narrative types present in the interview data were identified and analyzed. Section 6.4 concludes the chapter.

6.2 The narrative data

In chapters 2-4, I set out the theoretical model and the enhancing and inhibiting factors that together, described how beginner teachers could be developing their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. Chapter 5 sets out the research methods used to collect the empirical data to test whether the theoretical model matched what happened in practice.

The first step in the analytical process was to preview the interviews during the following week after they were conducted to identify any new master strategy codes, which were added to the list identified apriori from Gutherson (2006). The strategy codes were given names that clearly described what aspect they represented, for example - *Relationship building* (see appendix 23). Once the transcriptions were

completed, they were re-read and each piece of data that referred to a strategy was coded for use later.

The next step was to identify the narrative types the participants were using. The analysis if this data was focused on the *molar* aspects of the responses as holistic constructions of meaning using the *molecular* aspects of responses made up of paragraphs, sentences and phrases. I was not engaging in quantitative methods of counting occurrences of particular words or phrases or in the ways the participants expressed themselves using speech tone, type, vocabulary or body language. This decision was based on Kvale's (1988) assertion that transcription erases this kind of contextual detail.

Before describing the process used to identify the narrative types that the participant's used to articulate their thoughts and actions during the interviews, it is important to discuss the status of this kind of data. Whyte (1980) points out that interviewees' accounts are not scientific statements of fact and are therefore, subject to refutation. Whyte suggests that questions should be asked about the causes of interviewees' accounts in terms of the events and interpersonal relations that gave rise to them. Bearing in mind Garfinkel's (1967) assertion that the interviewees' accounts are highly contextualized, I have approached them as *situational narratives* rather than true reports.

Holstein and Gubrium (1995) argued that interview data does not give direct access to the interviewee's experience. The responses form constructed narratives of activities, event, incidents, judgements and relationships mediated by their personal perspectives. Further analysis is required to understand how their accounts relate to the question of the study. This is achieved in a number of ways. Heritage (1984) suggests that because a narrative is bounded by the context where it originated, it also needs to be subjected to analysis along with the content of the account. Mehan (1979) added that a problem with research involving interview and observation data is knowing what is anecdotal evidence and what is representative of actual instances. Fielding and Fielding (1986, p. 32) expanded on this and argued that there is a temptation to select data to fit an ideal conception (or preconception) of the phenomenon. This approach is characterized by the "selection of data which are conspicuous and 'remarkable' at the expense of the less dramatic (but equally valid) data". Mehan (1979) suggested that this problem can be avoided by using criteria that show why some units of data have been included and other excluded. I have made provision to follow Mehan's advice by devising processes that show the transparency of the selection of data using detailed sets of criteria.

Paradigmatic and *syntagmatic* approaches are employed in the analysis process (Maxwell, 1992; Maxwell and Miller, 1992). The *paradigmatic* approach is used to relate *cases* to the theoretical model at a specific point in time to make comparisons between individuals' *agency* and *repertoires*. A *syntagmatic* approach is the

following of a participant's development of a specific strategy over time to identify and chart *agency* and 'growth' (Mohr, 1982).

6.3 Identifying the narrative types in the interview data

The participants of the main study responded to the interview questions in similar ways to those in the pilot. They used 'stories' to articulate their thoughts and actions in ways that they said had not been previously available to them within the university or the schools where they worked. They commented that they found the one-to-one 'conversations' with me useful as they gave them opportunities to talk about their childhood and school experiences. The effects of this sensitization were noted and have been discussed in chapter 5. Korthagen *et al* (2001) signalled the importance of talking about strategies in theory building (see section 4.5.6).

Cortazzi's (1991) analysis of Wolfson's (1978) work indicated that research narratives differed from conversational narratives. He found that respondents gave more self-contained 'answers' as summaries and 'stories' during research interviews compared to conversational narratives that contained more reported speech and aspects that both parties had in common. The earlier interviews of my study showed considerable alignment with Cortazzi's findings but what was noticeable was the gradual change over the course of the two years. As the participants got to know me and became more familiar with my study, their responses began to include more features associated with conversational narratives. Additionally, the frequency of the use of *vignettes* changed. To begin with, participants used *single vignettes* to illustrate

their experiences of childhood. In contrast, little use was made of *vignettes* in relation

to accounts of teaching. The reason for this may have been due to the lack of actual

experience as teachers to base *vignettes* upon. The situation gradually changed over

the two-year period and by the end, they used *vignettes* to describe classroom events

more frequently. The interview data was re-read to identify the various forms of

narratives being used by the participants. It became clear that their explanations fell

into a number of broad categories. Each narrative was summarized to facilitate the

analysis process. The narrative types are shown below:

Narrative type	Biographical narratives
Second level categories	Experiences at school as a child
	Experiences at home as a child
	Becoming a teacher

Narrative type	Reasons for managing behaviour narratives
Second level categories	Accounts with rationales linked to reasons
	Expressions of beliefs about the purpose of Education and managing behaviour
	Positive and negative concerns about self and students

Narrative type	Incident narratives
Second level categories	Incidents witnessed during preparation period for PGCE
	Incidents witnessed during ITE
	Incidents witnessed during NQT year

Narrative type	Method narratives
Second level categories	School policy methods
	School community of practice methods not sanctioned by policy
	Methods that originate from experiences in school, from reading or discussion

Narrative type	Relationship narratives
Second level categories	Narratives about relationships with other staff
	Narratives about relationships with students
	Narratives about relationships with parents

6.3.1 Biographical narratives

These were the 'stories' the participants told about their personal experiences. The questions in the pre-placement interviews were designed to yield data about childhood experiences of home and school. The Participant Permission Form (see appendix 16) provided an opportunity for the participants to write about why they decided to become teachers. This was also taken up in the interviews and formed the bridge between childhood experiences and their ITE. These interview questions provided the sub groups in the second level of the analytical process for biographical data (see below).

Stage 1				Stage 2		Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5
Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 1	Level 2			
Biographical narrative fragment(s)	Experiences at home as a child	Specific incidents	Substantive knowledge Process knowledge Emotions Beliefs	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive knowledge expanded Process knowledge expanded Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Reflective cameos	Substantive knowledge Process knowledge Emotions Beliefs	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive knowledge expanded Process knowledge expanded Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
	Experiences at school as a child	Specific incidents	Substantive knowledge Process knowledge Emotions Beliefs	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive knowledge expanded Process knowledge expanded Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Reflective cameos	Substantive knowledge Process knowledge Emotions Beliefs	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive knowledge expanded Process knowledge expanded Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
	Becoming a Teacher	Specific incidents	Substantive knowledge Process knowledge Emotions Beliefs	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive knowledge expanded Process knowledge expanded Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Reflective cameos	Substantive knowledge Process knowledge Emotions Beliefs	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive knowledge expanded Process knowledge expanded Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4

There are five stages of analysis. The second level categories were further divided to enable data to be sorted in a number of ways. The level 3 narratives about childhood were sorted into two categories. The first category was 'specific incidents' and could be identified by the inclusion of phrases such as "I remember one particular occasion…" For example:

> I remember one teacher, a geography teacher, he was very good. At the beginning of the year he said "Look, I'm not taking any funny business and that seemed to do the trick [Pre-placement interview with Michelle, September 2007[4]

The second category was 'reflective vignettes'. This category is characterized by summaries of a number of events over time and could also include a value judgement that summed up a feeling or opinion formed over a period of time. For example:

> I really did like my school work…school was something I was praised for that's why I wanted to do well [Pre-placement interview with Ann, September 2007]. [5]

The third level 2 narrative type of Biographical narratives was about becoming a teacher. The interview questions were designed to yield data about reasons for becoming teachers and the participants' preparations and concerns prior to their first placement. Level 3 was sub-divided into three categories. The first was the 'reasons for becoming a teacher' and could be identified by 'stories' about what had led them to choose teaching as career. For example:

> It's something I really want to do and I've worked from school to do this. I just worry that I'm not going to be good enough… teachers have to be really good in what they do and to be able to teach children in the areas I hope to be teaching in like East London where I live…to reach those kind of children you have to have a certain quality. I'm just worried that I won't be able to do that [Pre-placement interview with Nadia, September 2007]. [6]

The second level 3 category was about preparing to become teachers and could be identified by accounts or 'stories' about experiences in schools just prior to beginning the ITE year. For example:

> I have just doing the Student Associate Scheme. They made you do something and then look back at it so that's probably quite good [Pre-placement interview with Nadia, September 2007].

The third level 3 category was about the preconceptions and concerns prior to entering the classroom for the first time as a teacher. A group of questions in the pre-placement interviews was designed to yield data about the 'hopes' and 'fears' of becoming a teacher. For example:

> I get worried about whether I am going to fit in with the school and whether I am going to get on with the others in the department…I been told 'don't smile until Christmas' and don't be too friendly and I worry that that will go against my own personality. There is a fine line between being yourself and being a teacher. Do you have to be one or the other? That's what I am struggling with at the minute but I'm looking forward to it [Pre-placement interview with Ann, September 2007].

Each of the level 3 categories were sub-divided. The experiences of home and school as a child were divided into four categories. The *substantive knowledge* is characterized by details about what has been learned from the experience. For example:

> …if they asked me if they could go to the toilet I would just say "No, wait until break time" [Pre-placement interview with Michelle, September 2007]. [7]

Feelings and emotions may not always be expressed but when they are, they will be associated with the level 3 narratives. For example:

> How did you feel when your dad shouted or smacked you? I realized that I'd done something quite wrong, I never felt angry at him really for doing it, more frightened really [Pre-placement interview with Michelle, September 2007]. [8]

Identifying beliefs is not straightforward. A participant may respond by starting a sentence with "I believe… What is more likely is a belief is embedded in a description of a strategy. Experience as a practitioner researcher (see section 5.4) is invaluable in detecting beliefs in this way. For example:

> One thing was you would never ever talk back to a teacher. You just didn't do it [Pre-placement interview with Yasmin, September 2007]. [9]

A declarative statement of this kind signposts an underlying belief about how students should relate to their teachers.

Identifying the *process knowledge* is more straightforward as it is usually in the form of a description or explanation indicating what the participant knows about a strategy in terms of how it is implemented and what the desired impact is likely to be in particular contexts. For example:

> I won't really take any nonsense at the beginning. I'll go in strict and be quite strong then soften up as time goes by because when I was at school, the best teachers were like that [Pre-placement interview with Nadia, September 2007]. [10]

A lack of *process knowledge* can also be identified from an account. For example:

> When I was in [a London school] for three weeks helping out. I would say "Okay get your book out, open it at a page 51, get out a pen, start copying this off the board or whatever' and half the class just wouldn't do it. So I would go round the tables and go "okay Johnny, I've noticed you haven't got your pen out then, would you mind getting it out and writing something" and he just turned around, looked me in the face and said 'no!' I didn't know how to respond to that [Pre-placement interview with Yasmin, September 2007].

That concludes the explanation of the first stage of analysis of biographical narratives. The second stage connects the outcomes of the analysis of the single interview to subsequent interviews and is divided into two levels. Level 1 analysis involves the identification of the strategy being referred to in stage 1. The example earlier of Ann saying how much she liked being praised at school enables the strategy of *using praise to encourage and motivate students* to be identified. The level 2 analysis of subsequent interviews involves searching for further references of the participant developing the strategy.

The third stage of analysis involves analyzing references to the strategy in the subsequent interviews to identify how the *substantive* and *process knowledge* has been expanded. This is characterized by more sophisticated descriptions of the situations accompanied by insights into how the strategy addresses the 'problem' and the process of application including modifications. The description is also accompanied by evaluation of its impact. The conceptual tools (see section 4.6) are used to analyze the narratives in terms of the impact and establish how the participants' knowledge has been enhanced or inhibited by contextual factors.

The fourth stage of analysis is the assessment of the strategy being developed by the participant. The theoretical model (see section 4.5) is used to chart the development of the strategy at each interview subsequent to its initial identification. The criteria of the model are used to pinpoint the stage a participant has reached. The process is a complex one as the participant may talk about a strategy in a previous interview but that does not mean it began within the two-year period of the study. Some strategies can have origins in prior experiences that stretch back as far as childhood, such as the example given earlier of Ann's experience of being praised during her own schooling. Therefore, a further search of the preceding data is required to ensure the fourth stage of analysis is carried out effectively. The outcome of this stage establishes how far a strategy is developed.

The fifth stage involves the third and fourth stages being repeated in order to identify the 'growth' in the strategy and the enhancing or inhibiting effects of the contextual

factors. The strategy is deemed to be suspended if no further evidence is found in subsequent interview or observation data.

The biographical data gathered from the interviews was also used to produce 'pen portraits' of each of the five participants that remained in the study (see appendix 24).

6.3.2 Narratives about reasons for managing classroom behaviour

These were the 'stories' the participants told about their reasons for managing behaviour and are subject to changes as a participant becomes more confident about abilities as a teacher. During each interview, I asked the participants about the importance of managing classroom behaviour and invited them illustrate their responses with examples. I used this opportunity to return to the subject of their hopes and fears expressed in the first interview to see whether they had changed their views in any way. The process of analyzing this kind of data is shown in the diagram on the next page.

Stage 1 | Stage 2 | Stage 3 | Stage 4 | Stage 5

Level 1 | Level 2 | Level 3 | Level 4 | Level 1 | Level 2

Reasons for managing behaviour fragments

Accounts of strategies linked to reasons
- Observed → Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotions / Beliefs → Strategy identified → Links to subsequent data → Substantive knowledge expanded / Process knowledge expanded / Impact → Chart progress → Repeat stages 3-4
- Actually involved → Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotions / Beliefs → Strategy identified → Links to subsequent data → Substantive knowledge expanded / Process knowledge expanded / Impact → Chart progress → Repeat stages 3-4

Expressions of belief about purpose of managing behaviour
- About the child → Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotions / Beliefs → Strategy identified → Links to subsequent data → Substantive knowledge expanded / Process knowledge expanded / Impact → Chart progress → Repeat stages 3-4
- About the adult → Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotions / Beliefs → Strategy identified → Links to subsequent data → Substantive knowledge expanded / Process knowledge expanded / Impact → Chart progress → Repeat stages 3-4

+ve and –ve concerns
- Self concern → Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotions / Beliefs → Strategy identified → Links to subsequent data → Substantive knowledge expanded / Process knowledge expanded / Impact → Chart progress → Repeat stages 3-4
- Task concern
- Impact concern → Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotions / Beliefs → Strategy identified → Links to subsequent data → Substantive knowledge expanded / Process knowledge expanded / Impact → Chart progress → Repeat stages 3-4

There are five stages of analysis. The second level categories are divided to allow the data to be sorted appropriately. The accounts of strategies linked to reasons for managing behaviour are sorted into the ones observed by the participant, for example, when a participant made this comment:

> I think it's something we need to think about how to encourage people to be good with each other. And to lead decent lives [NQT interview with Peter, April 2009].

This resonated with an earlier 'story' he told about an incident he had observed while on the Student Associate Scheme:

> One of the students had frustrated an NQT teacher and wound her up to the point where she was close to tears so these three teachers got this child into the staffroom, made him stand in front of her. Then one after the other, they just barked at him "who do you think you are?" "Do you know how rude you have been?" It was endless and I thought stop it, this is abusive and then their voices got louder, it was like the three of them were encouraging each other. I just wanted to get out of the room. It was an awful thing to do to anybody. I don't care what he'd done that was just unfair [Pre-placement interview with Peter, September 2007]. [11]

Accounts of strategies a participant is actually involved in will be illustrated with examples from their own classes. For example:

> So the role of teaching is much fuzzier and the role of being an adult with people who are not quite adult carries more weight than the strictly pedagogic stuff. My spelling is very poor so I'll ask them to check and it becomes a bit of a game, which we all enjoy. It makes them think about words but some of them are now saying to me "are you dyslexic?" and they're really sympathetic to it and that helps them to be sympathetic to each other [NQT interview with Peter, April 2009].

The participant uses the account to explain the importance of being sympathetic to others. He believes this is a valuable quality to develop in his students in order that they can grow to be good people. Narratives like these may take the form of recurring threads. For example, the second level 2 question is concerned with a participant's expressions of beliefs about their reasons for managing behaviour. The thread from Peter's narrative illustrates this as it reappears again later in the same interview when he explained the belief behind his reason for developing this sympathetic nature in his students:

> My aim is about preparing people to be adults [NQT interview with Peter, April 2009].

Narratives concerned with the reasons for managing behaviour can be about the participant's current perspective and will often be linked to self-concerns. For example:

> I think it's going to be hard for me to discipline with any real sincerity because I'm sort of on their side so that's going to be tricky I think but I quite like naughty boys [Pre-placement interview with Peter, September 2007]. [12]

These two examples illustrate how participant's concerns link to their reasons for managing classroom behaviour. This will be discussed in more detail later.

The third level 2 narratives are the concerns a participant has at the time of being interviewed and are sorted using Fuller and Bowen's (1975) classification of *self, task* and *impact concerns*. Narratives about *self-concerns* will take the form of either declarative statements or 'stories' about their concerns. For example:

> I do have the anxiety of being a fairly young teacher because I've gone through the system and haven't had any time out. Although, I've always done a weekend job throughout my degree and I've done student mentoring and the Associate Scheme so I haven't just been isolated and been in my studies all the time but I worry about that possibly as a younger teacher coming into it [Pre-placement interview with Ann, September 2007]. [13]

Narratives about task concerns are most likely to be short accounts of negative things that a participant believes are obstructing their work such as problems with technology or planning. Alternatively, they can be about a need to improve things such as their timing of lessons.

Narratives about *impact concerns* are often more detailed and lengthy with examples and illustrations. There is a strong likelihood that they will be linked to other narrative strands such as biographical, relationship and method 'stories'. For example:

> My ballet teacher, who I met when I was ten, would gather us all round and he'd tell us a little story and because he was in the arts world, he knew an awful lot of people who were challenging all kinds of different ideas. And I thought his way of encouraging us to think about how the world worked, and our place in it, was incredibly powerful. He was encouraging us to think.
>
> And that's always been really important, my parents were like it, they asked questions all the time. So those are my models of what makes good teaching, it's somebody who can capture imagination sufficiently. For me, the whole business about teaching, about trying to encourage people to think about their impact on the world, what is it they choose to do once they leave school, and how will they choose to deal with other people? Kids from

those kinds of (Independent) schools are likely to be employers, or leaders of some sort. I feel that my role as a teacher is to help them to behave when they're dealing with the rest of the world. I think they have a responsibility to be good people [NQT interview with Peter, April 2009].

The third, fourth and fifth stages follow the same pattern described for biographical narratives, resulting in a range of connected strategies linked to a participant's reasons for managing classroom behaviour being charted collectively as one emerging theory.

6.3.3 Incident narratives

The first stage of analyzing this type of narrative involves identifying the differences between actual incidents and more general accounts of methods. The narratives are then sorted into incidents that occurred before the participant's ITE, during ITE or in their NQT year. Level 3 analysis involves deciding whether the level 2 narrative was observed or actually experienced.
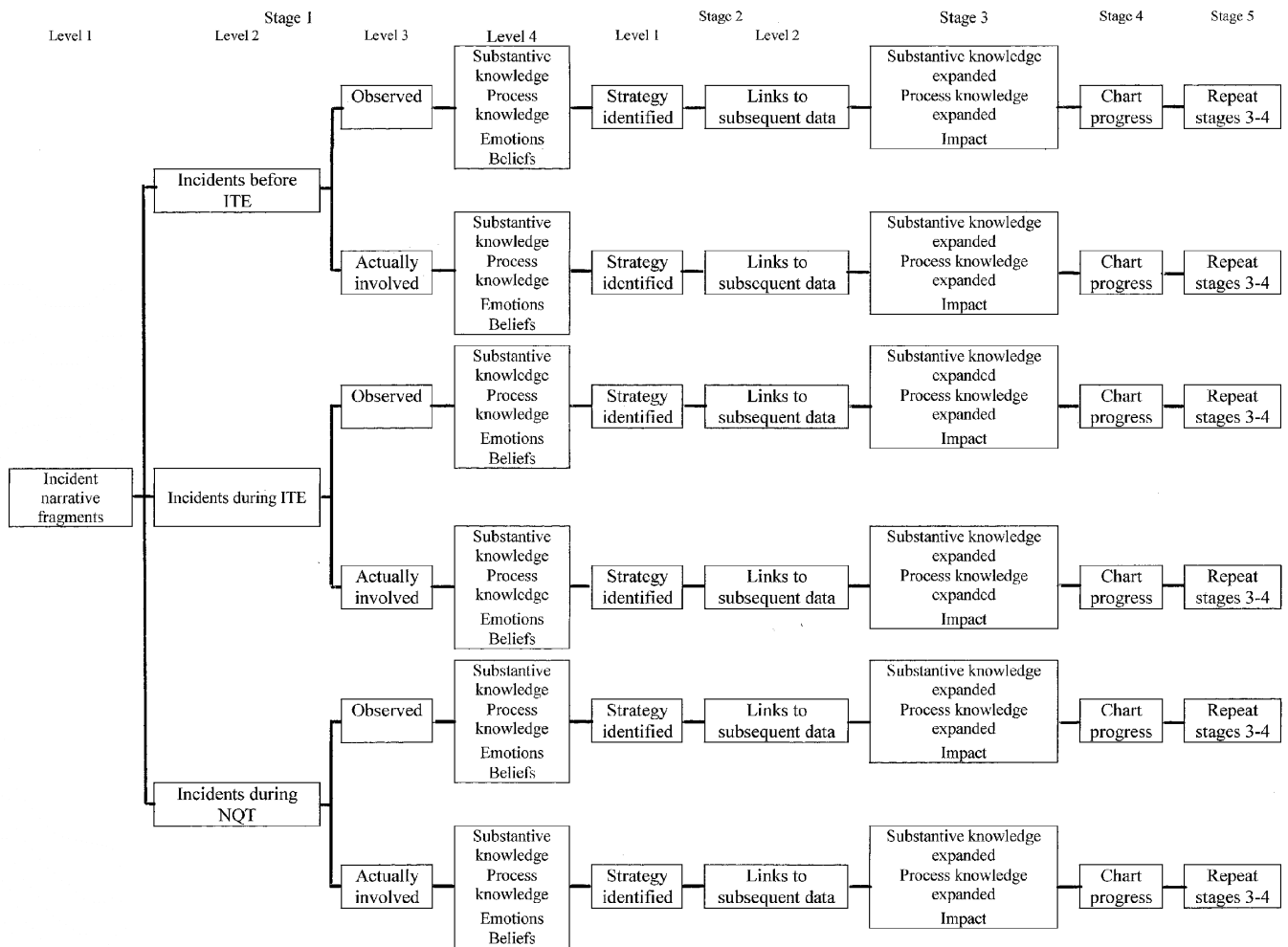
The following examples show how narrative data of incidents can be coded in this way. The first narrative is from a participant's childhood and describes an observed incident.

> The thing that really annoyed me was that there was one girl who was a bit troubled. I am not really sure what her home life was like but she just would get into these frenzies of anger. She would actually throw stuff around the classroom like chairs and things. This was really unusual for our school because everyone was so well behaved. It was like she was so extreme, for the context of the school and it was so often that she would have these outbursts. It was like the teachers wouldn't punish her in the same way as if I had got up and done the same thing [Pre-placement interview with Yasmin, September 2007].[14]

The 'story' below is also from a participant's childhood and she describes how she was actually involved.

> I've got a twin brother. We must have been about 12 or 13 years old I think. I remember I had a big fight with him and my mum just started crying and then I realized, "Oh, this is terrible." That stopped us from fighting. It stopped us from fighting. so... it seemed actually to be quite affective [Pre-placement interview with Michelle, September 2007].

The narrative data for incidents during ITE and the NQT year can be sorted as observed and involved in the same way. The third, fourth and fifth stages follow the same pattern described for biographical narratives. The difference between incident narratives and the other types is that the participant can use them to explain why they have developed a particular strategy. This approach yields *substantive knowledge*. Alternatively, incident narratives can be used to reinforce particular strategies and contributes towards the development of the *process knowledge* of the new strategy as an emerging schema.

6.3.4 Method narratives

Method narratives tend to be used once a participant has begun teaching and started to understand how they relate both to the context and also their personal views. The first step in the process is to distinguish between method and incident 'stories'. One of the keys to this are the more generalized descriptions used in method narratives. Although quite detailed descriptions of the reasons for the method and the explanations of how it works are given, the absence of dates and times separates it from incident narratives.

251
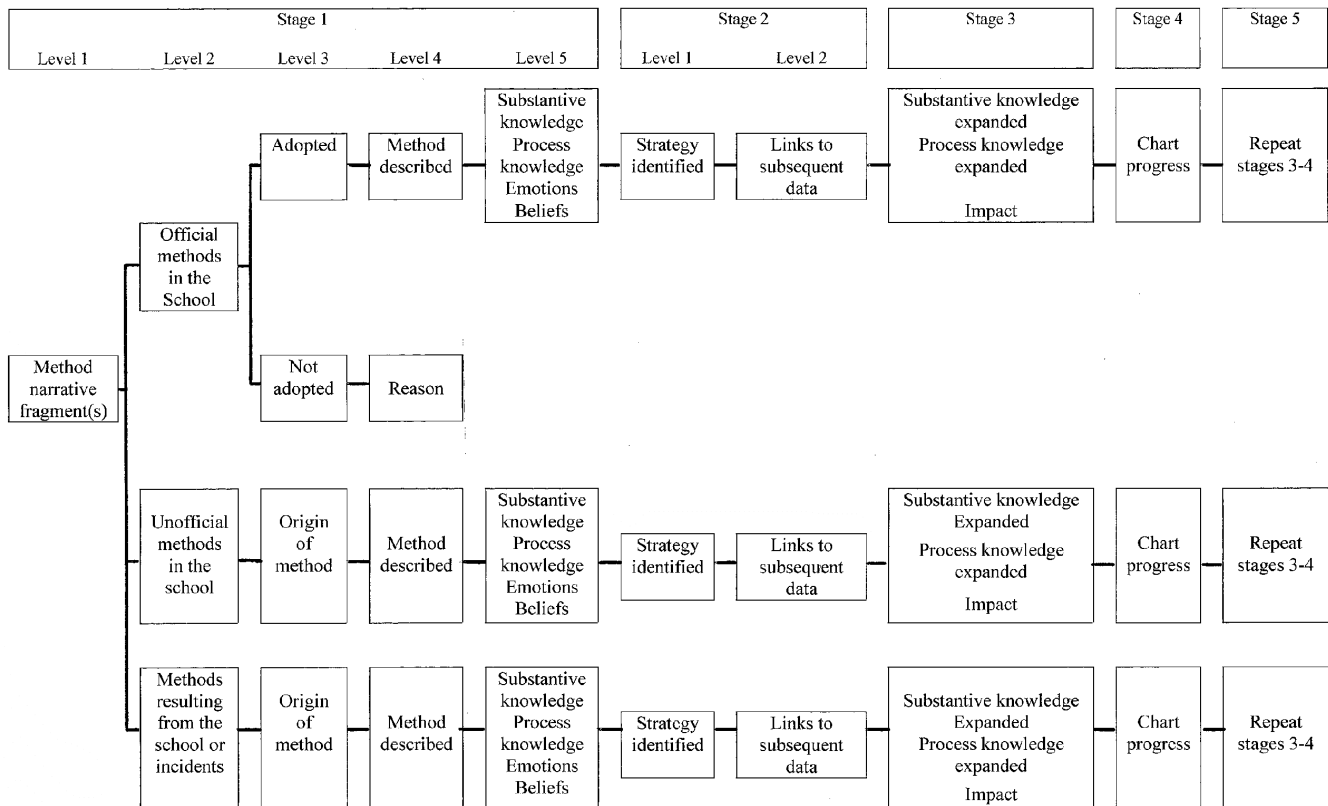
Once identified, a method narrative can be classified in three ways. The official

methods used in the school are the ones spelt out in policies that form the customs

and practices approved by the school leaders. Participants will describe these as either

practices they have adopted and are learning or practices they have decided not to

adopt. An example of a participant's adopted practice narrative is given below:

> They've got a really good policy with sanctions here which is easy to apply because it is
> not too confrontational. They've got this warning sticker system which, if they do
> something wrong you stick a warning sticker in their planners. The first one is a check,
> the second one is a 15-minute detention, the third one is an hour detention, and the fourth
> one is a call home. Then it is divided up into whole school sanctions and subject specific
> sanctions and there is poor behaviour, lack of equipment and a couple of other categories.
> For it to mount up, you have to get the same offence. The sticker lasts the whole term and
> they can mount up quite quickly [First teaching placement interview with Melanie, Dec
> 2007].

Various indicators will appear to show the participant has adopted it such as positive value judgements and a clear explanation of the method. In contrast, a practice not adopted will invariably have a reason for not adopting a practice accompanied by a negative value judgement:

> They have this 'disreputable pupils' timetable here but I've never used it, because it's pretty disastrous. What happens is if you have a pupil, you have a timetable of lessons that more senior teachers are teaching. And you can send the kid that's been troublesome to them with some work, to sit at the back of their lesson, to remove them from your situation. But all the Yr 10's are having English lessons at the same time. So if you send that pupil to a different Yr 10 class, they still know everyone in there so you just move the disruption to another class [Second teaching placement interview with Melanie, April 2008].

The unofficial methods used in the school will be the alternative strategies that the participant will develop to replace the official one. For example:

> I set up the lessons to make sure that everything is absolutely clear because the consequences of not doing that are a very disorganized class. At my previous school, if you didn't explain something fully, you could get them back and say 'right I'm sure I didn't explain this fully, let's go again' but here if you don't explain things clearly here you get complete chaos. So I anticipate behaviour problems and try to think 'how are the class going to respond to this which is really helpful for planning [Second teaching placement interview with Melanie, April 2008].

The third way of classifying method narratives is by identifying as originating from any kind of triggers in the school. These could be incidents, 'problems' arising from an aspect of teaching or maybe something the participant has read or discussed with colleagues:

> I was reading *The Caring Teacher's Guide to the Classroom Discipline* and I'd been told about this boy in my class who had issues with female teachers, and that he could be quite offensive. That was the behaviour I encountered when I started to teach that class. So I adapted my approach with him so that I was more caring. In a way it frustrates me to have to pussy-foot around children who are playing up. The idea of having to praise somebody for remembering to bring a pencil. I don't really think you should be doing that! If there's a standard you expect, you shouldn't have to praising things that are below that standard. But I think for the sake of having a classroom that is as free as possible of disruption, sometimes you do have to appease the more difficult characters.
>
> So I started to be use a softly-softly approach. I approached his anger issues by looking at them in a different way, you know, this kid acts up a lot in my classes, he's quite aggressive. But I'm going to stop thinking about him as a difficult so-and-so, and start thinking about him as having anger management issues. As soon as you try to look at it from in that way it helps

you to behave calmly. I'd call him aside at the beginning of the lesson and say "If you start to feel that your getting agitated, or the temper is bubbling up just put your hand up and you can leave the room for a minute or two to calm down. The popular psychology of that is that I was giving him agency and treating his issue as a serious issue that deserved my care and attention as opposed to thinking that every time he played up I was going to shout at him and give him a detention. That really started to work he was far more forthcoming in the class [Second teaching placement interview with Yasmin, July 2008].

The participant will describe the method together with its origin in their narrative.

The third, fourth and fifth stages follow the same pattern described for biographical narratives. The difference between method narratives and the other types is that the participant will often include the reason why they have chosen to develop the particular method. This approach yields considerable *process knowledge* of the new strategy that can be used to chart their position using the theoretical model.

6.3.5 Relationship narratives

Relationship narratives for the purposes of this study are concerned with staff and students. The relationships with staff are important in terms of how they enable a participant to have *agency* to develop their knowledge of strategies for managing classroom behaviour. Of particular significance are the relationships between the participant and the class teacher in the host school. The relationships with students are significant because of the importance that participants put on building relationships as a way of managing classroom behaviour.

Level 1	Level 2	Stage 1 Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Stage 2 Level 1	Level 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5
Relationship narrative fragment(s)	Narratives about staff	Observed	Positive interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / Belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Observed	Negative interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Actually involved	Positive interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / Belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Actually involved	Negative interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
	Narratives about students	Observed	Positive interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / Belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Observed	Negative interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Actually involved	Positive interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / Belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4
		Actually involved	Negative interaction	Substantive knowledge / Process knowledge / Emotion / belief	Strategy identified	Links to subsequent data	Substantive and Process knowledge expanded / Impact	Chart progress	Repeat stages 3-4

Once identified, relationship narratives can be classified in terms of what a participant observes and by actually being involved. Narratives describing how other staff related to each other were rare however, narratives involving a participant and a member of staff at the school where they worked were found. Value judgements will form part of the narrative and these can be framed either positively or negatively. The narratives about students will yield data about *process knowledge* for strategies that a participant is developing to manage classroom behaviour in a direct way. In this sense, it is a primary knowledge form. The narratives about relationships with staff, especially the

class teacher, yields data for making judgements about how the participant's

knowledge development is being either enhanced or inhibited. Examples of the

relationship data are given below.

> The other person who is really good is one of the Yr 7 teachers. I saw her doing a cover lesson for my class teacher and she was really good. She just had a really calm manner and they were all responding to her well and she had an air of authority. I don't know whether that was because she was the deputy head but they weren't scared. Most of them were involved in the lesson. I didn't see any bad behaviour that day at all [First teaching placement interview with Melanie, December 2007].

A typical example of a narrative that can be classified as relationship data involving a

member of staff is:

> One of the Deputies in the department said very clearly in my first week, prompted by a question of mine "what's the most important thing to do?" She said "like it or not, in this school, irrespective about all other debates about what Education is for, in this school the numbers matter and it's about pushing them through the assessments, about getting them through their GCSEs and that is the most useful thing for them for all kinds of social reasons". I have a resistance about that as a narrow focus and I worry sometimes that that is more about institution survival than what's best for the child. Those are the difficulties I've had because there is lots going on in my head about what I think Education is for and trying to experiment in the classroom to see what works for them, what fires them up and what they are interested in [First teaching placement interview with Peter, December 2007]. [15]

Data can be classified as actual involvement by the inclusion of details about the

interaction between the participant and the member of staff together with quoted

pieces of speech like the example above. The inclusion of data indicating some kind

of reflection enables a thread to be pursued or continued. In the case above, it

continues the chain of thought of the participant about the purpose of education and

his opinion about the tension between performativity and his need to do good.

Narratives describing the observations of interactions of students can either be

between students themselves or between a member of staff and a student with the

focus on the students. For example:

> Like on the day where I had a bit of trouble with them I was just getting them back on side by saying "you've got a chance to redeem yourselves in this feedback session if you want to be taken off the list of names on the board". All the hands go up apart from him. He turns around and says "well I can't believe you are all sucking up to the teacher. I can't believe you can be fooled that easily". Then the hands go down. I don't need that negative atmosphere. He is obviously someone who can spread that kind of anti-work thing through the class if you let them [First teaching placement interview with Melanie, December 2007].

This example illustrates a negative interpretation of a relationship that the participant. The third, fourth and fifth stages follow the same pattern described for biographical narratives. The difference between relationship narratives and the other types is that the participant will often make links to their own beliefs about the reasons for managing behaviour, the purpose of education. Additionally, they may give opinions about how the views of others affects their feelings about their own *agency* in the school This approach yields considerable substantive knowledge about their views that underpins the process knowledge of strategies they are developing. This can be used to chart their position using the theoretical model.

In the next section, I will show how this process of analyzing narrative data is used to identify the knowledge being developed at the various points and how it enables a participant's position to be charted using the theoretical model.

6.4 The analysis process exemplified

Analysis of the narrative data about a participant's reasons for managing classroom behaviour followed the process shown is described in section 6.3. I am going to use an example from the interviews with Ann to illustrate this process.

<u>Stage 1 of the analysis process</u>

In her pre-placement interview, Ann talked about how her parents dealt with

unwanted behaviour during her early childhood:

> I was put in the corner if I did anything wrong and that's maybe a good thing because you
> knew you had done something wrong.

This comment began a level 2 narrative thread in the interview of how Ann was

thinking about the management of behaviour prior to entering the classroom as a

beginner teacher. Her description of the strategy of being "put in the corner"

signposted it as level 2 data. She explained that this was how her parents usually dealt

with her misbehaviour, which enabled her to understand that what she had done was

wrong showed that she was actually involved (level 3 analysis). The time spent in the

corner was used by her parents to explain to Ann what she had done wrong and what

she could have done to avoid being in the corner. Ann recounted how this helped her

to understand that people have choices. The connections she made between the

account of the strategy that she was actually involved in and what she had learned

from it indicated that she had acquired stage 1 *substantive knowledge* prior to her first

teaching placement.

Her account showed that the experience had enabled her to learn about the cause and

effect dimension of her behaviour:

> You knew that there was a consequence for it.

Furthermore, she recognized that because her parents always responded to her

behaviour in this way that:

> It taught me that I was not going to get away with it.

This indicated that her stage 1 *substantive knowledge* included an understanding of the power of a consistent approach in ensuring that a child knows the boundaries of their behaviour. Ann also remembered how this strategy affected her emotionally (level 3 analysis):

> I really hated it. I remember sitting there after I was told what I'd done.

But she also found the time she spent in the corner beneficial because:

> I would sit there for a while cooling off and thinking about what I'd done and then I'd be okay.

So her 'story' showed she recognized she had some useful stage 1 *process knowledge* about managing a child's behaviour that included explaining what they had done wrong, being consistent, using a time-out strategy to "cool off" and remaining calm and in control.

Showing that actions have consequences enabled Ann to recognize the importance of choice as a means of managing behaviour. She articulated her understanding by conceptualizing the consequence of being in the corner as a learning experience rather than a punishment. This is a very significant part of her narrative as it points to the formation of a level 4 belief in helping students be aware that they are responsible for their own actions.

Stage 2 of the analysis process

Pursuing this line of analysis forward into subsequent interviews revealed that Ann had put her belief into practice. She explained that her reason for managing classroom

behaviour was to enable her to teach. Her narrative indicated that she had *self-concerns* about getting the students' attention:

> It is difficult to get the whole class listening straight away.

However, she was developing a strategy to deal with this:

> I stand near the door and raise my hand and that is the signal for the whole class to stop talking and raise their hands. The majority will put up their hands.

She relied on the students exercising their choice because they did not have to comply. The strategy hinged on their understanding of the situation and their desire to conform. Ann added that as the students raised their hands she praised them, which had a ripple effect. She explained that "peer pressure played a significant part" because once the "stragglers" realized what was going on they complied because they did not want to be seen as the ones "spoiling things". Although I did not witness this strategy in use during her first placement, I saw Ann using it to great effect in several lessons I observed during her NQT year.

Ann said she dealt with students who chose not to comply by asking them to stay back at the end of the lesson. During that time she talked to them about their behaviour. She was careful to point out to me that this approach differed to the way her parents dealt with her, indicating a transition from the level 1 step of identifying the strategy to the level 2 step of linking it to subsequent data. She believed that the students needed to reflect on their behaviour rather than being told:

> I will ask them why they think they are being kept back.

Ann also started to develop an approach to managing classroom behaviour based on building relationships with the students. She described how she had been given what she called "one of the best bits of advice" for dealing with difficult situations:

If you are confronted with something that is negative - just be really positive.

Ann recognized the power of this strategy because she was fairly young and quite small in size. She said that this non-threatening approach suited her more than trying to be authoritative, charismatic or humorous like some of the teachers at the school. Her calm, positive, reasonable approach resonated with the way she had described how her parents had managed her behaviour.

<u>Stage 3 of the analysis process</u>

Ann's *repertoire* of strategies had expanded since I talked to her prior to her first teaching placement. It now included the 'hand raising' strategy for getting attention and the strategy of praising recommended by a colleague. This indicated that her stage 3 *process knowledge* had increased to encompass these strategies. Her stage 3 *substantive knowledge* had also expanded to include knowledge of a range of styles that could be used by teachers when interacting with their students. Interestingly, she developed a style based on meta-perceptions of herself that had similarities to the style of managing behaviour used by her parents. However, she was beginning to make links between her style of praising and building relationships and the impact these strategies were having on her students.

Stage 4 of the analysis process - charting Ann's development of knowledge

Ann's development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour at the end of her first teaching placement can be charted using the theoretical model (see section 4.5). Clearly, Ann had developed plans of action and begun to implement them so she was beyond the *Intuitive Stage*. At the time, Ann was fairly confident about her plans and was gaining *mastery experience* (see section 2.8.1) because of her success and so the *Uncertainty Stage* did not apply.

Ann was aware of her goal, which was to be able to cope with difficult students by getting their attention and dealing with them in a non-threatening way. However, she explained that she had not managed to be successful with all the classes she taught at this early point in her ITE (she had only been teaching six weeks). This placed her strategies of using praise to build relationships and getting attention using 'hands-up', within the *Incomplete Gestalt Stage*.

Stage 5 analysis

This involves re-examining the interview data following the first teaching placement to identify continuations of the narrative thread. In particular, it is the search for any changes in a participant's reasons for managing classroom behaviour. The interview and observation data collected during Ann's second teaching placement did not reveal much about her reasons for managing behaviour beyond the purpose of enabling her to teach. However, she began to make connections between good teaching and classroom management. She described the differences between teaching students in

the comprehensive school and the grammar school. The latter were destined to gain

ten to twelve GCSEs, all at A and A* [16]. She realized that managing their behaviour

involved a different approach to the one she used at the comprehensive school where

she completed her first placement. This provided evidence of the link between the

knowledge a beginner teacher develops and the context where they work:

> The students test you academically. They want to know that you know what you are
> talking about and this has a knock-on effect on their behaviour [Second teaching
> placement interview with Ann, May 2008].

Ann found the school more challenging because the students were intelligent. She

explained that she "needed to keep one step ahead of them in her teaching" and

managed their behaviour differently because they were capable of quite sophisticated

ways of misbehaving.

A year later, Ann described how the experience had a profound effect on her. She

gave a detailed account of how her reflections on that experience had led her to

conceptualize the management of behaviour as an integral part of teaching as a

whole. She explained that she had started to understand the inequities that existed in

the education system. She found herself teaching a narrow ability band of very bright

students who were destined to succeed at school, progress to university and then do

well in their chosen careers. In contrast, her schooling had been at a state

comprehensive where the ability range was very broad. This indicated that she had

used her personal experience as a child in the reflective process.

The narrative data from the NQT interview with Ann was richer in reflective analysis

and plans than the data from earlier interviews. I have signposted particular phrases to

show how they contribute to the analysis of her reasons for managing classroom behaviour.

After her second teaching placement, Ann decided that she wanted to work in a comprehensive school to try to give her students the same opportunities to succeed as those at the grammar schools were receiving. This signalled her emerging reason for teaching:

Main subject   Context

I want them to be able to sit in a room, when they're about to have an interview and

Purpose   Comparison subjects

hold their own against grammar school students who may have had more varied opportunities.

Strategy of using a personal approach

I think it is important for me to try and infuse my passion and it may be that we

Constraint of context   Strategy for encouraging to motivate

can't cover it in lessons in as much detail but I am trying to give them inspiration to broaden

their ideas [NQT interview with Ann, July 2009].

Ann divulged that she had a *task concern* during her second teaching placement at the grammar school:

> I have an awful lot of freedom in this school to do what I want and that's probably because there are no schemes of work [Second teaching placement interview with Ann, May 2008].

This indicated an ongoing concern about planning that many beginner teachers have during their ITE year. It provides an interesting example of how a teacher can possess a range of concerns at any point in time. During her second teaching placement, Ann was concerned about the lack of schemes of work (*Tack concern*), her size and age (*self-concern*) and whether her lessons had the right level of academic challenge

(*Impact concern*). Once she began her NQT year, Ann began to formulate a plan to realize her aim of enabling her students to have the same kinds of opportunities as those in grammar schools. This involved finding opportunities for every student to contribute during lessons so they could learn how to communicate effectively:

Purpose

I have to make sure that they can look after themselves in the world of work and

Strategy aim   Underpinning belief

they can represent what they think and have opinions. I think that's an important skill.

Even if they write fluently about Shakespeare or they struggle with poetry. I still have a
Impact concern

care for them to make sure they can go out and express themselves and not get lost in the

Concrete reason for managing behaviour emerging

world of work. That's why I think that it's important to teach those skills that employers want.
[NQT interview with Ann, July 2009].

The relationship narrative data of Ann's NQT showed that she believed the barrier to achieving this aim was the dominant attitude of the less academic students in her classes. It showed that they called the students "Boffs" who answered questions during her lessons. This indicates Ann's Stage 5 *substantive knowledge* and shows her using it to devise a plan by setting up "chains" of students in her classes. She demonstrated her enhanced Stage 5 *process knowledge* by describing how she made up each chain with a very able student, one with average ability and one below the expected level. She taught them that when she asked a question they were expected to respond by answering as a group, which led to an improvement in relationships between students. She also taught them to begin their answers with the phrase "I want

to support (X) and add…" or "I want to challenge (X) because…" These strategies broke down the divisions between the students and provided evidence of Ann employing a strategy of avoiding labelling. The result was that every student could contribute to class discussions without being ridiculed.

A strategy of relationship-building began to emerge from her narratives. She described the school as a "thinking school" and used that to encourage the students to ask more questions rather than adopt the traditional role of supplying answers. This provides an example of how Ann re-conceptualized the typical roles of teacher and student to facilitate her strategy (see section 4.2.5 Role-Theory). Ann's *Delta 2 system* had developed to incorporate the director systems of her students in order that she could anticipate their responses and devise her own response:

Substantive knowledge of questioning
▼
They need to question and have a desire to not be happy with what they're told. I know that may

Constraint of context
▼
sound strange but I want them to question and this is where my responsibility goes outside of the

classroom. I don't want them to be militant but I want them to be able to question what's

happening around them. I could stand there and deliver a lesson that is completely false and no

One could question me. I don't want that. I want students to question what I'm telling them

Belief
▼
because through questioning they can develop a greater understanding of the topic.

[NQT interview with Ann, July 2009].

Ann described how she had reflected on her experience of developing questioning and started trying out the strategy with some of her other groups.

Ann explained that the development of questioning, praising to encourage, challenging labelling and name-calling using "chains" and cultivating the ability to express opinions in non-challenging ways were all sound strategies. However, in order to use them together as a means of enabling her students to perform as well in interviews as grammar school students she needed to make some modifications. This indicated that she had entered the *Schema needs stage* of *Schema building* in the theoretical model (see section 4.5.5). In particular, changes were required to enable the strategies to work with younger students. This showed she had engaged in *Schema forming*. The changes included pitching the strategy explanations at the appropriate levels for the age groups and varying the pace of delivery to ensure they grasped what she was saying. She achieved these changes using scaffolded steps and explained that allowed her to implement the strategies more fluently and confidently. From this, it is evident that she was 'testing' her schema with a range of groups, which indicated that she had started the *Schema expansion stage*. Furthermore, her ability to describe and discuss her schema with me showed she had passed through the *Schema explaining stage*.

The observation data reinforced the descriptions that Ann had given for her reason for managing behaviour. Her strategy of "chains" of students was seen in action with three of the four groups she taught. After a term, the students had become quite

confident in its implementation and were observed conferring during discussions and collaborated in their responses. This reinforced her method narrative data.

The students were observed giving answers as complete sentences rather than one or two word answers. For example:

> The students had been studying the book *Skellig* and discussing some of the main characters. One of the students made a comment about *Link* getting nothing but he still had his freedom. Another student said "I would like to challenge Shelley. I believe the choice of colours is important <u>because</u> some people might interpret black as punitive and some may see white as helpful". Then he *justified* this by saying "Not everything is black and white in this way. They are not always as cut and dried which is the case in real life as well". [Ann, NQT lesson observation, Year 9 English, July 2009].

Ann explained that the students were learning to construct the kinds of answers they were required to give in public examinations. This example shows how the students gave higher order answers, which included explaining why the choice of colour was important and justifying opinions. Ann said that she had first seen the approach being used during her second teaching placement at the grammar school but had to modify it before she could implement it with her own students. This indicates that she had reflected on her practice and devised a plan of action in advance. She believed that being able to respond to questions and justify the answer would be an advantage in interviews for work. This shows that her plan of action was underpinned by her belief.

Ann's use of praise to encourage students was also visible during the lessons I observed. She had explained she wanted to show the students that she valued their efforts as well as their achievements. She expressed this explicitly in her lessons as the piece of observation data below shows:

> Ann went straight into the main part of the lesson and did not use a starter. She asked a question and a number of students put up their hands. She said "We have some people putting in the <u>effort</u> to answer". She continued with another question. Several students raised their hands and she said "I've got two people putting the <u>effort</u> in". A few more put up their hands to answer. "It's good to see a few more of you putting in the <u>effort</u> [Ann, NQT lesson observation, Year 7 English, July 2009].

Observation data like this demonstrates how Ann was connecting her teaching strategies with her reasons for managing classroom behaviour and underpinning them with her beliefs in order to achieve her goal. The observation data also reinforces what Ann said she was trying to do, which is an issue already identified earlier (see section 5.7).

The analysis process exemplified here was carried out exhaustively with every piece of narrative data collected during the study. In the next section, I will describe the findings from this analysis.

6.5 Conclusion

The analysis process revealed that the participants used narrative 'stories' to describe their experiences. The focus of the analysis process was on the *molar* aspects of the responses as holistic constructions of meaning. Their narratives were accounts of experiences and feelings they had in specific contexts. Therefore, I viewed them as *situational narratives* rather than scientific statements of facts. I argued that the 'stories' were reconstructions of events and experiences from personal perspectives and needed to be analyzed in relation to the questions of the research.

The first step in the process was to identify the types of narratives the participants used. These included biographical narratives, reasons for managing behaviour narratives, incident narratives, method narratives and relationship narratives. These consisted of up to five stages that enabled me to analyze the interview data *syntagmatically*, both back to earlier interviews and forwards to subsequent interviews. I constructed networks for each narrative type that enabled me to identify the kinds of knowledge being talked about together with the links to 'internal' and 'external' factors (identified in chapter 2). The 'internal' factors included beliefs, prior knowledge, concerns, emotions, identity and efficacy. The 'external' factors included school experiences in childhood, school ethos, staff and communities of practice. The *syntagm* analysis provided evidence of *agency* and *growth* of the participants' knowledge over time. It provided evidence of the changes in the development of certain kinds of knowledge that occurred during transitions between schools. It also provided evidence of variations in the development of a participant's *repertoire* of strategies.

The second use of the networks was to enable *paradigmatic* analysis of more than one participant at a particular point in time. This provided evidence of differences between their strategies including reasons for needing them, their origins and differences in tactics they employed.

The second part of the chapter provided an exemplification of the analysis of one participant's strategy. The full process was described indicating how different forms

of knowledge interacted. Exemplars were given of how particular 'fragments' of

'stories' were analyzed in terms of their component words and phrases. This

demonstrated how the context, main subject, strategy, beliefs, and concerns were

identified, together with which factors facilitated or impeded the development of

knowledge. The chapter concluded with an exemplification of how the observation

data was used to 'test' the participants' accounts.

Chapter 7 Findings and discussion

7.1 Introduction

In chapter 1, I set out a number of questions that this study would attempt to answer. These were:

1. How are beginner teachers learning to manage classroom behaviour within the current performativity culture?

2. How does moving from one school to the next affect beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

3. What are the factors that facilitate and impede beginner teachers' development of strategies and knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

In chapters 2, 3 and 4, I reviewed the literature relevant to these questions and designed a theoretical model to describe the stages of development a teacher's strategy for managing classroom behaviour might go through. I also identified a set of conceptual tools that could be used to identify the factors that could facilitate or impede that development. In chapter 5, I described the research strategy that I used to collect empirical data to 'test' the theoretical model and conceptual tools in practical situations. In chapter 6, I provided an exemplification of how the empirical data was analyzed and in this chapter, I discuss the findings in relation to the questions asked in chapter 1.

In section 7.2, I discuss the findings related to the participants' beliefs and their influence the development of knowledge. In section 7.3, I discuss how the participants used prior knowledge to deal with on-the-spot situations encountered in

lessons. Section 7.4, explores the influence of concerns, emotions, identity and efficacy beliefs on the development of the participants' knowledge. In section 7.5, I discuss the effects of the context on the development of knowledge. This includes the organization and ethos of the different placement schools, the role of policies and the positive and negative influences of the class teacher on the training of beginner teachers. In section 7.6, I begin by discussing the interaction between the 'growth' and *agency* in the development of the participants' knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. I consider the similarities and variations between the *repertoires* of the participants and discuss the factors that facilitated and impeded the progress in the development of their strategies. Section 7.7 concludes the chapter.

7.2 Beliefs

The participants had a number of beliefs related to Education and teaching. Their beliefs can be traced back to different periods of their lives. They used these beliefs to frame their approaches to ITE and teaching in their first post as qualified teachers. My analysis of the data indicated five distinct origins of beliefs. These are:

- personal experiences as a child

- reading and scholarship

- personal identity

- the period just prior to and the first few weeks of ITE

- the ITE and NQT years

The beliefs that made up these categories were analyzed using a set of conceptual tools identified in section 2.3. To briefly recap, these tools were as follows:

Underived beliefs	First-hand origins
Derived beliefs	Second-hand origins
Alternativity	Another way of describing derived beliefs and is included to indicate Opposite Alternativity
Opposite Alternativity	Belief in doing the opposite of what has been experienced
Affective and evaluative aspect	The act of deciding where effort will be exerted to deal with responses caused as a result of a belief
Consensuality	Beliefs with internal consistency
Non-consensuality	Beliefs without internal consistency, for example doing something in practice that contradicts a belief
Signature feeling	The strength of connections between components of a belief that make it more or less resistant to change

These tools were used to trace beliefs back to particular periods of the participants' lives and then analyze them to determine whether they were formed by actual experience. The variations between beliefs are important because the more tightly a belief is held, the more resistant it is to change. As a result, a tightly held belief will be more likely to 'colour' the kind of knowledge that is developed (Nespor, 1987).

This study is focused on how participants developed their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. Observations were used to gather data about how they behaved as teachers as a means of 'testing' whether they actually did what they said they did in lessons (Robson, 2002). Therefore, the participants' beliefs were more powerful predictors of the origins of their behaviour than their knowledge, especially early in their ITE (Ernest, 1989).

The analysis enabled me to establish the inter-relationship between beliefs and knowledge in order to identify the *substantive* and *process knowledge* the participants

had developed as a result of their experiences during the study. I have set out the findings about beliefs using the five categories for their origins.

7.2.1 Beliefs formed in childhood

The participants came to their ITE with a range of *underived beliefs* formed from first-hand experiences during childhood. I have separated these into beliefs traceable to the home and beliefs traceable to experiences during their own schooling.

Underived beliefs formed in the home

Peter believed that students should have a significant amount of freedom. He said that this belief originated in the way his parents treated him at home. They were both social workers and had liberal attitudes to many aspects of life. As a result, he and his sisters could come and go and were not subjected to many rules. The observation data provided evidence of his gradual development of a classroom climate that provided considerable freedom. Peter said that he needed to concentrate on establishing a level of authority with his students at the start of each placement. This was evident by the lack of evidence of him giving license to the students so they could exercise their freedom. Later in the NQT year, this changed. The observation data provided evidence of students deciding which tasks they would tackle first and who they would partner up with for groupwork. The interview data provided evidence of the development of *substantive* and *process knowledge* of a range of strategies that gave the students freedoms. Peter's knowledge had expanded since he began teaching, which indicated that his practice eventually reflected this belief.

Ann's beliefs in being consistent and ensuring that the students know what they have done wrong were both traced back to the ways her parents disciplined her. She described how by always being sent to the "corner" had resulted in her believing that 'punishment' was inevitable. Furthermore, because her parents took the trouble to talk to her about what she had done wrong, she believed that when they gave her a 'punishment', they always justified it with an explanation.

The interview and observation data provided evidence of Ann's strategies of being consistent and explaining to the students, what they did wrong during detentions. Although she began her ITE with no sure *process knowledge* of how to achieve these strategies as a teacher (Dewey, 1933), the evidence shows that she quickly developed and expanded it throughout her ITE. The reason that she seemed to develop her *process knowledge* more rapidly than Peter was probably because her beliefs were based on the observable actions of her parents. Tackling misbehaviour whenever it occurred together with being sent to the "corner" and being told what she had done wrong were tangible actions. Whereas, Peter said he only realized he had freedoms as a child when he started to reflect on his experiences of growing up.

Yasmin had a very similar belief to Ann but the origin was different. Her experience of being disciplined by her parents was that they would rarely tell her what she had done wrong. She said she often found herself being disciplined without really knowing the reason. It infuriated her especially as she entered her teenage years. The result was that she resolved that when she became a parent she would make sure she

would always explain to her children what they had done wrong and justify the punishment'.

This is still an *underived belief* but provides an example of *opposite alternativity* (Nespor, 1987) because it is contrary to her actual experience. She explained to me that she was going to ensure she did the same once she began teaching. However, she was unable to explain how she was going to do this during lessons without breaking the flow. This indicated that she had no sure *process knowledge* for the strategy.

The observation data provided contrary evidence of Yasmin's belief and is an example of *goal incongruence* (Lazarus, 1991). During the lesson I observed[17], there was a considerable number of incidents of disruptive behaviour. Yasmin's response was to ignore it or reprimand the students and tell them to get on with their work. After the lesson, she explained that she began the placement by challenging every misdemeanor and issuing detentions in accordance with the school behaviour policy. She intended to discuss the behaviour and justify her actions during the detentions but the students rarely attended. The class teacher advised that it was better to ignore the misbehaviour of the few for the good of the rest of the class. As a result, she followed the custom and practice of the class teacher and other staff of ignoring the disruptive behaviour.

Underived beliefs formed in school

All the participants believed that having good relationships with the students was the key to managing classroom behaviour. Their reasons were underpinned by *substantive knowledge* of the relationships they had with teachers during their own schooling. They were not able to describe how they were going to develop relationships with their own students, which indicated that they had no sure *process knowledge*. However, over the course of the study they gave examples of how they had developed relationships with their students in various ways. These included finding out the students' likes and dislikes, getting to know their names, praising their efforts, avoiding labelling by treating them as individuals, valuing their contributions to the lessons, giving them responsibilities and revealing aspects of themselves to the students during their teaching.

Relationship-building has been identified in the literature as important in the management of behaviour (Gutherson *et al.*, 2006; Hobson *et al.*, 2008; Hobson *et al.*, 2009; Steer, 2005; Steer, 2009) but the participants reported that there was little if any advice or teaching about how to do it during their ITE. The descriptions the students gave of how they were going about building relationships were all examples of self-teaching (Grangeat, 2006).

Derived beliefs formed in the home and school

Nadia began her ITE with a belief that she could handle the kinds f behaviour that the boys exhibited in the area where she lived (an inner city borough). Her belief was

based on the experience she gained looking after and disciplining her younger brother when they were both young. Her own school experience had been in an all-girls secondary school. Therefore, she had no additional practical experience or *process knowledge* of boys' behaviour other than what she had gleaned from the Media and what she had been told. This indicated that her *substantive knowledge* had derived from the same second-hand sources as her belief. In practice, it did not inhibit her development of *substantive* or *process knowledge*. Data from subsequent interviews and observations showed that she had acquired considerable *substantive knowledge* of the specific contexts where she worked that informed her newly-developed *process knowledge* of dealing with boys like her brother.

7.2.2 Beliefs formed from reading and scholarship

Throughout the course of the study, the participants demonstrated that they had some theoretical understanding of learning and teaching. They referred to the *constructivism* theories of Vygotsky and Piaget. Some participants used terms like "assessment for learning", "liberal education", pluralism, multiculturalism, globalization, dyslexia, dyspraxia, ADHD, OCD, autism, Asperger's syndrome, school culture and ethos and ethical and moral dimensions to their practice. They also used some methodological terms including scaffolding, learning outcomes, starters and being *goal-orientated*.

During the interviews, I asked the participants whether they had heard of a number of important theorists in the field of behaviour and classroom management. These

included Skinner (1968), Adler (1994), Glasser (1990) and Gathercoal (1998) (see

appendix 25). None of the participants were familiar with these names. I inquired

about their understanding of Behaviourism (Skinner, 1968), Behaviour Modification

(Thorndike, 1911), Judicial Discipline (Gathercoal, 1998), Control Theory (Glasser,

1986; Glasser, 1999) and Democratic Education (Butchart and McEwan, 1998) but

they had no knowledge of the terms or the theories they described.

A number of the participants mentioned the 'Teacher's Toolkit' by Paul Ginnis

(2002) and 'Getting the Buggers to Behave' by Sue Cowley (2004). They also

volunteered their knowledge of Carol Dweck's (2006) work on growth mindsets,

Canter's Assertive Discipline (1992), *Behaviour4Learning* and various books giving

practical advice and tips about teaching and behaviour pedagogies. However, none

had read or were aware of the Steer Report (2005) - 'Learning Behaviour'. This lack

of knowledge of theories relating to the management of behaviour prevented them

from positioning their approaches within the theoretical 'landscape' in order to

understand what they were doing. This meant that they did not necessarily know the

principles that underpinned their strategies, which led to inconsistencies between their

intentions and actions. For example, some participants talked about their belief in

giving students choices on the one hand and using authoritative or even aggressive,

controlling methods on the other hand. They recognized that the strategies had not

worked because they described how some of the students had told them they had felt

frightened. Peter went as far as saying that after he tried shouting at his class, he felt

guilty. Ann recounted how she adopted a strategy of being sarcastic to students at the

grammar school where she did her second teaching placement. She said that all the teachers spoke to their students in sarcastic ways but she felt that she did not want to take the strategy away and use it in her next school.

Peter had expressed considerable interest in the theories and philosophies he had learned in the university modules and during his ongoing attendance at Philosophy of Education conferences. He developed a clear idea of the purpose of education that led to a belief that it was a means of helping people to be good to each other and lead decent lives. He also believed that the role of schools was to socialize children. Over the period of the study, he developed his *substantive knowledge* of how this could be achieved. During his ITE, Peter's *substantive knowledge* was firmly rooted in developing subject knowledge and pedagogical subject knowledge. This informed his *process knowledge* to teach effectively in the two placement schools. His first post as a qualified teacher influenced the direction that he went in terms of the *process knowledge* he developed. He used his belief of helping students to be good to each other to frame his reason for managing classroom behaviour. He started to think in terms of "preparing the students to be adults" and "employers or leaders of some sort" [NQT interview, April 2009]. This motivated him to expand his *process knowledge* to include a range of methods for teaching English such as empathy, collaborative working and strategies for managing behaviour such as avoiding labelling, being consistent and modelling the behaviour he expected students to use in his lessons.

Nadia was very against the idea from the outset that she could learn how to manage

classroom behaviour with the aid of books. She believed that the context had a

powerful influence over peoples' actions and so the priority was to understand it in

order to understand their behaviour. She also believed that she was going to learn to

manage classroom behaviour from experience, which was one of the findings

expressed by Hobson *et al* in their study (2009). Nadia's resistance to using books

and theory extended beyond her approach to managing behaviour to the whole role of

being a teacher. She felt that books would not help her and said "I need to find my

own way to doing that" [Pre-placement interview, September 2007]. This echoed the

findings of Hutching *et al's* study (2000) of beginner teachers preferring to use

experience and practical advice over theory of the kind they gained in the university

or from books.

Yasmin was more open to the advantages that could be gained from the literature. She

believed that although she would learn to become a teacher by actually teaching,

books and the Internet provided additional background information that was helpful.

The difference between her attitude and Nadia's may stem from the experience

Yasmin gained from studying for a Master's Degree that had required considerable

reliance on theory and the research literature.

Yasmin recounted how she made use of literature to solve a particular problem she

had with one of her students on her second teaching placement. She had been

working in a school with an ethos of understanding the reasons why a child

misbehaves and finding strategies that corrected or avoided it in less punitive ways. Her account of the context indicated the *substantive knowledge* she had acquired was of an *incorporative* kind (Reynolds and Sullivan, 1979). She had been told by her colleagues that one boy in her class had a history of disliking female teachers, resulting in difficult and offensive behaviour. This is an example of how the *teaching efficacy* belief (Gibson and Dembo, 1984) held by her colleagues could have influenced the way she dealt with the student (see section 2.8.1). However, Yasmin said she had been reading a book about being a caring teacher (Gootman, 2001), which chimed with the school ethos but was at odds with one of her own beliefs. She explained that she had attended an independent school with a strict regime where students were expected to behave, come prepared to lessons, produce work of the required standard and treat teachers with respect. Consequently, she did not believe that students should need praising for doing what was expected of them. The message of the book was to view misbehaviour in a caring rather than punitive way. She set aside her belief and adopted an approach that reflects a *system theory* perspective (see appendix 2) of changing her own behaviour to change her student's behaviour. She took him aside, talked to him and established an agreement that she would praise his efforts when he did something right and allow him to leave the room for two minutes to 'cool off' when something went wrong.

Yasmin concluded that the book had enabled her to devise a strategy that helped the boy change his behaviour so that he fitted into the class. She also said she would use the approach again with other students when necessary. This 'story' indicated that her

process knowledge had expanded during her second placement to include the new strategy. Her *substantive knowledge* of similar students' behaviour also expanded. However, she was adamant that her own belief had not changed. She still believed that students had a responsibility to behave in certain ways, be prepared for lessons and treat teachers with respect.

This example represents a particularly important finding because of the conflict between Yasmin's strong *underived belief* formed during her schooling, a dominant belief in an *incorporative* approach in the school, the difference between her colleagues' *teaching efficacy* dimension and her own *personal teaching efficacy* brought about by the *substantive knowledge* she gained from her reading. The resulting strategy was contrary to the belief that originated from her experience and provides a strong example of *opposite alternativity* by using praise even though she did not believe she should. As a result, she exhibited a *non-consensual* belief because she was able to implement an approach for practical reasons without believing in it or changing her beliefs in retrospect. Her conviction to her belief remained even though the outcome was successful. This is significant because it shows that believing in something is not necessarily a pre-requisite for its adoption into a *repertoire* of practice.

In Yasmin's case, her *underived belief* was a normative one that governed how she thought and felt about student-teacher relationships. Whereas, the strategy she actually used was one of the *professional resources* available to her (see section

4.2.6). It is not unusual for people to act in this way. Teachers may hold beliefs that are not in agreement with the ethos of a school that appears to function efficiently. They accept that they can be pragmatic by adopting and reinforcing the practices without feeling they have to change their belief as well.

The implication of this for practice is that beginner teachers could be taught how to deal with differences between beliefs that are contrary to the ethos of the school, in order that they can fit in to the community of practice (see section 2.9) and expand their *process knowledge*.

The resistance of the participants to keep up-to-date with current practice by reading research papers and relevant theoretical literature about the management of classroom behaviour places a limitation on their use of reflection (Hemsley-Brown and Sharp, 2003) to produce solutions to problems (Hagger *et al.*, 2008). The absence of new epistemological knowledge means they rely on their own experience and theory mediated through tutors, mentors and colleagues. This in turn, limits their development as teachers because they end up having to 'look back' on their practice as a source of knowledge to design plans. The absence of a plan results in a reflex or intuitive response (see section 3.4.1) based on beliefs and prior knowledge gained from personal experiences of being disciplined by their teachers and parents.

7.2.3 Beliefs formed from personal identity

All five participants began their ITE with beliefs associated with their current and 'imagined' identities. These beliefs framed the kinds of knowledge they developed for managing classroom behaviour in two ways. Firstly, they developed knowledge that confirmed and reinforced the images they already had of themselves. Secondly, during their ITE and NQT years, the participants moved away from developing knowledge that reinforced their existing identities towards knowledge that enabled them to realize their 'imagined' identities. They became more creative in what they attempted by shifting the emphasis away from their 'survival' and on to the impact they could have on their students. This indicated that they had two beliefs about their identities, a belief in who they were and a belief in who they wanted to be.

Nadia believed that she had the right qualities to become a teacher of children in inner city schools like the area where she lived. She said that from a very early age teaching was "something, I've always wanted to do" [Pre-placement interview with Nadia, September 2007]. She described herself as strong, authoritative, and not prepared to take any nonsense. She said she had *goal-orientated* skills, was able to multi-task and could come over as very assertive. She felt confident that she was going to be able to get thirty children to listen to her but was worried about the individual students who made challenges. She 'painted a picture' of herself as a capable person who would 'survive' the initial shock of becoming a teacher. The observation data provided evidence of her commanding presence in the classroom. Nadia's strong identity at the beginning remained consistent through both teaching placements. During her first

placement, she appeared to overcome her fears about personal survival and focused on the impact she was having on the students' learning. In the second placement, she said she did not 'imagine' herself in a different way because she felt she was succeeding in realizing her dream of becoming a teacher. That was not to say that she did not feel she needed to improve. Her 'imagined identity' was to teach in inner city schools and she had achieved that goal. Nadia was unique among the participants in this respect. She was a good example of what Bramald *et al* (1995) described as a teacher with a very strong 'image' of her teacher-role identity, which she used to guide the *process knowledge* she needed to acquire.

Ann came straight from university into ITE. She believed that this could be a disadvantage in that her experience of the world of work was a part-time Saturday job that she began when she was sixteen years old. She had kept the job all the way through university but believed that it was not the same as dealing with the sorts of problems that people encounter working full-time. Ann was also aware that because she was not much older than the students she would be teaching and young in relation to many of the staff, she would have difficulties. She was not very tall and believed that she would find it hard controlling classes in the ways used by some of the teachers during her own schooling. When questioned on this she described some of her teachers as being imposing characters, capable of commanding attention because of their presence. She also described them as "frightening" because of their aggressive styles. These descriptions indicated her *substantive knowledge* of their *coercive* styles. However, she did have a plan for how she was going to manage her

students. It was based on the style of two of her A-level teachers. Both showed considerable interest in their students and Ann liked that because she said, "it made her want to please them" [Pre-placement interview, September 2007]. In later interviews, she described how she built relationships with her students by getting to know them and praising their efforts. She also incorporated her own experiences into lessons in the way her own teachers had done. This indicated that she had considered the *affective and evaluative aspects* of her belief (Nespor, 1987). Her rationale for these strategies was that it was hard for her as a young-looking, small person to use *coercive* style like some of her colleagues and appear convincing, especially to the older male students who were over six feet tall. The observation data provided evidence of the success of her relationship-building approach and indicated that her *process knowledge* of this strategy had expanded during the two-year period of the study.

Yasmin began her ITE with a view of herself as someone who needed to learn how to manage behaviour. She had a range of fears and anxieties about what might happen and described an 'image' of herself "panicking and running out of the class". However, she also had a strong 'imagined identity' as a teacher but believed she would only realize it five to ten years into her career. It was modelled on two teachers from her ITE placements, both were middle-aged and she described them as "old school", which implied that they were traditional in their approaches. Her analysis of their styles indicated that they had 'parental qualities' that really appealed to her. This explained why it was a style she would need to grow into because she was twenty-

three years old, five feet, four inches tall and felt she "wouldn't be able to have their style at her age" [Second teaching placement, July 2008].

Yasmin's belief indicated she had considerable *substantive knowledge* about her identity at that point, in relation to the teachers she admired. Like Ann, she believed her age, gender and size meant that she would need a style of classroom management that would suit her rather than adopting the styles of her colleagues. In contrast with Ann, her *process knowledge* was relatively under-developed and still focused on the immediate needs of both her students and herself. These needs were for the students to be able to learn and for her to be able to teach. She had not started to look forward to how she could use the management of classroom behaviour to improve the students' life chances in the way that Ann and Peter had done.

The most significant aspect of Yasmin's practice connected with her identity as a teacher was that she was the first participant of the study to understand the classroom as an ecological system where the behaviour of the students and teacher were interconnected (Bronfenbrenner, 1992). She recognized that the students' behaviour was not the only part of the system that could be changed to secure improvements or solutions to problems. When she was confronted with a problem, she changed her own behaviour in order to reach a successful outcome (see section 7.2.2).

Peter came into teaching later in life than the other participants. Experiences as a child, together with the role-models of parents, various teachers and his personal

research into the purpose of Education had resulted in a distinct view. From this, he described how he saw his role. He believed it was his job to "help people lead good and decent lives" [Pre-placement interview September 2007]. In this respect, he also conformed to Bramald *et al's* (1995) view of beginner teachers with very strong 'images' of teacher-role identities. This singled him out from the other participants and by articulating this view; he showed he had an 'imagined identity' of himself at a teacher endeavouring to pursue his altruistic goal. This is also in contrast to the other participants because he used his 'imagined identity' in the way Hammerness, Darling-Howard and Bransford (2005) described, to shape the way he developed his knowledge during his ITE.

The data provides evidence of him doing this on a number of occasions in the interview and observation data collected at the end of his NQT year. His belief about the reasons for managing classroom behaviour had evolved during this study and started to go beyond just "helping the students get along with each other in lessons" to ensuring that they were properly equipped to take on the roles of good, caring leaders and employers. He described how he challenged prejudice and name-calling during a rowing sessions[18]. He helped the students understand that people are individuals. They should not be viewed as amorphous groups because of their physical appearance. The observation data provided further evidence of this with Peter encouraging the students to think about the feelings of various characters in books and plays who were being persecuted in order to develop their ability to

empathize. The evidence showed that Peter's *process knowledge* had been framed by the expanded identity that he had developed since he began his NQT year.

Peter's approach is an example of what Gee (2000) called *affinity identity* because he had supported the shared culture of the school. Although not openly declared, the implied dominant belief in the independent school was that the students would aspire to 'great things'. The school's promotional material subtly reinforced this message by stating that the students learned the skills of leadership together with images of them winning, leading and in organizational roles.

7.2.4 Beliefs formed just prior to and during the first few weeks of ITE

The beliefs that the participants of this study had that can be traced back to before they went on to their first teaching placements are particularly significant because they underpin their concerns about becoming teachers.

Ann, Yasmin and Melanie expressed one belief that contradicted another that they held at the same time. They had said that they believed the most important approach in managing classroom behaviour was to build good relationships with their students. The basis of their belief was that the students would be more likely to follow directions and be compliant if they liked their teacher. The origin of this belief can be traced back to the their own experiences of school and the teachers they liked. Therefore, it constituted an *underived belief*. Although they all shared the belief, they were unable to describe how they were going to achieve it, which indicated a lack of

process knowledge prior to their first teaching placement.

After a few weeks into their first placements, I interviewed them again and they each separately expressed another belief that originated from advice given by colleagues. As such, they had no first-hand experience of it so it can be identified as a *derived belief*. The colleagues in the school suggested that the best way to 'survive' was to "never smile until Christmas". The advice indicated the need for a strict, strong, authoritative style rather than a helpful, personable, friendly one. Additionally, the participants were advised not to reveal details about their lives because the students would use them to undermine, ridicule or 'side-track'.

Yasmin already held the belief that students should respect teachers and not question them. This was traceable to her schooling. She described how she had heeded the advice during the early part of her ITE because she believed it would help her 'survive' (indicating a *self-concern*). Her concept of 'survival' was a classroom where the students got on with their work without misbehaving. It typified a 'safe' approach to teaching that was ordered, peaceful and students learned by the teacher 'transmitting' the knowledge in a didactic way. This followed Florio-Ruane and Lensmire's (1990) research that indicated a teacher's style can be closely attributed to their own experiences of school as a student.

Ann and Melanie allowed their beliefs in building good relationships with students to

take precedence once they overcame their initial fears of becoming teachers. They soon moved away from the "never smile until Christmas" approach advocated by their colleagues and began working on ways to break down the barriers between themselves as teachers and their students. This indicated the difference between Yasmin's *derived belief* and their *underived belief*. Yasmin's belief about relationship-building was less resistant to change than Ann and Melanie's *underived belief*. The reason was that their beliefs were firmly rooted in experiences with their teachers during childhood whereas Yasmin had no first-hand experience on which to base her belief.

By the end of their first placement, observation data showed that Ann and Melanie had made inroads into getting to know their students as individuals and understanding their strengths and weaknesses. There was considerable evidence of real rapport with their students. However, observation of Yasmin's lesson indicated an air of tension in the class between her and the majority of the students.

All the participants expressed a belief in an idea that if the lesson was interesting to the students and if their teaching was good, there would be less chance of misbehaviour. It is difficult to pinpoint exactly where this belief originated. From what a number of the participants said later in their ITE interviews about the preparation they had prior to beginning their first placement, the belief appeared to have originated from their university tutors. The participants' interpretation of the message they were being given was that classroom behaviour is managed by

engaging the students in their learning. This is achieved using a variety of strategies including groupwork, open-ended tasks and linking the new learning to what they already know. They also said they were given advice on how to 'behave' in the classroom that included what they should wear, how and when they should question students and where they should stand during certain parts of the lesson. Some participants, including Ann and Melanie said that they were aware of the importance of where to pitch the level of challenge and pace of the lessons. All of them said they had a lecture about child protection that included advice about allegations against teachers and what to do in terms of physical contact. Nadia said she thought someone from a teaching union gave the lecture and that it made a lot of sense. Analysis of the data about advice given by university tutors rested centrally on ways of avoiding misbehaviour. However, the participants were not able to recollect or explain how the tutors had advised them on what to do when misbehaviour did occur.

The data from the pre-placement and first teaching placement interviews provides considerable evidence of the acquisition of *substantive knowledge* about these preventative strategies. The observation data of the first teaching placements provides evidence of *process knowledge* of a number of routines such as lining up outside classrooms, standing behind chairs at the start and end of lessons, uniform checking as students entered the room, homework instructions and raising hands to answer questions. Some of these were part of the culture of the school and some may have been learned behaviour from being a student for five or more years. The participants said that the placement schools provided varying degrees of advice in a number of

forms. The advice was not always in line with the 'official' behaviour policy. In some case Heads of Departments, Heads of Year and other teachers in the English departments helped the participants understand how to manage their classes and in particular, what to do when a student misbehaved.

There were examples of the participants holding different beliefs about the same routines (Ernest, 1989) in particular, Yasmin believed that students should line up outside a classroom out of respect for the teacher and only enter when they were invited. Whereas, Ann believed that lining up outside was necessary to prevent younger students who were leaving the room having to struggle through a crowd of older students entering the room. Peter believed that lining up provided time before the lesson to build relationships with his students and the data provides evidence of him using it to chat to students who arrived early.

A number of important findings were drawn from the ways the participants of this study approached their ITE in terms of how they believed they were going to manage classroom behaviour. The most significant finding was that they conceptualized misbehaviour as a problem that they had to face. Melanie even described it as a test where "you either sink or swim" [Second teaching placement, April 2008]. The participants talked about 'surviving', being strict, "not smiling until Christmas" and being unsure of how to deal with persistent low-level misbehaviour.

Prior to their first placements, participants believed the reason for managing

behaviour was to allow them to teach their lessons. During the first placements, they

focused mainly on trying to assert themselves by using their authority and position,

which matched their teacher-role identities. None of the participants viewed

misbehaving students in the same way as they viewed students who made academic

errors. They regarded students who got academic things wrong or did not understand

the work as being in need of additional support, which they were willing to give. This

would be in a variety of forms such as providing more opportunities for them to

practice, giving fuller explanations or simply allowing more time for them to master

the concept or skill. In contrast, they viewed students who misbehaved in a negative

light. This included regarding them as a nuisance, annoying, posing a threat,

challenging, difficult, obstructive, belligerent, stubborn, odd or different. Some were

described as having medical needs (Rendall and Stuart, 2005) such as ADHD, Autism

or OCD and some had home circumstances that caused misbehaviour (the

sociological model). The participants did not extend the same opportunities to

students with behaviour problems as those with academic problems. They did not

start to conceptualize misbehaviour as a learning opportunity until later in their ITE

or during their NQT year. This re-conceptualizing misbehaviour from being a

problem to providing an opportunity for learning has a significant implication for

practice. It holds up the development of knowledge of *incorporative* strategies

(Reynolds and Sullivan, 1979) that the participants said they found most effective.

The second significant finding is connected to their perception of misbehaviour as a

problem. They did not start their ITE believing that they would have to teach their

students how they wanted them to behave. They expected the students should know how to behave when they started school. When they encountered students who did not behave, they attributed the reason to other causes. As a result, the solutions to the misbehaviour became the responsibility of others such as learning mentors, educational psychologists, senior managers, parents and even the police in extreme cases. This led to some cases of low *personal teaching efficacy* as the participants did not believe they could influence a student's behaviour (see section 2.8-Ann).

Much of the literature (both theory and 'how to' books for teachers) sets out clearly that teachers should teach classes their behaviour code, which included rules, rights, responsibilities and routines (Canter and Canter, 1992; Rogers, 1994; Steer, 2009). They recommend that this takes place in the first weeks of meeting the new class with refreshers after vacations. They also recommend that teachers plan lessons for teaching their behaviour code in the same way as they produce subject teaching plans. There was no evidence of the participants producing lesson plans for teaching their expectations for classroom behaviour.

7.2.5 Beliefs formed during the ITE year and the NQT year

Some of the beliefs that the participants held were traced back to their experiences as beginner teachers in the schools where they worked. In most cases, the beliefs were modifications of the beliefs they had prior to their ITE. The changes were significant enough for me to regard them as new beliefs.

It was clear that Peter and Ann and to a lesser extent Melanie, had changed their belief in the reasons for managing classroom behaviour. The interview data collected prior to their first teaching placements provided evidence that their beliefs were rooted in their *self-concerns*. All three provided narrow interpretations for managing classroom behaviour based on being able to teach. The discussions focused on 'survival', routines for keeping control, fears about what might happen, concerns about not being good enough, not making mistakes, not running out of teaching activities in lessons and trying to adhere to school policies. By the end of the two-year period of the study, they talked about the strategies they used in relation to the impact they wanted to have on their students rather than how they felt about themselves as teachers. Comparisons between the data collected at the start of their ITE with data collected at the end of their NQT year provides convincing evidence of this change of belief.

Peter began his ITE believing that the reason for managing classroom behaviour was to enable him to teach the syllabus. Over the course of his first and second teaching placements, he described how he also came to believe that his role was to help the students to become good, decent people and get along with each other. Then by the end of his NQT year, his belief had changed. He became focused on teaching the students to behave in ways that would make them better citizens and good leaders and employers. His reasons had clearly shifted from behaviour for enabling his teaching to behaviour for the students' futures. Peter's new belief resonated with Gathercoal's *Judicial Discipline Theory* (1998) and the work of Butchart and McEwan (1998)

around *Democratic Education* (see appendix 25).

Ann began her ITE with a similar belief to Peter about the reason for managing classroom behaviour. Her second teaching placement appeared to be very significant in her change in belief. Her first placement had been in a comprehensive, secondary school with its fair share of problems connected with behaviour. In contrast, her second placement was in an extremely high performing, single-sex grammar school. During the placement she started to become aware of the inequalities of opportunity that existed between the two schools. When she took up her first post as a qualified teacher in the school where she did her first placement, she re-assessed the opportunities available to the students. She established that some of the barriers that existed were caused by the students' attitudes to each other and to school in general. She devised a number of plans to address these (see section 6.4 for an example of how she dealt with the name-calling in her lessons). Other strategies included teaching the students how to justify their arguments, establishing ways for them to answer questions using full sentences rather than single words and participating in debates and interview role-plays to enable them to manage interrogative situations. She also made a special effort to help her students understand that it was "cool" to excel academically rather than just be "streetwise" and "one of the gang". She achieved this by stressing the importance of effort over attainment (see section 6.4). The underlying belief that drove Ann's strategies was that students in comprehensive schools should have the same opportunities to achieve well in interviews and the world of work as the independent and grammar school students.

Comparing the data collected from Ann's pre-placement interview where she described her concerns about being able to manage classroom behaviour to the data collected from her NQT interview shows a distinct change of focus in her conceptualization. She was no longer talking about herself in terms of her size, young age and appearance. Her focus had shifted to a definite concern for her students and ensuring they did not lose out in the employment 'market'. Her new belief in the reasons for managing behaviour had many similarities to Butchart and McEwan's *Theory of Democratic Education* (see appendix 25).

Melanie's belief about the reason for managing classroom behaviour was very similar to the other participants at the beginning of her ITE. She had the same fear of losing control of the class. Once she began teaching, her fears appeared to subside and the observation data from her first placement provided evidence of her having established a range of routines. These included lining up before lessons, standing behind chairs at the start and end, standing when a senior leader entered the room, raising hands to answer questions, appointing class monitors and having a "time-out" table near the door.

Melanie's belief changed but in a different way to Peter and Ann's during the NQT year. She remained focused on the classroom and the lesson but the emphasis shifted from her own survival to the students doing quality work. Her role was to ensure they had everything they needed to achieve the best results they could. She developed a wide range of teaching strategies and learning activities to give her students a rich

experience. Although her approach appears to match the idea promoted by the university tutors of ensuring that the lessons were good to prevent misbehaviour, Melanie showed she was able to deal with challenges and low-level disruptions in most cases. She did this by making good use of the school behaviour policy, using humour to de-escalate potentially difficult incidents and provision of a time-out table. What was particularly interesting about her approach was her belief that she could be a 'catalyst' in some of the misbehaviour because of the way she dealt with particular situations.

Melanie described what she meant using an example of a boy who repeatedly got reprimanded because of his low-level disruptive behaviour. She realized that if she "operated the school behaviour policy 'to the letter', he would very quickly get to a school detention so she needed to slow the process down" [NQT interview, July 2009}. Melanie discussed the boy's behaviour with him and realized that she was reprimanding more than praising him. They agreed to try a tally system out, which involved him recording the negative and positive comments she made about his behaviour during the lessons. This served two purposes. It enabled her to see how often she made each kind of comment, resulting in her focusing on increasing the number of positive comments she gave him. It also enabled the boy to monitor his own behaviour, which resulted in them setting targets to gain more praise and less reprimands. She said that over the course of two weeks, his behaviour improved considerably. It also helped her change her style and concentrate more on the ways she dealt with misbehaviour. She did this by reprimanding less and increasing her use

of rule-reminders, re-direction and then praise once the student was back on task.

This example illustrates a change in Melanie's belief of perceiving the students as the cause of misbehaviour, to a *System Theory* approach (Bronfenbrenner, 1992) of seeing herself as part of the solution. It indicates an expansion in her *substantive* and *process knowledge* as the 'catalyst' in some situations. It also shows an expansion in her *process knowledge* of the tally method to manage the behaviour more herself before employing the school behaviour policy.

The difference between Melanie's reason for managing classroom behaviour in her pre-placement interview and the reason she expressed in her NQT interview was less marked than the differences in Ann's and Peter's reasons over the same period. However, the change was significant enough to establish that she had a new belief. The shift in focus from herself to her students, together with the emphasis on quality work showed alignment to Bronfenbrenner's *System Theory* (1992) and Glasser's *Choice Theory* based on his *Quality School* approach (Glasser, 1990; Glasser, 1999).

All three participants developed their new beliefs from first-hand experiences indicating that they were *underived beliefs*. The experiences they gained from the different placement schools provides evidence of their expanded *substantive knowledge* that provoked them to change their beliefs about the management of behaviour. Their accounts and 'stories', together with the observation of their practice provides evidence of their expanded *process knowledge*. This is apparent in the

methods and strategies they had developed and were using to fulfill their new objectives for the students.

In this section, I have shown how the participants' beliefs were traced back to various points in their lives. I have described how they used their beliefs to frame the ways they thought about the management of classroom behaviour and used examples from the data to support this assertion. I have argued that the participants used beliefs to 'colour' their attitudes to the management of behaviour and as a result, affected the kinds of strategies they developed. These strategies in turn, 'shaped' their actions indicating the inter-connected nature of beliefs, thoughts, knowledge and action.

The knowledge the participants possessed can be broadly divided into knowledge of schools, teaching, learning and behaviour gained as a teacher or as a non-teacher (for example, as a student). In the next section, I will examine this difference and consider the role of prior knowledge in the participants' development of classroom management.

7.3 Prior knowledge

In the last section, I discussed the findings connected to the beliefs of the participants. Beliefs are mechanisms that people use to think about the world. They 'shape' a person's perspective on something. Thus, people can have different beliefs about the

same things. For example, one person may believe setting in schools is beneficial while another may regard it as harmful.

Knowledge is a resource that people develop to articulate and activate their beliefs. For example, a teacher who believes that children learn to read by understanding the sounds that combinations of letters represent, will develop knowledge of phonetics as a way of teaching children to read. Not all beliefs can be observed in an individual's actions as already shown in section 7.2.2 with Yasmin's use of praise without believing in the strategy. However, they can be detected in what people say. In the earlier sections, I showed how the participants' expressions of belief were linked to accounts of what they did to identify the knowledge they developed. A similar approach enabled me to identify the different kinds of prior knowledge and understand how the participants utilized them to manage classroom behaviour.

Prior knowledge is the resource that the participants used either to respond to behaviour during lessons in a reflex way or to design plans to deal with the management of behaviour on future occasions. I have classified it as either the knowledge acquired while in the role of 'teacher' or knowledge acquired before becoming a teacher such as experiences of school as a child. I have further sub-divided it into knowledge gained from the first-hand experience of actual events or knowledge gained from second-hand sources such as books, the Media, training or advice from colleagues. Finally, I have divided prior knowledge into its *substantive* and *process* components. This classification is shown below:

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                          ┌─────────────────────┐
                          │   Prior knowledge   │
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Knowledge acquired before becoming a teacher	Knowledge acquired in the role of a teacher

Knowledge from first-hand sources	Knowledge from second-hand sources	Knowledge from first-hand sources	Knowledge from second-hand sources

Substantive Knowledge	Process knowledge	Substantive Knowledge	Process knowledge	Substantive Knowledge	Process knowledge	Substantive Knowledge	Process knowledge

The power of prior knowledge is important in the ways that teachers use it to manage classroom behaviour. I have already given examples of how the participants gained their prior knowledge and used it to develop their strategies for managing classroom behaviour but I have not given any examples of how prior knowledge is used within the *director system* model described in chapter 3. Therefore, I will give an example from the data of this study that provides evidence of how prior knowledge was used by a participant to manage behaviour in a reflex way.

Yasmin described at length how her parents disciplined her when she was a teenager. She said that there were many occasions where she got frustrated because her parents refused to explain what she had done wrong or why she was not allowed to do something. A number of her 'stories' were connected with wanting to go out in the

evening. Yasmin lived in the country and was dependant on lifts from her parents because she was too young to drive and public transport was unreliable. She described one occasion when they would not give her a lift to a friend's house and when she asked why, they refused to explain. On another occasion she said she was invited to a party and her father refused to let her go because of what she was wearing. When she asked him what was wrong with it she said he would not say and just told her she had to change or stay at home. Yasmin reflected on this and resolved that when she had children, she would always explain what they did wrong or why she was imposing a particular sanction. She said that when she decided to become a teacher she would make sure she explained and justified her actions to the students when they misbehaved.

The observation data provided evidence that Yasmin did not actually do what she said she was going to do. Prior to her first teaching placement, she said she did not feel confident about managing classroom behaviour because she felt she did not have any strategies. She hoped that the university tutors would prepare her, especially for dealing with low-level disruptive behaviour. In later interviews, all of the participants were asked about the preparation they had from the university tutors for managing behaviour. Their responses were similar in that the preparation was not in a form that they expected. This reinforced a finding from Gutherson *et al's* research (2006) which recommended that when preparation for managing classroom behaviour is embedded within the university courses or school-based support it is important to signpost it for beginner teachers. Additionally, the participants said that the university

tutors did not prepare and deliver special lessons to teach expectations and routines for behaviour to their classes at the beginning of placements or any of the times when they took new classes.

In Yasmin's case, it led to her feeling uncertain about how she was going to deal with low-level disruption so when it occurred she was unprepared. It also made her more vulnerable to the kinds of unhelpful advice from colleagues such as "never smile until Christmas" and local practices used with the placement schools such as shouting at students and in Ann's case, talking to students in a sarcastic way.

In section 3.4.1, I described how a teacher responds to on-the-spot behaviour when they do not have a plan. The *incongruity* is sensed by the teacher and in the absence of a plan, the input is compared to other pre-established criteria. In Yasmin's case, she said she was going to talk to the students during their detentions but she did not have a plan for dealing with the disruptions during the lessons. Her response was simply to reprimand the students. The observation data indicated that she did this in a negative way with comments such as "Don't do that!", "Sit down!", "Stop talking!" and "Ssssh!" [First teaching placement lesson observation, December 2008]. Yasmin's responses all appeared to be reflex actions and showed more similarity to the way her parents dealt with her than a balanced, explorative intervention that contained explanation and justification. Faced with something she could deal with, Yasmin defaulted to a response based on her *prior process knowledge* of the methods her parents used to discipline her.

Ann gave another example of how participants' actions differed from what they said they would do. In her pre-placement interview, she described how her parents sent her to the "corner" to "cool off" and think about what she had done wrong. Then they would talk to her and help her understand what she had done wrong. She had drawn two conclusions from this *prior process knowledge*. Firstly, the need to be consistent and secondly the importance of explaining what a person had done wrong.

Ann also told a 'story' of an incident that happened early in her first teaching placement. She said the class was working silently on a writing task and she was sitting at a desk near the front marking work. She said a student threw a tablet of chewing gum and had meant it to hit a student nearby but it ricocheted off the wall and struck her. Ann said she "saw red" and told the student to get out of the classroom. As he walked out he smirked, which wound her up even more resulting in her saying "wipe that smirk off your face because it isn't funny!" She said she got very angry and felt that she had shouted at the student and "didn't like that in myself because I am not that kind of person".

Although Ann's account of how her parents dealt with her was the one she said had influenced and guided how she planned to deal with misbehaviour, she had also described a number of incidents involving just her mother that were quite different. It appeared that her mother was not as consistent as her father and when she acted alone she "completely lost it". Ann said, "She got angry and then I was told off, I remember her losing it then she smashed up the electric fire".

The incident Ann described in her classroom came unexpectedly and she said she had no experience or plans for dealing with that kind of misbehaviour. The *congruity* of the class working in silence was disrupted by the chewing gum being thrown, causing the *incongruity*. As she had no plan, she compared the *incongruity* with her stored prior experiences and generated a reflex response (she "saw red" and got angry). Ann's on-the-spot reaction was to send the student out of the room. His smirking as he exited the room caused a further reaction. Ann did not exhibit any knowledge of how to deal with this kind of secondary behaviour so she allowed herself to be drawn in and said she got even angrier. Once the student had left the room and been dispatched to senior management, *congruity* returned and the *director system* was *exited*.

These two examples provide evidence of the use of the TOTE *director system* (Miller, Gallanter and Pribram, 1960) to deal with on-the-spot incidents. They show that the participants' responses were almost instantaneous and therefore, reflex actions rather than examples of reflection-*in*-action (Schön, 1983). The examples do not imply a total absence of preparation for management of classroom behaviour by the university tutors in advance of the participants' first placements but they do reveal two important features of ITE.

Firstly, a number of the participants, in particular Nadia, echoed a belief at the start of their ITE that they did not think it was possible to be taught how to manage classroom behaviour because every school, lesson, class and student are different. This was a common view among the participants and the teachers involved in the pilot study. The belief was that the only real way to learn to manage behaviour was from experience as a teacher.

Secondly, teacher educators are reluctant to give beginner teachers *toolkits* (Hobson *et al.*, 2009). Their study found that teacher educators teach more general, preventative approaches such as ensuring that they teach good lessons, develop relationships, know about child protection procedures and when and when not to use physical contact.

The implication of these features on practice are that beginner teachers who start their ITE believing that every teaching situation is different and are not given toolkits of strategies, should be provided with something additional. This will help prepare them to manage classroom behaviour in advance of their first teaching placements. It could take a number of forms. They could be taught the two ways of responding to classroom behaviour. Firstly, the on-the-spot reflex or intuitive response and shown how it draws on their beliefs and prior knowledge, as described in section 3.4.1 and discussed in this section. Secondly, the pre-emptive response that uses the process of reflection-*on*-action described in section 3.6.

Additionally, they could learn how to design their own classroom behaviour plan. This includes their expectations and routines for all the teaching activities the class will engage in during lessons (Canter and Canter, 1992; Rogers, 1994; Wright, 2005). They should then learn how to plan and teach a suite of lessons about their behaviour plan and do this each time they take a new group of students.

In the next section, I will set out the findings about the concerns of the participants and discuss how they influenced their development of knowledge.

7.4 Concerns, emotions and efficacy

The participants of this study revealed their concerns during the interviews. The concerns appeared to have originated in a variety of ways and varied in intensity depending on the individual's perceptions of the issues with which they were associated. During the analysis of the data, it became apparent that the participants' concerns did not arise in the sequential way described in the literature (see section 2.5.1).

7.4.1 Participants' concerns were not linear

Concerns expressed prior to the participants' first teaching placements were predominantly *self-concerns*. Ann indicated in her pre-placement interview that she was concerned about her young appearance, small size and lack of experience of full-time work. Nadia expressed a concern during her pre-placement interview that she

hoped she qualified as a teacher as she had always wanted to be one for as long as she could remember. Peter described in his pre-placement interview how he had always been a bit of a rebel. He was concerned that his lack of respect for authority in the past would prevent him from being able to discipline students with any degree of sincerity. Yasmin's concern prior to her first placement was that if she lost control of the class, she would "run out of the room in a panic".

Once the participants began their first teaching placements, it was clear that they had started to overcome these concerns. During the ITE and NQT interviews, it was apparent that they had a range of new concerns. These covered all three types identified by Fuller (1969). Melanie described the *task concerns* she had during her second placement. These included poor access to photocopying, which obstructed her and caused her to take longer to prepare resources. She was also concerned about the lack of computing facilities, especially an interactive whiteboard. I noted she did not use it in the lesson I observed and she said that it had not worked since she had been at the school.

Melanie also described how she became concerned about the lack of senior management support in the school. Colleagues had told her that she could not rely on them coming to her help if a student needed to be removed from a classroom, as the behaviour policy stated. They told her about their own system of referring students to other teachers within the English department. Melanie was concerned that because the students were in sets for English, they often had friends in the other English

classes. She had observed them entering the room after having been moved from their own class and noted that they made a big deal out of it and exhibited a lot of bravado. Melanie felt that this only moved the problem from one room to another and did not provide a solution. She became concerned that referring students affected the learning of the students in the 'receiving' class. It caused unnecessary disruption and the class became unsettled. In the end, Melanie withdrew from the system and dealt with the challenging students herself. Melanie's accounts provide evidence that during her second teaching placement she had *self, task* and *impact concerns*.

Peter had an *impact concern* about the over-emphasis on testing in his second placement school. He said that the Senior Management's repeated references to student attainment data and the focus on performance and league tables concerned him. He believed that education was about more than just examination results and felt uncomfortable with the culture in the school of "teaching for the tests". It was during this placement that he began to think about the purpose of education and started to realize that managing behaviour was more than keeping order so he could teach his lessons.

Ann talked to me about the lack of schemes of work in the grammar school where she did her second teaching placement. She described the staff as very academic with many having PhDs. She was conscious of this and believed that they must have viewed her as very inexperienced. However, she was realistic about it and said that as she was only twenty-four years old "she could not have gained a PhD, which was not

to say that she was not able to teach well". She recognized that she needed to overcome this *self-concern* and began working out how she was going to design and teach her classes. She said that although there were no schemes of work, the staff turned out to be very helpful.

Ann's *self-concern* at the beginning of her second teaching placement is an example of the regression in confidence that the participants felt as they moved from one school to another. Interview and observation data of Ann, Peter, Melanie and Nadia provided evidence of them managing their teaching and students' behaviour in reasonably efficient ways. They had each begun to develop their own ways of managing their workloads, getting along with colleagues, overcoming resource problems, dealing with school systems and adopting school customs and practices. The *self-concerns* they had at the beginning of their first placements had subsided as they gained experience. The emergence of *self-concerns* in the second placements was evidence that transitions were difficult and stressful for the participants. The specific nature of the *self-concerns* also highlights their localization and shows that the participants only had concerns about particular aspects of their work and not everything associated with the role of 'teacher'.

To summarize these findings, they provide evidence that the participants had all three types of concerns described by Fuller, at the same time. The study also provides evidence that the participants' concerns were localized, such as a concern about one class out of a full teaching load.

As the participants progressed into their NQT year, many of their concerns became focused on the impact they wanted to have on their students' learning. I observed Melanie teach five different groups. In four of them, she showed she could manage the students' behaviour well and they progressed in their learning. She made good use of the school behaviour policy by giving credits for good behaviour and recording misbehaviour in their planners[19]. Melanie had a number of her own strategies that she used to "slow down the process of students getting negative consequences" such as conduct marks and detentions. One way she did this was by subdividing the credits into points to enable students to receive more frequent, positive affirmations. It was clear from the evidence that she understood the school policy and was capable of securing good classroom behaviour. However, the fifth group I observed was quite different to the other four groups. The lesson she taught was the same as the one she taught to the other Year 9 group but the 'atmosphere' was less organized. There was more movement during the lesson and some students left the room without permission. One student mis-used a computer by playing a game rather than doing the class work. When I discussed my observations with Melanie, she explained that the class was a difficult one to manage and she was concerned that she was not doing a very good job with the students. She added that this was beginning to get her down and sometimes she dreaded taking the class because of her feeling of failure.

Melanie's anticipation of 'dread' before taking the class, together with many references by the other participants to feelings they had about the management of

classroom behaviour showed that emotions were a powerful component of their concerns.

7.4.2 Concerns and emotions

The participants expressed many of their concerns within the narrative 'stories' they told about their experiences. They used a range of vocabulary to describe how they felt, which indicated whether it was a positive or negative emotion.

Nadia described how she was "worried" about making it through the PGCE, which linked her emotion of failing to a *self-concern*. Melanie's 'story' about "panicking and running out of the class" if she lost control connects her emotional reaction to a *self-concern*. Peter said that he was "frustrated" by the use of writing frames because they prevented the students from thinking for themselves. His emotion links to an *impact concern*. On a few occasions, some participants revealed feelings of fear and dread (see Melanie, above). These were particularly associated with classes or students they felt they were not managing well.

Equally, there was considerable evidence in the data of the participants expressing positive emotions linked to their concerns. Yasmin was "surprised" in a good way with the success of the strategy she used with the student who did not like female teachers (see section 7.2.2). Her positive emotion was due to being able to have an impact on a student using a strategy that she did not believe in. Ann said she got a lot of "pleasure" from seeing her strategy of "chains of students" work successfully. She

was initially concerned about the name-calling and attitudes to academic achievement in her classes. She believed this prevented the students from developing their skills to do well in interviews, (see section 6.4). This indicated a link between her *impact concern* and the positive emotion of pleasure.

These examples provide evidence of the close links between concerns and emotions. They also provide evidence of the emotional investment that the participants made in their work, their management of behaviour and their motivation to become good teachers. The feelings they had about their abilities and the relation to how confident they felt show the connection between *self-efficacy* and concerns.

7.4.3 Concerns and efficacy

The accounts of the particular methods that the participants used provided evidence of the close connection between their concerns and efficacy beliefs. Before discussing this it is useful to recap the two kinds of efficacy beliefs and their inter-relatedness.

Gibson and Dembo (1984) devised a measure of teacher efficacy comprising two dimensions. The *personal teaching efficacy* dimension consisted of a belief that the teacher can help their students learn because they have the necessary skills. The *teaching efficacy* dimension reflects a belief that external influences limit the impact a teacher can have on their students' learning.

Ann's *impact concern* of ensuring her students had the same opportunities to do well in interviews as students at independent and grammar schools resulted in an increase in her *personal teaching efficacy*. This came about because she believed she knew enough and had *agency* to help the students improve their behaviour in her lessons. She conceptualized the 'problem' as one governed by school and not their home life, which indicated the low *teaching efficacy* dimension.

There were examples in the data of participants commenting on particular students or groups being difficult to manage. In some of these examples, the participants believed the reasons for the 'problems' were due to poor parenting or very difficult home circumstances. Their reasons indicated a high *teaching efficacy* dimension. There were some examples where the participants began by believing that the students' misbehaviour was due to external causes and their efforts to help would have little if any effect. However, they described how they did not give up and decided to try to find solutions. In such cases, they showed they believed that the *teaching efficacy* was high but with some research, planning and support from colleagues, there was room for an increase in their potential *personal teaching efficacy*.

Examples of this included Peter who believed that the students had an arrogant attitude because they came from wealthy backgrounds and assumed they would be important people when they become adults. He refused to settle for the status quo and worked on giving them the skills they needed to be less arrogant. He believed that their backgrounds may prove to be more powerful than his teaching but he reported

that he was seeing a change. He began to feel more confident and his *personal teaching efficacy* increased. As a result, his *substantive knowledge* of what worked expanded leading to an expansion of his *process knowledge* of the strategies he used.

Yasmin's example of the student who did not like female teachers shows that she and her colleagues had a high *teaching efficacy* belief at the beginning of her second placement. Her research enabled her to design a strategy that worked (see section 7.2.2). This led to her modifying her view that she did not have the skills to affect a change in his behaviour. The result was an increase in her *personal teaching efficacy* and a reduction in her *teaching efficacy* in relation to this particular case. This is an example of the how a challenge can lead to a change in a participant's self-efficacy beliefs. It reinforces the findings of Csikszentmihalyi (1990) who proposed that individual's horizons needed to be expanded by including challenging situations in order to provide them opportunities to develop new knowledge. In this respect, the efficacy dimensions become important indicators of the participants' development of strategies to manage classroom behaviour. I will expand on this later in this chapter when discussing the theoretical model (presented in section 4.5) as a means of understanding the participants' development of knowledge.

7.4.4 Efficacy is a measure of the specific not the general

Much of the literature 'talks' about efficacy as a general or 'global' measure for how an individual feels about their work, themselves or the way they view things. The data of my study provides evidence that the participants possessed 'sets' of efficacy

beliefs that they did not aggregate. The example of Melanie's five English groups illustrates this point. Although she had a low *personal teaching efficacy* in relation to the Year 9 group she felt she was failing with, she had a high *personal teaching efficacy* belief with the other four groups. I did not push her to try to sum-up all of her teaching and give a view of how she was doing overall. Generalizing in this way is unhelpful because it hides aspects that are in need of attention and forces the individual to make one 'global' assessment of a number of unconnected components.

This is an important finding because it reveals the differences between the application of one strategy across a range of contexts. In section 4.5, I proposed a theoretical model for the development of knowledge that begins in one context. As the teacher becomes more confident that the strategy works, its use is extended to other contexts. Problems may occur with its application in some new contexts that need further work. Melanie used a range of strategies that she had been developing across the five groups. A number of them appeared to work well in the Year 9 lesson even though she felt she was 'failing'. For example, she was trying to deal with students in a consistent way. Although some of the Year 9 students were ignoring her, she still endeavoured to apply her intervention strategies consistently. The difference was that these students were making poor choices, resulting in them being given consequences whereas, the other groups made good choices resulting in them avoiding the consequences. At the heart of Melanie's belief about her efficacy was a mis-perception. She had conceptualized good classroom management as every student behaving appropriately rather than them taking responsibility for their own actions

and facing the consequences when they made poor choices (Canter and Canter, 1992;

Rogers, 2000).

Teachers cannot force their students to behave in particular ways. Students have to

decide for themselves. The role of the teacher is to manage classroom behaviour and

the goal is for every student to make appropriate choices about how they act in order

that the whole class and the teacher can get along together and engage productively in

the lesson. Therefore, it is the individual strategies that make up a teacher's *repertoire*

for 'persuading' their students to behave that matter and not the abstract qualities of

authority and control. These are the characteristics that effect how strategies are

implemented and operated together with other aspects of personality such as caring,

humour, patience, fairness and trust. That is why this study is focused on the

development of strategies for managing behaviour. Beginner teachers can learn/be

taught the knowledge of strategies during their ITE and NQT year. The personality

qualities are not so easily taught or learned. They are also deeply entrenched within

an individual's belief system so to learn to use humour may be very difficult for

someone who believes they are not capable of being funny. Whereas, learning how to

build relationships by learning names and finding out about the students' likes and

dislikes can be developed by designing strategies that make them possible.

In the next section, I will discuss the influence that the context had on the

participants' development of knowledge.

7.5 Context

The accounts given so far show the diversity of practice between the participants. This diversity was due in part to the differences between the schools where they did their placements. For example, Peter's development of empathy in his students was to address the particular 'problem' of helping them become good leaders. This was not an issue for him in either of his two ITE teaching placements, which showed that it was specific to his experience of the independent sector.

Similarly, Melanie's experience of the lack of senior management support in removing challenging students from the classes during her second teaching placement was not one she had previously encountered. Her first placement had been in a newly opened 'academy' type of school. She had described its senior management team as supportive, especially in ensuring that discipline was maintained. This included supporting the system for referring students to senior staff when they did not comply.

These two examples indicate how schools can be very different. The combination of the context with a participant's experience resulted in the development of different *substantive* and *process knowledge* for managing behaviour. This is the context-specific knowledge that I referred to in section 2.4.10, as one of the components of *phronesis*. The other component is the ability of the individual to use it to find solutions to the problems they encounter within the same context. Together they form what Aristotle described as *wisdom* (1955), which is the application of knowledge to practice. Therefore, a participant's *phronesis* is bounded by the context. When they

move to another school, their knowledge and therefore, their ability to solve similar kinds of problems will not be as efficient because their wisdom is derived from experiences in the previous context (see section 4.5.5 in relation to expanding knowledge for new contexts).

7.5.1 The influence of the organisation of the context

In section 2.9, I discussed some of the differences between schools. The intake of schools presents an obvious difference. This can be by age resulting in primary and secondary schools; and gender resulting in single-sex and mixed schools. Other less obvious differences occur because of factors determining admission such as religious belief leading to faith schools, wealth leading to independent schools, intelligence leading to grammar schools and Special schools. Even behaviour can determine admission leading to the provision for students who have been excluded from the maintained sector. These include PRUs and SEBD schools.

Peter completed placements in two different state, comprehensive schools, one mixed gender and one all-boys school. He took up his first post as a qualified teacher in an independent, fee-paying, secondary school. The differences he encountered between the students in the private and state sectors led to his development of the strategies, which have already been discussed (see section 7.2.4). He stated in his NQT interview that the sole reason for the expansion of his *process knowledge* was the development of *substantive knowledge* of the different attitudes of the students.

Ann had a similar reason for the development of her particular strategies during her first post as a qualified teacher. She had completed two teaching placements, one in a mixed gender, secondary comprehensive school and one in an all-boys, secondary, grammar school. She encountered very different attitudes between the two kinds of students she taught and between the staff of each school (see section 6.4). She said the experience at the grammar school opened her eyes to the difference in opportunities between the schools. The conclusion I drew from the analysis of the data collected from these two placements was that the new strategies she developed had resulted from her experiences in the grammar school.

7.5.2 The influence of the ethos of the school

The organization of a school in terms of the student intake is one influence the context can have on the knowledge teachers develop to manage behaviour, as the two examples above show. The other major influence is the ethos of the school. The ethos is a particular set of beliefs that sets the school apart from others. It is often communicated in the school's promotional materials and policies. It describes how the mission or aims of the school will be translated into practice.

The data collected from Yasmin's two placement interviews provides a good example of how the ethos of a school can influence the knowledge that a teacher develops. Yasmin completed her first placement in an all-girls, secondary, comprehensive school. During her time there, she concentrated on overcoming a range of anxieties she had about herself as a teacher. By the end of the placement, she said she

definitely felt more confident and had learned a lot about the ways girls behaved (and misbehaved). Her second placement was in another secondary, comprehensive school but the obvious difference was the student intake. Over ninety percent of it students came from Asian backgrounds.

At the same time, Yasmin had been reading about a caring approach to behaviour and so her strategy was to combine the caring ethos of the school with the caring strategies in the book. The intervention she described was designed to address the boy's prejudiced attitude by treating him in a caring way. As I have already described, Yasmin's strategy went against one of her beliefs but she still proceeded and it proved successful. What was also interesting was something she said much later. She had recently completed a Master's Degree, which had led to her developing strong views about the stereotyping of women. She said her belief strongly influenced her life and had influenced the way she dealt with the boy.

The ethos of the school does not guarantee positive practices. The grammar school where Ann did her second placement had an ethos of valuing academic excellence and developing intellectual thought. It prided itself on being awarded *Leading Edge* status[20]. The school was distinctly different to her first placement. What unsettled her during the placement was how sarcastic many of the teachers were towards the students. She noticed this when they gave assessed work back and commented sarcastically on the 'poor quality'. In reality, the work was graded between the high B and A* attainment bands. She discussed this strategy with a number of colleagues and

concluded it was part of the culture in the school for getting the students who knew they were very able, to do better.

Ann felt uncomfortable with the sarcastic approach but decided to learn it because she wanted to fit into the English department. The adoption of the strategy is an example of the alignment into a community of practice described by Lave and Wenger (1991) involving showing *affinity* with her colleagues (Gee, 2000). What was significant was that her affinity was driven by the need to identify with her colleagues rather than believing in the strategy (Carter and Doyle, 1996). It is an example of Ann's *strategic compliance* because she went along with the practice even though she held a *non-consensual view* (Nespor, 1987).

It shows how impressionable a beginner teacher is during the early part of their career. Ann's experience led to her developing *process knowledge* of a strategy that she did not believe in to be *strategically compliant*. She did not use the resulting *substantive knowledge* in her first post as a qualified teacher because it did not fit into her own belief system. The data provided a number of examples of practice similar to Ann's that demonstrated adherence to policies of a school was not an all-or-nothing commitment.

7.5.3 School policies and the development of knowledge

I have already described a number of examples where the participant manipulated the school policies to meet their own needs. From the point-of-view of a headteacher, it is

important that teachers follow policies because they ensure that the school operates in the way agreed by the policy-makers. Deviation from the policy can have serious effects. For example, a teacher who becomes aware of a child-protection issue such as a disclosure made by a student is expected to report the concern immediately. Failing to do this immediately puts the student at risk. Similarly, the curriculum entitlement is set out in policy and translated into a timetable for each group of students. The headteacher would reasonably expect that if they went to a particular classroom at a certain time of the day they would see the students being taught the subject by the designated teacher that is shown in the timetable. Teachers who swap groups without notifying the senior team or in the case of primary teachers, decide not to teach a particular subject at all, cause the headteacher some confusion at the least and limit the curriculum entitlement at the worst[21]. Therefore, following school policies are an important part of a teacher's contractual responsibility. The skill is in deciding whether a new strategy falls within the existing policy and can be implemented without discussion. The alternative is to raise it for discussion and have it incorporated into the appropriate policy.

A number of participants adapted the behaviour policies of their placement schools by introducing additional rewards and sanctions. They did not believe the changes would require a change of policy because they were interim measures designed to slow down the intervention process and prevent getting to the high value rewards and serious sanctions too quickly (see Melanie 7.2.5). These included giving stars, stickers, points and praise prior to awarding the recognized rewards of house points,

credits and merit marks. The negative consequences they gave included unofficial warnings, temporary seat changes and onerous tasks prior to issuing school detentions, signing planners, making written referrals to Heads of Year or having the student removed from the room. The participants who modified the policies in this way reported that it made them feel more confident (indicating an increase in their *personal teaching efficacy*) leading to a *mastery experience* (Bandura, 1997). Additionally, the methods increased their *process knowledge* of rewarding and sanctioning students.

There were examples of the participants completely ignoring the school policy because they discovered or were told by colleagues that it was unworkable in the classroom. Melanie reported that she did not give out merit marks because the older students in her second placement school did not value them. Yasmin and Melanie both reported that the policies for detention at their first and second placement schools respectively, did not work because the students failed to attend. Yasmin's response was to follow her class teacher's advice and ignore misbehaving students, thus avoiding the need for detentions. Melanie's response was to persist and as a result, she became even more disillusioned with the school system for managing behaviour. Peter reported that he followed the policy for detention in his first placement school but deviated from it in what he expected the students to do during the time. He said they were supposed to get on with silent work but he believed that was a waste of time and a missed opportunity. Instead, he used the time to talk to the students, firstly about their behaviour to help them understand what they did wrong

and what they could do in the future. Secondly, he tried to get to know them and find out what they thought of the school and his lessons. He found the feedback useful and it enabled him to expand his *substantive knowledge* of his teaching by using their comments. He said he thought this strategy also helped the students. The result was an expansion in his *process knowledge* of how to manage any kind of detention including keeping students back for short periods. He referred to this strategy in later interviews in relation to building relationships with other students.

On a few occasions, the participants were persuaded that part of the policy was ineffective and they adopted alternatives. At the start of this section, I described how colleagues advised Melanie that senior managers rarely came to give assistance when called. She was initially persuaded to join an inter-class referral system. This experience led to her developing *process knowledge* of a method for referring misbehaving students to other classes. Eventually, she recognized that any kind of referral out of the room had a detrimental impact on the students of the 'receiving' class and decided to find ways of dealing with the misbehaviour within her own classroom. The account of what she did indicated an expansion of her *process knowledge* of reactive and pre-emptive strategies such as rule-reminders, tactically ignoring unwanted behaviour, re-direction followed by praise, focusing on the primary behaviour, and ignoring the secondary behaviour. Her *substantive knowledge* of being consistent expanded as she recognized the role she played as a catalyst in the behaviour of her students. She said that she began her NQT year feeling very confident about her ability to manage classroom behaviour, which indicated a high

personal teaching efficacy belief. This remained high for four of the groups she

taught but decreased with the fifth group (see section 7.4.4).

7.5.4 The placement school class teacher and the development of knowledge

There were inconsistent views about the value of the class teacher in the development

of a participant's knowledge. The participants were not asked the direct question of

what they thought of the class teacher because I believed that they might have felt

awkward. They provided considerable evidence in the 'stories' they told to allow me

to evaluate the contributions class teachers made to the placement experience and

knowledge development. The general view expressed by all of the participants was

that their placement class teachers had been extremely helpful in a number of ways.

They described how the class teacher had provided schemes of work, data and useful

information about the students as well as giving assistance with planning. They

allowed varying degrees of freedom with some letting the participants experiment

with their own ideas. Peter described how the class teacher permitted him to change

the room layout and try an approach to drama teaching he had devised. On some

occasions, the participants described the freedom more as a kind of abdication. For

example, Yasmin said that she felt the class teacher in her first placement did not

really care about what happened in the class as long as it did not result in chaos. This

became evident during the observation of a lesson and the class teacher was not in

attendance. The students were not under control and there was lot off-task during the

individual consolidation activity and some left the room to go to the toilet and were absent for a long time.

The class teacher is the main role model for the beginner teacher. The participants spent eight weeks with their class teachers in the first placements and twelve weeks with them in the second placements. They did have opportunities to observe teachers in other classes but the majority of the time was with the class teachers of the groups they taught. One of the ways that beginner teachers learn to teach is what Lortie (1973) called the *apprenticeship of observation*. Therefore, the position that a class teacher occupies is a very influential one in the training of beginner teachers and developement of their knowledge for managing behaviour. The data provides evidence that it was of great value and examples of this have already been discussed. However, there was the potential for considerable harm to be done to their learning or at the very least, time wasted in learning things that are not particularly useful (see Ann's account of sarcasm in section 7.5.2) or learning nothing at all (see Yasmin's account of being advised to ignore misbehaviour in section 7.2.1).

The conclusion drawn from this evidence is that the knowledge beginner teachers can develop from a school placement depends on a range of factors but one of the most influential ones is the class teacher. The evidence indicates that a class teacher with considerable experience and expertise of managing classroom behaviour using an *incorporative* approach is most likely to provide good guidance and the best learning experience for a beginner teacher. It should be noted that the length of service is not a

factor (Stobart *et al.*, 2006) however, there are a number of caveats to this. Firstly, it may be harder for a beginner teacher to spot what an expert teacher is doing within their practice than if they were watching someone nearer to their own level. Secondly, the expert teacher may be able to manage behaviour well in practice but not be able to describe to the novice what it is they are actually doing. An expert practitioner is not necessarily a good teacher of teachers. Therefore, the implication for practice of this finding is that the selection and training of class teachers placed with beginner teachers is very important.

In the next section, I will discuss the findings related to the use of the theoretical model in charting the development of the participants' knowledge for managing classroom behaviour over the course of the two-year period of the study.

7.6 The theoretical model

The theoretical model was used to analyze the development of each strategy and chart its progress over time. The concrete experiences resulting in reflex responses were analyzed using the *Intuitive* and *Uncertainty* stages of the model. The response to incidents that involved the production of strategies to be used on future occasions were analyzed using the other three stages of the model. The findings from these analyses showed that there were close connections between the *growth* of the participants' strategies and the *agency* they had within the schools where they completed their teaching placements or worked during the NQT year. These connections will be discussed in the next section.

7.6.1 Interaction between growth and agency

I described *growth* as the progress a participant made in the development of a strategy over time. The theoretical model was used to analyze the data and place a participant's strategy within the appropriate stage of the model at a particular point in time. Subsequent analyses of the data related to the strategy enabled it to be placed in the appropriate stage and changes in its position noted. *Growth* occurred when the strategy showed a positive movement forward within a stage or on to the next stage. In some cases, a strategy did not appear to undergo any further development and so I deemed it to be static.

In section 2.4.10, I proposed a definition of the professional knowledge that teachers develop in particular contexts that was based on Aristotle's *phronesis* (1955). *Phronesis* is broadly, the wisdom that comes from having knowledge of concrete experiences. I have classified this knowledge into two categories, *substantive knowledge* and *process knowledge*. Possession of these two kinds of knowledge on their own does not result in wisdom. The individual also has to have an awareness or realization that they have the ability to solve problems in the context using their *substantive* and *process knowledge*. Once they recognize that they have the ability they start to realize that the strategy they are developing constitutes *capital*. However, it first needs to be 'tested' and proved before it is incorporated into their *repertoire*. This marks the beginning of the *growth* of the strategy and typifies the *Incomplete Gestalt* and *Complete Gestalt* stages.

The recognition by an individual that they have the ability but not yet applied the strategy in practice is an example of their predisposition or *habitus* (Bourdieu, 1989). For example, the *habitus* of all five participants was for building relationships over other ways of managing behaviour such as coercive methods. The progress of a participant's strategy only occurred once they believed they had *agency* to implement it in the school. This can be summarized as:

Ability to Act	+	Agency to Act	+	Application of strategy in practice	+	Reflection On Practice	=	Wisdom
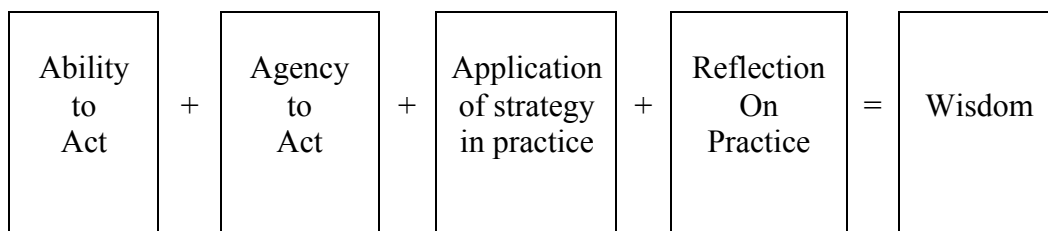
Wisdom is the first step in terms of *growth* and involves the gaining *substantive knowledge* about the context and developing *process knowledge* of the tactics for implementing the strategy. It was also accompanied by increases in *personal teaching efficacy* indicating that the participant felt more confident about their ability and *agency* to act. The final component of the development of a participant's wisdom was the reflection they engaged in after the implementation of the strategy.

A number of examples have already been described that illustrate this including Yasmin's use of praise even though she did not believe in it [Second placement, July 2008], Peter's use of detentions to get to know his students [First placement, December 2007] and Melanie's strategy to slow down progress towards school sanctions [NQT, July 2009]. In contrast, Ann's 'story' of the development of sarcasm

was an example of how her strategy grew but then she used her wisdom to reject it when she changed schools.

The findings show the progress of strategies from the *Incomplete Gestalt* stage through the *Complete Gestalt* stage and onto the *Schema* stage in some cases. The process of applying the 'proven' strategy from one school in another involved changes. For example, the strategy Peter developed in his first and second placements for helping his students to be good, decent people changed. He incorporated his new *substantive knowledge* about the students at the independent school into his strategy resulting in modifications to the tactics. He made the changes so that the strategy would work in the new context and incorporated them into his *process knowledge*.

Indentifying these examples was only possible when the participant explained what they were doing. I could observe their strategies being used and even recognize that they had been employed in a previous placement but that did not mean that they were developing a schema. I could only be sure that they were involved on the process of forming a schema once they explained it to me (see section 4.5.5). All the participants provided evidence in this way of at least one schema.

7.6.2 Variations in participants' *repertoires* of strategies

Some of the participants began their ITE believing that every context was different. As a result, they did not think that it was possible to learn to manage classroom behaviour by being taught some general techniques or by being given a 'survival

toolkit. The theoretical model enabled me to analyze the origins of the participants'

strategies. The findings show a number of reasons why they developed similar

strategies. These included concerns, reasons for managing behaviour, advice from

colleagues and perceptions of *agency*. For example, they all developed a strategy of

trying to be strict using the "never smile until Christmas" approach. This originated

from the advice they all said they had received at different times prior to and during

their first placements.

Many of the participants' strategies originated following changes from *self-concerns*

to *impact concerns*. The conclusion I drew from this finding was that if the

participants had been helped to overcome their *self-concerns* much earlier in their

ITE, they would have been able to cultivate strategies that focused on their students'

development rather than their own.

The analysis of the data over the course of the study provides evidence that all of the

participants produced very similar *repertoires* of strategies. The reasons behind the

development of their strategies differed and so did the tactics for implementation but

this was to be expected because of the differences between the schools.

A noticeable outcome of the application of the theoretical model to all of the

participants' strategies was that they did not start developing them at the same time.

Furthermore, some strategies were only developed for a short period and then became

'static'. They remained in the participants' *repertoires* with the potential for

reactivation. There were some occasions where they were used again later in the study. There were a few isolated examples where development began in one placement and ceased when the participant moved onto to another school (Ann's strategy of sarcasm, second teaching placement and Yasmin's strategy of ignoring misbehaviour to avoid giving detentions, first teaching placement). Some strategies like relationship-building and avoiding labelling were continually in evidence but development was not always obvious (see appendix 26).

7.6.3 Factors that could facilitate or impede development of strategies

Although considerable detail has already been given in chapter 2 of the theoretical factors that could facilitate or impede the development of knowledge, empirical data needed to be collected to establish their validity in practice. I have described the process of analyzing the participants' narratives to reveal how these factors influenced the development of *substantive* and *process knowledge*. By using the theoretical model, I have also been able to chart the development of each strategy and identify why some advanced more rapidly than others. Careful analysis of the data in terms of how the participants described the implementation of their strategies resulted in a better understanding of how the theoretical factors affected progress. Additionally, I was able to identify a number of new factors and use the empirical data to provide evidence of their effects. These are discussed below.

The conceptualization of misbehaviour

The participants began their ITE by conceptualizing misbehaviour as a 'hazard' of teaching that they had to 'survive'. They believed that the students should have learned how to behave before they came to school and when some misbehaved, they regarded them as a 'nuisance'[22] because they were preventing them from doing and enjoying the job of teacher (see section 7.2.4). Gradually, the participants changed their views and started to recognize that not all students knew how to behave in school. They attributed the reasons for misbehaviour to home-life, the neighbourhood where they lived, the other people they associated with and in some cases, medical conditions. Towards the end of their ITE, most of the participants started to consider that the school could also be a cause of the misbehaviour. The turning point was when they reconceptualized misbehaviour as a learning opportunity. From that point on, they made considerable progress in the development of innovative strategies. The conclusion I drew from this finding was that the participants could have made more progress in the development of their strategies if they had been helped to conceptualize misbehaviour as a learning experiences earlier in their ITE.

Participants attitudes to misbehaviour

At the beginning of ITE, the participants expressed *self-concerns* about managing behaviour that included worries about being challenged by students (Nadia), losing control (Yasmin) and lacking credibility when disciplining students (Peter and Ann). Yasmin told a 'story' during her first placement interview about a girl who would not do anything she was asked to do and kept disrupting the rest of the class. Yasmin said

that the girl's refusal to cooperate "was really getting to me. I would come out of the lesson and be really upset because she had answered back and I had no control over her". Previously, she had explained in her pre-placement interview that she believed students should respect their teacher's authority. This 'story' indicated that Yasmin had taken the student's misbehaviour personally.

Melanie described how the experience of the Year 9 English class during her NQT year had made her feel a failure. This was an indication that she had also taken the students' misbehaviour personally. Similarly, Ann described how she got angry and "saw red" when a student threw a tablet of chewing gum. She said it made her feel really unhappy afterwards, which contradicted the view she had expressed in her pre-placement interview. She had said that she believed that people choose how they will behave and so I would have expected her response to be detached rather than indignant. Ann had showed that she had taken the boy's behaviour personally.

The phenomenon of taking misbehaviour personally is detrimental to teachers but also understandable. The natural reaction to situations that threaten the status quo, especially acts of challenging behaviour is to become defensive or aggressive. Furthermore, the participants showed that they had invested a considerable amount of 'themselves' in their work so it was not surprising that they experienced a range of positive and negative feelings over the course of the study. When things went well they reported pleasurable emotions. When things did not go according to plan, they reported feelings of frustration, dread, and failure. Once the participants began to

reframe misbehaviour as something the students needed to control, they made more rapid progress in the development of incorporative strategies like Yasmin's 'caring approach' (Second placement), Ann's 'chains of students' (NQT year) and Melanie's teacher as catalyst (NQT year).

The conclusion I drew from this finding was that the participants would not have taken their students' misbehaviour personally if they had conceptualizing it as a learning opportunity right from the start of their ITE.

7.6.4 Factors that impede development of strategies

These included schools with a *coercive* ethos and an emphasis on competence and performativity; transitions between placements; development of negative strategies for managing behaviour; unworkable school behaviour policies and unsupportive senior managers; a lack of knowledge of how to build relationships; a persisting emphasis on *self* and rather than *impact concerns* and a lack of basic techniques for dealing with everyday low-level disruptions. Many of these have already been covered so only a number of them are discussed below.

<u>Transitions between contexts</u>

Analysis of the data at four points over the two-year period of the study provided evidence that the participants' development of knowledge for managing behaviour slowed down when they moved from one school to the next. The slow-down had a number of causes but the most significant one was the need to acquire additional

substantive knowledge about the new school. This knowledge included empirical data about the new groups to be taught; information about the individual students; understanding the school ethos, policies, customs and practices; curriculum information and schemes of work. The participants then had to modify their tactics using the new *substantive knowledge* resulting in an expansion of their *process knowledge*.

The changes took time and during the initial period in the new school, other factors also impeded their development. For example, a drop in confidence led to lower self-efficacy because of the new *self-concerns* that arose. Some of these *self-concerns* were similar to the ones the participants described in their pre-placement interviews such as whether they would be able to cope with the behaviour. Others were new such as Ann's *self-concern* about whether she could stay "one step in front of the students" in terms of her subject knowledge because she believed that being from a grammar school, all the students would be very intelligent [Second placement, May 2008]. Melanie started to have new *task concerns* once she began her second placement. These were about the lack of resources such as photocopying and interactive whiteboards. She had not experienced these in her first placement because it was a new school that was well endowed. Melanie found ways of dealing with these problems with the help of her colleagues that indicated the expansion of her *substantive knowledge*. She also had to develop different teaching tactics that did not require the use of an interactive whiteboard, which indicated the expansion of her *process knowledge*.

The evidence of transitions can be interpreted in both positive and negative ways. On the one hand, staying in the same school could have enabled the participants to 'polish' and perfect their strategies as well as developing new ones as the need arose. As the participants moved between three schools over the two-year period of this study, I do not have evidence to show this could happen. On the other hand, I have collected data that shows the participants did modify or develop new strategies once they were in new schools. The acquisition of new *substantive* and *process knowledge*, together with reflection leading to the development and implementation of a new or modified plan are features of the *Schema* stage of the model (see section 4.5.5). Therefore, the participants' *process knowledge* expanded to incorporate the new tactics and knowledge of schema formation. This was evident in the discussions they had with me and possibly with their colleagues where began trying to explain their schemas.

The question is what is more important, the 'polishing' and perfecting of tactics or the development of schemas that incorporate new tactics. The answer to this question will depend on the perspective of the individual and their role in the ITE/NQT process. The headteacher of a school may favour keeping the beginner teacher if they have been doing a good job over inducting a new person. The reasons for this is that students do not respond very well to changes in teachers and all the accompanying issues. The beginner teacher may go either way depending on a range of factors including how they have been doing to date, their views of colleagues, students, parents and feelings about the usefulness of multiple placements in their

development. The ITE coordinators, university staff and government policy-makers are expected to support the view that two placements in schools with different characteristics is an essential part of ITE because it is mandatory. What is clear from my findings is that there is a 'price to pay' for the advantages of training to be a teacher in multiple placements, which is the slow-down in development of knowledge immediately after the transition.

7.6.5 Factors that facilitate development of strategies

The factors that facilitated the progress of the participants' behaviour strategies included engaging in reading and research; the realization that they could be 'catalysts' for their students' behaviour; embedding behaviour management into the teaching and an *incorporative* ethos in the host school.

<u>Reading and research</u>

There was little evidence in the data of what the participants read in the field of behaviour management. This was partly due to direct questions not being asked until the NQT interviews. Only Yasmin and Peter referred to specific authors that included Gootman (2001), Cowley (2004) and Holt (1964). I have already discussed this lack of reading but I raise it again here because the participants could have benefited from conceptual input to assist the development of their strategies as the case of Yasmin demonstrated (see section 7.2.2).

Teacher as a 'catalyst' for their students' behaviour

Changes from *self* to *impact concerns* were usually accompanied by changes in perception of the role of 'teacher'. As a result, the participants realized they were 'catalysts' in their students' behaviour. This concept of 'teacher as catalyst' manifested in several ways during the study. The first was in how the participants dealt with incidents. Rogers (1994) advises that the teacher should remain focused on the *primary behaviour* of the student (i.e. what they did wrong) and use strategies to help them to choose to get back on task. Students will sometimes complain that the teacher is being unfair or make comments like 'You can't make me'. Rogers calls these kinds of comments *secondary behaviour* and advises teachers not to respond to them. The reason is that it can lead to an increase in emotional investment with the teacher reacting by arguing with the student that they 'can make them' and 'it is fair'. The result is the *secondary behaviour* is out of proportion to the original incident. The role of the teacher as a 'catalyst' in these sorts of situations is to stay focused on the *primary behaviour*.

Another feature of the 'catalyst' is the teacher actually causing the misbehaviour. Melanie recognized that she had been doing this with one of the students she taught during her NQT year. The description she gave of how she re-framed her response reflected Bronfenbrenner's *system theory* approach (1992). Some of the other participants described incidents that showed they were beginning to move in a similar direction as Melanie in accepting that they may be the 'triggers' for the behaviour of their students. However, more of the participants showed a lack of understanding of

the need to stay focused on *primary behaviour* and observation data provided evidence of them rising to *secondary behaviour*.

Embedding behaviour management into the teaching

The participants began their ITE with the view that good teaching and interesting lessons would be one of the ways they managed behaviour. They also talked about other strategies they would use including building relationships, being strict and avoiding labelling. They referred to these strategies as things they would do while teaching, which showed they had begun thinking about the management of behaviour as an integrated part of the whole process of teaching. What the participants did not do was describe the tactics they would employ to embed their strategies.

Rogers (1994) and Canter (1992) describe the techniques for managing low-level disruptions as being highly effective for preventing misbehaviour as well as dealing with its effects. My observations showed that the participants did not start to use these kinds of techniques until late in their ITE. However, there is convincing evidence of Ann and Peter embedding many of their strategies into the teaching during the NQT year. Examples of this included Ann's 'chains of students' and insisting they answered questions using full sentences and Peter's activities involving students empathizing with characters in Shakespeare's plays.

One tactic I observed in the participants' NQT lessons that proved particularly powerful was 'modelling'. Peter had talked about how he 'modelled' the ways he

wanted his students to behave and this was often in evidence in his lessons. His view was that students had to be shown what was required. He experimented with this by demonstrating how to behave in class when they engaged in discussions as well as showing completed examples of writing tasks before he set them. The combination of what he wanted them to do and how he wanted them to behave suggested that he had begun to view his strategies in a holistic way. This is a feature of the *Complete Gestalt* stage and he used the strategy of the 'teacher as a catalyst' with the tactic of 'modelling' to embed the management of behaviour into his teaching.

Whole-school *incorporative* ethos

The aim of an *incorporative* ethos is to include everyone by providing support systems that accommodate difference. An integral feature is in helping staff and students to develop a tolerant *habitus* and a range of strategies that enable them to articulate it in the classroom. The evidence from the data showed that this did not always happen and I have already shown this with examples of Peter's experimentation with shouting at students and Ann's adoption of sarcasm.

When a participant used incorporative strategies the outcomes proved to be very successful in resolving difficult incidents (Yasmin's 'caring approach', Ann's 'chains of students', Nadia's star system of rewards and Peter's tackling of prejudice). As a result, the participants found that their *substantive* and *process knowledge* expanded significantly. This was identified in the progress they made from the initial 'problem

(*Intuitive* stage) through the *Incomplete* stage and onto the *Complete Gestalt* and *Schema* stages of the theoretical model.

7.6 Conclusion

In chapter 2, I began by considering Freire's (1988) assertion that schools structure students and teachers. They do this via the ethos, culture and practices as well as through the organization of the curriculum, pedagogies and hierarchies within the school. I presented Apple's (1996) argument as an alternative. He argued that individuals are not passive in the process and have *agency* to either accept or change the structuring factors that affect them. In chapter 4, I used Bourdieu's (1990) description of a dialectical relationship to describe this interaction between individuals and contexts. I proposed that the structuring factors could be either 'internal' or external' to the individual and used them to develop a set of conceptual 'tools' to analyze the progress in the development of knowledge.

My study has been looking at how a group of five beginner teachers developed their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour within a specific period in their careers - their ITE and NQT years. I devised a theoretical model for charting the participants' development of knowledge of strategies for managing behaviour. The model enabled me to identify whether particular strategies originated as a result of a participant's *agency* or because of the structuring influence of the context (a paradigmatic approach, Maxwell, 1992; Maxwell and Miller, 1992). The model was used to classify the kinds of knowledge being developed at specific times during the study

and evaluate whether they had expanded or became 'static' (a syntagmatic approach). This enabled the factors that facilitated and impeded a participant's development of knowledge of strategies for managing classroom behaviour to be identified. The outcomes of the analysis of the empirical part of the study are a critical evaluation of the theoretical model as a 'tool' for charting the development of teachers' knowledge for managing behaviour and the factors that can facilitate or impede this development.

The participants described their beliefs, thoughts, actions and experiences during the interviews as 'stories'. These 'stories' were bounded by their personal perspectives and so further analysis was carried out to understand how their accounts related to the questions of this study. Following Heritage's (1984) advice, the contexts where the 'stories' originated were included in the analysis process to enable the dialectical interaction described by Apple (1996) to be understood. Care was taken to guard against what Fielding and Fielding (1986) suggested as the temptation to select data to fit an ideal conception (or preconception) of the phenomenon. I adopted Mehan's (1979) approach by using processes that show the transparency of the selection of data using sets of criteria as described in section 6.3. I also ensured wherever possible that practices described in interviews was also observed in lessons the participants taught. The findings from the analysis are summarized below.

The participants began their ITE with a range of beliefs that they used to 'shape' and 'colour' their approaches to managing classroom behaviour. *Underived beliefs* arising

from first-hand experiences were more tightly held than *derived beliefs* formed from second-hand experiences. Knowledge rooted in *underived beliefs* underwent more rapid expansion than knowledge based on *derived beliefs*. Participants held some beliefs at the start of their first placement such as the belief that building relationships was important in managing behaviour but had no *process knowledge* for its implementation. However, this did not stop them developing the knowledge required.

The study provides evidence that a beginner teacher could use a strategy that they did not believe in but still achieve a successful outcome. Furthermore, they could add it to their *repertoire*, while retaining a firm conviction in their original belief even though the practice contradicted it. Participants changed some of their beliefs during their ITE/NQT and these were based on first-hand experience and second-hand training and advice.

The role of prior knowledge was important, especially when dealing with 'incidents' the participants had not previously encountered. Prior knowledge was made up of *substantive* and *process knowledge* gained from experiences as a teacher (e.g. during ITE) and as a non-teacher (e.g. during childhood in school and at home). Participants used their prior knowledge to respond in reflex ways to 'incidents' because they did not have plans of action they had previously devised. There was evidence of pre-emptive responses to situations showing that they had devised plans for some strategies in advance. This pointed to their *repertoires* containing strategies at

different stages of development. Use of the model showed that the development of strategies began at different times and developed at different rates.

The participants began their ITE by conceptualizing misbehaviour as a 'hazard' that they needed to 'survive'. They eventually re-conceptualized it as a learning opportunity towards the end of the ITE or in their NQT year. The result was that most of the *process knowledge* for managing behaviour they developed was to alleviate their *self-concern* of 'survival'. Re-conceptualizing misbehaviour as a learning opportunity occurred when they started to develop *impact concerns* focused on the progress of their students. This change led to more incorporative forms of *process knowledge* being developed. The participants' concerns were important indicators of the development of their knowledge and were used to show progress within the model. The view of Fuller (1969) and others is that concerns are sequential and can be used as indicators of global development of teachers from 'novice' to 'expert'. However, my study provides evidence that a participant in her NQT year had *impact concerns* about the management of behaviour of four of her groups and a *self-concern* for the management of behaviour of the fifth group.

My study also provides evidence of the reciprocity between the participants' concerns and efficacy beliefs. As participants' *self-concerns* about a class subsided and *impact concerns* took their place, they also experienced increases in their *personal teaching efficacy*, accompanied by decreases in *teaching efficacy*. The opposite also applied so did the localization of this reciprocity. As a result, a participant could have one of

these 'reciprocal' sets for each class they taught. This shows that efficacy beliefs, like

concerns are not global indicators and aggregation into one measure is misleading.

The theoretical model provided a number of interesting findings about the changes

that occurred when participants moved from one school to the next. The move

required learning the new school's ways of doing things. This involved acquiring new

substantive and *process knowledge* that took time, resulting in a slow-down in the

progress of the development of their strategies. The participants found that the slow-

down caused them to develop *self-concerns* about their ability to manage behaviour

in the new school. The knock-on effect of this regression of concerns was a drop in

confidence and *personal teaching efficacy* until they developed *process knowledge*

for managing behaviour in the new context. The modifications that the participants

were forced to make in their tactics resulted in progress towards the *Schema* stage.

This brought with it the abilities to generalize and adapt. They would need these

skills for the future because students, staff, headteachers, curricula and Government

policies frequently change and teachers are expected to maintain a level of

competence and performance.

The school context had a number of effects on the participants' development of

knowledge. The participants considered the class teacher to be an important role

model. They were in agreement that the class teachers were very useful and helpful

most of the time. However, the evidence indicates that the class teachers were

inconsistent in the advice they gave. This had the potential to impede the

development of useful knowledge for managing behaviour. There is evidence of the participants following advice given by class teachers that went against their own beliefs. This showed how impressionable teachers could be in the early stages of their careers.

The school ethos had a structuring influence on the participants' development. Sometimes, the participants modified school policies to enable them to manage behaviour in their own ways. This modification led to increases in *process knowledge* as a participant developed their strategies. There were also occasions when the actual practices in the school did not reflect the positive ethos it promoted. This resulted in the participant following negative practices of colleagues, which went against their own beliefs. In these cases, they developed strategies that became 'dead ends' because they ceased when the participant changed schools. This is a waste of effort in an already short period of time that beginner teachers have to develop their knowledge.

The participants' perception of themselves began with a belief that the teacher controlled their students' behaviour. This led to the view that misbehaviour was a personal 'attack' on them. Gradually, their perceptions changed until they viewed themselves as 'catalysts' for student behaviour. This resulted in an expansion of *substantive knowledge* about the students in order to understand why they misbehaved. They developed ways to intervene that involved changing their own

behaviour rather than expecting the students to change. The approach resulted in significant increases in *process knowledge* of incorporative tactics.

A further change that led to significant improvements in the classroom climate was the embedding of the strategies for managing behaviour into the teaching. This approach indicated that the participants had begun to view their strategies in a holistic way that characterized their progress as being in the *Complete Gestalt* stage of the model.

The findings summarized here show that the theoretical model provides a way of identifying the origins of strategies, charting their development and showing the variations in progress between them. It also demonstrates that the participants were not passive within a structuring context in the way described by Freire (1988). The model provided examples of the participants recognizing they had *agency* resulting in *growth* of their knowledge of strategies. It also showed that the participants did what Apple (1996) described as either accepting the influence of the structuring factors on the knowledge they developed (e.g. Ann's sarcasm strategy) or changing or deviating from them (e.g. Melanie's modification of the behaviour policy to slow down progress to consequences). Together, these provide evidence of how Bourdieu's (1990) dialectical relationship between individuals and contexts can facilitate or impede development of knowledge for managing behaviour.

In the next chapter, I will conclude this thesis by considering it achievements and the contribution it makes to knowledge. I will consider the limitations of my study and suggest areas for further research that have arisen from the findings. Finally, I will discuss the implications this study has for practice.

Chapter 8 Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

In section 8.2, I return to the research questions, briefly reiterate their origins, and outline how they have been addressed. In section 8.3, I provide a synoptic overview of the thesis by identifying the achievements of each chapter. In section 8.4, I identify and discuss the limitations of the empirical work I carried out. In section 8.5, I discuss the contributions that my study makes to knowledge. In section 8.6, I outline the possible directions for further research that have arisen from the findings and in section 8.7, I conclude by discussing the implications that this study has for practice.

8.2 The research questions

The origin of this research is in my role as a class teacher. I struggled with the problem of how to manage classroom behaviour. Initially, I believed that it was the teacher's job to control the students. When they misbehaved, I took it personally like some of the participants of my study. Like them, I was only concerned with 'surviving' but eventually I developed strategies that were less about my *self-concerns* and more about the students' learning. When I became a headteacher, I was faced with a new set of 'problems'. These included ensuring that beginner teachers on placements in my school did not have a detrimental effect on the students' education.

At the time of becoming a headteacher in 2004, the educational 'landscape' was one with increasing emphasis on performativity and Ofsted had stringent criteria for

standards of behaviour in schools. As a result, the behaviour of students could contribute to a school 'failing' its inspection. Beginner teachers have the potential to be the 'weak links' because they are relatively inexperienced in managing classroom behaviour compared to the qualified teachers in a school. Their first placements are usually characterized by them 'finding their feet', which involves learning on the job at the school's expense. This prompted me to begin this study. What I wanted to research was how beginner teachers developed their knowledge for managing behaviour, while actually doing the job of a teacher. This led me to the three questions that this study set out to answer:

1. How are beginner teachers learning to manage classroom behaviour within the current performativity culture?

2. How does moving from one school to the next affect beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

3. What are the factors that facilitate and impede the beginner teachers' development of strategies and knowledge for managing classroom behaviour?

Now eight years on, these questions are still current. Very little research has been carried out into how beginner teachers actually develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. However, the pressure by successive Governments via Ofsted on schools to ensure students behave has increased. Therefore, the third question is still of significant importance as a training issue and one that regularly captures the attention of teachers and headteachers.

8.3 Achievements of this thesis

I began this thesis by describing how the culture of performativity and the struggle for control of ITE shaped the educational 'landscape' in which beginner teachers developed their knowledge. I described the origin and rationale for the focus of my research and proposed three questions that this study would address.

In chapter 2, I proposed that beginner teachers are subject to structuring influences of the schools where they work. I argued that to understand how a beginner teacher develops knowledge it is important to understand how they interrelate with the school context. I described this inter-relationship as being made up of a range of structuring influences. Some are 'internal' to the beginner teacher such as their beliefs, prior knowledge, concerns, emotions, identity and efficacy. Others are 'external' such as the school's ethos, 'communities of practice' within the school and the class teacher as a role model.

I also considered Freire's (1988) argument that schools have a powerful structuring influence on teachers and Apple's (1996) opposing argument that teachers are not passive in the process because they can exercise *agency* in the strategies they use. I drew on Bourdieu (1990) and argued in that this occurs through a dialectical relationship between the beginner teacher and the context. As a result, I developed a set of conceptual 'tools' for analyzing the data to show how the 'internal' and 'external' factors facilitated or impeded beginner teachers' development of knowledge for managing behaviour.

Despite the push for a performativity culture in ITE, my review of the literature found that teacher educators were resisting it by continuing to place the emphasis on developing the reflective skills of beginner teachers. Many of the studies into the experiences of beginner teachers carried out at the same time as my research found that they shared a preconception that learning to teach would be based on learning by doing (Hobson *et al.*, 2009 and others). The main method in this approach was reflection.

I argued that although Schön's theory of reflection-*on*-action (1983) explained how teachers developed plans to deal with future situations, his theory of reflection-*in*-action was problematical (chapter 3). I drew on Munby and Russell (1989) to identify the distinction between the elements of experience and cognitive thought. I proposed that teachers deal with situations that they have not planned for by responding in reflex ways rather than by reflecting-*in*-action. I argued that teachers do not have time during lessons to reflect when dealing with on-the-spot situations that they have not planned for in advance. I adopted Eraut's (1994) view that they respond in reflex ways. I called this the *on-the-spot reflex approach* and the use of reflection-*on* action, the *pre-emptive approach*.

I used the work of Miller, Gallanter and Pribram (1960) and Skemp (1979) to explain the differences between reflex action and reflective thinking. Miller *et al's* TOTE model provided a vocabulary for describing how teachers detect an *incongruity* and draw on prior knowledge to return *congruity* to a situation. I used Skemp's *director*

system to explain how a teacher is able to combine experience gained from the TOTE model with new propositional knowledge to reflect on a problem and design a plan for action.

I described how I used Bourdieu's work on *habitus* and *field* to pinpoint the participants of my study within the field of education. I showed how they straddled the fields of *Secondary Schooling* and *Higher Education* at the *macro* level. This bifurcation was continued at the *meso* level as full-time placements at secondary schools in the London area and as full-time PGCE students at a London university. I pinpointed their positions at the *micro* level as beginner teachers, teaching English and Drama on their school placements and as students on the English and Drama strand of the PGCE university route. I then showed how the participants were tracked over time as they moved from the *fields* of their placement schools as beginner teachers into the *fields* of their first substantive posts as qualified teachers (chapter 4, part 1).

I then went on to describe the theoretical model that I used to track the participants' *growth* of knowledge over time and through 'space'. I argued that the models of Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980), Tomporoski (2003), Bore (2006), Temple (2008), Skemp (1979) and Korthagen *et al* (2001) did not separately provide an effective means of charting the *growth* of beginner teachers' knowledge (chapter 4). Each model had some useful features that I integrated into my model but separately, they fell short for a number of reasons. These included focusing on skill acquisition rather

than reflective planning, focusing on perceptive experience rather than cognitive thought, not using conceptual knowledge, an absence of explanation for responding reflexively and in Korthagen's theory-building model, a lack of differentiation in the early stages.

I described my five-stage model (with the option of the *Uncertainty* stage when required) that spanned a beginner teacher's first encounter with a new situation using a reflex approach (*Intuitive* stage), through to the development of a pre-emptive plan that is used firstly, in the original context (*Gestalt* stages), then modified for use in other contexts (*Schema* stage) and ultimately, generalized as a *theory of action*.

My model provides a theoretical explanation of how teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. I described how I used Yin's embedded, multiple case study approach (2003) to analyze the data from the interviews and observations of each of the five participants. I provided a rationale for the use of *replication logic* over *sampling logic*. The selection of the participants enabled analytical generalizations to be made between the seventy-one embedded *units of analysis*. This meant that the data of an individual participant's *units of analysis* could be compared paradigmatically and syntagmatically to determine the strategies they were using and the *growth* that took place. *Replication logic* was also applied paradigmatically to compare similar strategies being developed by more than one participant. Chapter 5 detailed the implementation of the research design both as a pilot and for the main study.

I explained the process used to analyze the empirical data and identified an early

finding in chapter 6 of the participants using narrative 'stories' to describe their

experiences and justify their actions. I began the analysis process by identifying five

narrative types that the participants used and established a number of networks that

enabled the different kinds of knowledge to be distinguished. These were

biographical narratives, reasons for managing behaviour narratives, incident

narratives, method narratives and relationship narratives. The networks were made up

of a number of stages that enabled changes in each knowledge form to be shown over

time. The process of analyzing the data using these networks was exemplified for

each narrative type. Full biographies of the participants were produced using this

process and are included in the appendix.

I then showed how the analysis of one participant's strategy was analyzed using the

networks, the theoretical model described in chapter 4, the *director systems* described

in chapter 3 and the conceptual 'tools' described in chapter 2.

I presented the findings that resulted from the complete analysis of all the data

collected from the interviews and observations and argued that the participants were

not passively structured by the influences of the contexts where they worked. I found

that the theoretical model was effective in charting beginner teachers' development of

knowledge. Furthermore, the application of the model demonstrated that they had

agency in the schools. Analysis of the data at various points during the study revealed

that transitions between schools caused a slow-down in the participants' effectiveness

and development of *process knowledge*. The reason was they had to develop *substantive knowledge* about the new school. However, the findings showed that transitions also created the need to modify the tactics the participants used to implement their strategies. This had the positive effect of eventually expanding their *process knowledge* for use in multiple contexts, which resulted in *Schema* formation. It gave participants the added advantage of being able to understand the principal features of their strategies and explain how they were generalizing them to pre-empt 'problems'. These are the qualities required for demonstrating competency in a continually changing educational 'landscape'. The ability to form schemas, answers the research question of how beginner teachers are learning to manage classroom behaviour in the current culture of performativity. The evidence from my study of the participants engaging in theory-building processes also answers the question of how moving from one school to the next affects the development of beginner teachers' knowledge for managing classroom behaviour.

I concluded by setting out the contextual factors that facilitated or impeded the *growth* of the participants' strategies and knowledge for managing behaviour. These included the beginner teacher's perception of *agency*, the ways they conceptualize misbehaviour, the beliefs and prior knowledge they use to deal with new situations, their attitudes to reading and research, the ethos and policies of the school, the class teacher and the transitions between schools.

8.4 Limitations of the study and directions for further research

8.4.1 Sample size

This is a small-scale study, which prevents many of the findings being easily generalizable. In chapter 5, I described how the participants were selected. My rationale was that the five individuals selected could be classified as 'typical' because they developed *repertoires* of strategies for managing classroom behaviour. The study was about how beginner teachers developed their knowledge and I sought to understand the changes that occurred in their strategies and the factors that facilitated or impeded the process. Therefore, the use of *replication logic* to replicate and compare *units of analysis* enabled the identification of some aspects of the data that could be useful to practitioners. Similarly, *replication logic* ameliorated the selection of higher education institutions. The selection of only one university could be considered a limiting factor but the focus was not on how the university part of ITE was organized. The specific focus of this study was on what the participants actually did in the classroom because learning to become a teacher and managing behaviour was something that previous studies had identified as involving experience gained in the role of 'teacher'.

The validity of the findings of this research is strengthened by the achievement of three goals. Firstly, the findings demonstrated that my theoretical model could be used to explain and chart beginner teachers' development of knowledge within a culture of performativity. Secondly, the findings provide an insight into how beginner teachers deal with transitions between schools by developing *schemas*. Thirdly,

evidence collected over the course of the study shows how the factors can facilitate or impede beginner teachers' strategies. A larger-scale study would need to be conducted to establish whether the findings can be generalized to the wider field of secondary ITE such as other routes to becoming a teacher, other curriculum areas and any differences between academies, local authority controlled comprehensives and the independent sector.

8.4.2 Differences between the Primary and Secondary phases

There are considerable differences between these phases including the ages of students, the greater number of teachers that a secondary student has teaching them, the greater involvement of parents in primary schools and the increasing importance of external examinations for English and mathematics in the inspection of secondary schools. These differences may be limiting factors to my study. For example, primary teachers may have different reasons for managing behaviour than their secondary counterparts. However, many of the findings of my study will apply to beginner teachers carrying out their first placements in primary and secondary schools. Further similar studies will need to be carried out to establish whether this is the case.

8.4.3 Research tools

The main problem with using interviews is that they provide data about what the interviewee thinks in terms of what they said they did or are planning to do. I ensured that the effects of this limitation were minimized by carrying out observations of

lessons to gather data about what the participants actually did in practice. However, it was not possible to observe everything that the participants talked about in their interviews. This is acknowledged as a limitation of the study. Further studies of a similar nature can provide a broader base to test the conclusions drawn from this research.

An interview is a re-contextualization of what the interviewee has experienced or is thinking. This renders the data context-specific. It also provides a way of understanding the reasons behind their actions within the context that cannot be understood by observation alone. For example, it is not possible to know that a teacher is developing a schema by observing them using the same strategy with a number of groups of students. Explanation about the reason for the use of the strategy is also required.

Much of the data from the interviews enabled the *substantive knowledge* underpinning the observed actions to be explained. This in turn allowed expansions in that *substantive knowledge* to be identified in subsequent interviews. A limitation in this study was the positioning of the interviews during the NQT year. Increasing the frequency of the interviews in that period could have yielded a greater amount of data allowing more subtle changes in knowledge to be identified.

Time and permission from the schools were constraints in the number and frequency of observations I carried out. From my perspective, I was a practicing headteacher

and unable to set aside more time out of my own school. From the perspective of the host schools, allowing people to spend time in classrooms has the potential to disrupt students. It was not surprising that one headteacher refused me permission to observe. Therefore, more studies could be carried out to improve the reliability of my model.

8.4.4 Teachers at other stages in their careers

This study focused on how beginner teachers developed their knowledge for managing behaviour. The findings relate to beginner teachers in their ITE and NQT years. Therefore, it does not illuminate what happens to teachers at other stages of their careers.

The purpose of the theoretical model was to explain and chart the development of a teacher's strategy from their first encounter with the 'problem'. Although my intention was to use it with beginner teachers, the criterion for its design was to chart the strategy itself. Therefore, a further area of research could be to ascertain whether the model can be used with teachers at various points in their careers. A second area of research could then be to use it to find out how groups of teachers at other stages in their careers are developing their knowledge to manage behaviour. Additionally, comparisons could be made between these groups to identify similarities and differences in the forms of knowledge they develop. For example, do teachers nearing retirement continue to develop their knowledge at the same rate, in the same ways and for the same or different reasons?

8.5 Contributions of the work

This thesis contributes to both the theoretical and empirical fields of education. These contributions are described below.

8.5.1 Conceptualization of misbehaviour

This thesis identified two broad conceptualizations that teachers have about misbehaviour. They can conceptualize misbehaviour as a 'problem' capable of producing emotions such as annoyance, anger, frustration, fear, dread or helplessness leading to *self-concerns*. The *self-concerns* connected with this conceptualization of misbehaviour are around the need to 'survive'. They trigger the development of *process knowledge* to meet that end. Alternatively, misbehaviour can be conceptualized as a learning opportunity that engenders *impact concerns* about students' in the form of pedagogical responses. These responses are connected to the need to expand *substantive knowledge* about the students and their backgrounds. This knowledge is used to construct strategies to address those students' behaviour needs, resulting in the expansion of *process knowledge*.

From this, it is clear that conceptualizing misbehaviour as a problem leads to energy and resources being directed to the 'survival' needs of the teacher. Whereas, conceptualizing misbehaviour as a learning opportunity leads to energy and resources being directed to the needs of the students.

8.5.2 Prior knowledge and reflex responses

The findings from the analysis of the data show that beginner teachers can respond to 'incidents' during lessons in two ways. They react in reflex ways to 'incidents' that they have no previous experience of as teachers. They draw on their prior knowledge in these situations. This is done by the *incongruity* of the situation triggering the retrieval of 'stored' experiences. The 'stored' experience that is the closest match to the *incongruity* provides the basis of the reflex action. Following its employment, the situation is 'tested' to gauge whether the *incongruity* has been resolved.

Beginner teachers are taught to reflect on their experience in the way described by Schön (1983). The product of reflection-*on*-action is a plan for dealing with on-going problems, preventing similar incidents from reoccurring or intervening in ways that are more effective. Pre-emptive plans reduce the likelihood of reflex responses that are not in accord with the beginner teachers' beliefs about the management of behaviour.

8.5.3 Beliefs

This thesis found that there is a close connection between an individual's beliefs and their prior knowledge. The conclusions of this study showed that *underived beliefs* formed from first-hand experience had the most influence in 'shaping' and 'colouring' the ways beginner teachers reacted to misbehaviour. *Underived beliefs* formed the basis of the strategies and prior knowledge determined how they were put into practice.

Underived beliefs formed early in a beginner teacher's life can be the most resistant to change. As a result, they persist well past the ITE year and continue to underpin the strategies teachers develop to manage classroom behaviour. Sometimes strategies are based on the opposite of what a beginner teacher experienced (*Opposite Alternativity*). The result is the rejection of the strategy they actually experienced in favour of its counterpart that has not been experienced.

A beginner teacher does not have to believe in a strategy to incorporate it into their *repertoire*. When they find that a particular strategy proves successful, they may adopt a pragmatic view and incorporate it while retaining their original contradictory belief. The result is an expansion of their *process knowledge* and a broader *repertoire* of strategies that enables the individual to be more adaptable on future situations.

8.5.4 Concerns

Fuller (1969) and others proposed that concerns are sequential and evolve in a linear way from *self-concerns* through *task concerns* to *impact concerns* over the course of a teacher's career. They linked this sequential development to career changes by arguing that novice teachers are concerned with themselves (*self-concerns*) while expert teachers are concerned about their students (*impact concerns*). The findings of my study show that beginner teachers can have *self, task* and *impact concerns* from the start of their ITE. Of more significance in the kinds of concerns that beginner teachers had were the contextual factors. These included transitions between schools, particular classes that become difficult to manage, the support given by the class

teacher and senior managers and how useful a behaviour policy was in setting out the systems to be used in the school. Additionally, a beginner teacher can have a range of different concerns about the groups they teach. They may have positive feelings about some groups and negative feelings about the others. This shows that concerns are not efficient as 'global' indicators of how a teacher feels about all of their work or the stage they are at in their career.

8.5.5 Class teachers as role models

Class teachers are the main role models for beginner teachers. They can have a positive or a negative influence on beginner teacher's development depending on the attitude they adopt. The predominant view from the findings of this study was that they are very helpful and useful. There were a number of examples of the negative influences class teachers had on particular individuals. The result was the development of *substantive* and *process knowledge* that resulted in 'dead ends'. The quality of the class teacher that the participants found to be of most use was their ability to describe how they pre-empted or dealt with behaviour. Their ability to demonstrate and 'model' effective interventions and their willingness to allow beginner teachers to try out their own ideas were also valued highly.

8.5.6 Embedding behaviour strategies in the teaching

The most effective approach to managing behaviour was by embedding the techniques and tactics of strategies seamlessly into the teaching. This occurs in a

number of ways. The basic technique for pre-empting potential problems was embedding it in the instructions for particular tasks. For example, one participant gave the behaviour direction first when she asked:

"*Raise your hand* if you can tell me the answer to this…"

The whole strategy can be embedded in order to tackle a wider problem in a class. An example of this was Ann's 'chain of students' and insisting that answers were prefaced with "I want to challenge…" or "I want to support…"

8.5.7 The theoretical model

The theoretical model makes a contribution to the knowledge. It builds on the other models described in chapter 4, by providing a theoretical explanation of the different stages of the response that a beginner teacher makes from a reflex reaction within single contexts though to sophisticated plans for pre-empting behaviour in a number of contexts. The model provides a way of understanding how beginner teachers deal with transitions between schools, how they develop their knowledge within a culture of performativity and why both *substantive* and *process knowledge* are required in the development of strategies for managing classroom behaviour.

A beginner teacher's development of knowledge is subject to the structuring influences of the contexts where they work. This thesis contributes a range of factors that when used in conjunction with the theoretical model, can indicate both the *agency* to act and the *growth* in knowledge that occurs.

8.5.8 Studies over time

Most of the studies I reviewed in chapter 2 of this thesis were of the single-contact kind. The research methodologies employed resulted in collection of one set of data from the participants. This was either retrospective in that the participants were asked to recount experiences or respond to questions about events or feelings they had at an earlier time. Alternatively, the studies yielded data of actual events as they took place. An example of this is the observation of a lesson or a student's behaviour as they performed a set task.

The longitudinal studies that were reviewed such as Hobson' *et al's Becoming a teacher* study (2009), were not solely about the management of classroom behaviour. Furthermore, none of them were specifically about how beginner teachers developed the different kinds of knowledge necessary for constructing strategies to manage classroom behaviour.

Therefore, my study makes an original contribution to the empirical field of education by providing insights into the changes and developments of beginner teachers' knowledge to manage classroom behaviour that took place over an extended period of time.

8.6 Implications for practice

In chapter 4, I described how the participants of this study were pinpointed in space using Bourdieu's concept of *fields* (1990) and Hargreaves conceptualization of the

three hierarchical levels within them (1995). I showed how the *parent field* of

Education (Grenfell and James, 1998) was divided into the *macro* level fields of

Higher Education and Secondary Schooling. The *macro* level field of Higher

Education led down to the full-time, Secondary PGCE route at the *meso* level. The

macro level was further subdivided into two *meso* level fields - the full time, PGCE

placement field and the first post as a qualified teacher field. The *micro* level field of

Higher Education was identified as the English and Drama PGCE strand. The *micro*

level field of the PGCE placement was in English and Drama classrooms where the

participants gained actual experience managing behaviour as beginner teachers. The

other *micro* level field was where they gained actual experience as qualified teachers

(see section 4.3).

This model provides a way of considering the implications for practice at the *micro*,

meso and *macro* levels.

8.6.1 Reading the research literature

This study found that the participants engaged in little reading of texts and research

literature about the management of classroom behaviour. When they did, it tended to

be books that provided 'tips for teachers'. As a result, they lacked the understanding

of the principles that underpinned their strategies.

At the *macro* level, the current Government has proposed that teaching should

become a Masters' level profession. This could resolve the issue because teachers

would engage with the literature to design action-research projects as part of the degree. The course could include teaching them how to develop pedagogical approaches based on *substantive knowledge* and research rather than 'common sense' based on inherited traditions. They could also be taught to develop the products of their experience and action-research projects into *schemas* using a model like the one described in this thesis.

At the *meso* level, beginner teachers can be introduced to the research literature by the university tutors. This will enable them to understand the principles underpinning their strategies and develop deeper forms of knowledge. This can help them become more discerning about the strategies and their reasons for managing classroom behaviour.

8.6.2 Reasons for managing classroom behaviour

The participants of this study began their ITE with views typical of beginner teachers (Hobson *et al.*, 2009) that managing behaviour was going to be difficult. They had anxieties about their abilities and hoped they would 'survive' the initial shock. Like many of the respondents of Hobson *et al's* study, they were critical of the preparation they received from the university tutors. In particular, they believed that they should have been given more guidance and even *toolkits* of strategies. 'Tips' and *toolkits* are certainly useful but the evidence from my study showed that when beginner teachers develop personal perspectives that go beyond acquiring skills, they become much more effective classroom managers. The reason for this is they form a 'big picture'

that includes understanding why they are doing things as well as what and how they are doing them.

Teaching a particular subject requires understanding the theoretical principles by using the research evidence (see Marzano, 2010; Petty, 2006) and teaching students how to behave is similar. Understanding the theoretical perspectives of strategies enables beginner teachers to select those that best suit their reasons for managing behaviour. For example, if they simply want compliance to enable them to teach then Skinner's *operant conditioning* (1968) or Thorndike's *behaviour modification* (1911) will suffice. However, if they want strategies that support learning and enable students to develop the skills of citizenship then the theoretical principles of *choice* and *responsibility* (Glasser, 1990) and *democratic education* (Butchart and McEwan, 1998; Gathercoal, 1998) will be needed.

This can be addressed at the *meso* level by the university tutors early in the ITE year. Doing so will help overcome beginner teachers' *self-concerns* by focusing them on how they can have an impact on their students' development. It will also help beginner teachers develop knowledge of strategies for managing behaviour that are embedded in the teaching in the way Ann and Peter did in this study. The process can be speeded up by getting beginner teachers to focus on their reasons for managing behaviour right at the start of their ITE through group discussion. At the *micro* level, beginner teachers can be encouraged to articulate the outcomes of these discussions

in writing and describe how they will develop *process knowledge* during their ITE.
This provides a written 'blue-print' to guide and structure their development.

8.6.3 Conceptualization of misbehaviour

The conceptualization at the *macro* level extends beyond the *parent field* of Education into the attitudes and beliefs that people hold in society at large. Changing the way that the masses view misbehaviour is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, a number of important changes can be achieved within the *field* of Education to support teachers in the re-conceptualization of misbehaviour as a learning opportunity.

The move of the current coalition Conservative/Liberal Government has been towards zero-tolerance of misbehaviour. This has contributed to a move away from the inclusive perspective of the New Labour governments of the past decades (1997 - 2010) and the expectation that schools dealt with misbehaviour internally. The difficulty with a zero-tolerance approach is that it conceptualizes misbehaviour as something that is 'controlled' by teachers rather than a learning opportunity for students. This can be addressed at the *meso* level in two ways. Firstly, university tutors help beginner teachers to conceptualize misbehaviour as a learning opportunity by framing it as behaviour for learning. This positions the management of behaviour as part of the overall learning experience. The next step is to view misbehaviour in the same way as other barriers to learning using a pedagogical approach. This is achieved by getting beginner teachers to interrogate the causes and the ways they deal

with the situations in order to find solutions based on their own actions rather than expecting students to change (see appendix 2-system theory). Integral to this is viewing misbehaviour from a *personal teaching efficacy* perspective of the teacher believing they can overcome the barrier to learning and not from a *teaching efficacy* position of the problem being outside of their control.

The second way of dealing with it at the *meso* level is through the headteachers of the placement schools. How they deal with misbehaviour will contribute significantly to the custom and practice in the school. Training for headteachers and senior managers could be similar to the approach used by university tutors.

Conceptualizing misbehaviour as an opportunity to teach students how to behave begins with the headteacher believing that the school can make a difference. Helping headteachers view misbehaviour in the same way as other barriers to learning is the first step. Once they adopt the belief that the students can be taught to behave, they will be in a position to influence and advise their staff (including beginner teachers) to do the same. Putting this into practice classroom involves designing plans and special lessons to teach the students how to behave.

8.6.4 Plans for teaching behaviour

This study found that participants did not have clearly thought-through behaviour plans that detailed the students' rights and responsibilities, the class rules, rewards, consequences and directions for the most common routines used in lessons. An

additional finding was that the participants were not instructed in some basic 'techniques' for managing low-level incidents commonly encountered. These 'techniques' include showing beginner teachers how to use choice in their teaching to manage behaviour, tactically ignoring, rule-reminding and re-directing. Beginner teachers could benefit from learning these 'techniques' so they can teach their students how to behave from the start of their first placement.

At the *meso* level, the university tutors can teach beginner teachers how to design behaviour plans including how they will introduce them to students and communicate them to parents where required (see appendix 27). The design of the special lessons to teach the plans can be done in a similar way to how beginner teachers are taught to plan suites of subject lessons (see appendix 28 – lesson plans). Working out the directions for classroom routines will obviously be a little more problematic because beginner teachers will not know the contexts. The way through this is to have a session where groups of beginner teachers develop sets of directions for routines that they can adapt once in their placements. Routines should only have between 3-5 simple, clear directions (see appendix 29).

Preparing beginner teachers for their placement should also include teaching them about the two kinds of responses to behaviour in lessons - reflex reactions and pre-emptive plans. Work can be done to help beginner teachers connect their prior experiences and beliefs to their reasons for managing behaviour and the conceptualization of misbehaviour as a learning opportunity. The theoretical model

described in chapter 4 of this study can be used to provide a way of understanding these connections.

A university session can be used to help beginner teachers think about the kinds of common situations they would encounter and be expected to manage. This session could include role-playing how they will deal with various kinds of incidents and recording the steps of the interventions. Some situations will be simply resolved using one or more of the basic 'techniques'. The more complex ones will need a detailed plan, which should be discussed with the other beginner teachers in the group. Care should be taken to ensure the beginner teachers understand these are pre-emptive plans so changes will be needed once they have been tested in practice. The reflective process is used to make changes with the help of either the school-based mentor, class teacher or the university tutor.

The suggestions described above will take place outside of the context. The school-based mentor and class teacher should be made aware of this preparation being done in the university. They should be trained in helping the beginner teachers adapt their behaviour plans, special lessons and directions for routines to the customs and practices of the school. In particular, they should ensure the beginner teachers use the rewards and consequences correctly. They will also need to understand the levels of responses so they know what they are expected to deal with themselves and when to refer the student to the next level. The findings of this study indicated that this information was usually given by the class teacher and varied from school to school.

Therefore, the appropriate training may be required to ensure class teachers are able to fulfil this role.

8.6.5 Transitions

Finally, one of the key findings from my study that has implications for practice at all levels is the slow-down or pause in the development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour that occurred as the participants moved from one placement school to the next. Although it appears to present a disadvantage, the long-term, cumulative effect was the expansion of knowledge of teaching methods and strategies for managing behaviour that assisted them. A further advantage of multi-placements was that the participants began to form schemas by adapting their strategies to the new contexts.

The slow-down between placements is an example of the *knowing-doing gap* (Pfeffer and Sutton, 2000). It is caused because beginner teachers need to acquire new *substantive knowledge* of the school ethos, the people and the systems. They also need to gain new *process knowledge* of the methods that make up the customs and practices of the schools.

This study provides evidence that changing schools results in a period of adjustment. Although the impact of the change is inevitable, the time needed can be reduced to minimize the effects on the students and beginner teachers involved. This can be addressed at all the levels within the *field* of Education. Firstly, Government can

decide whether beginner teachers need to change schools. A number of the new routes into teaching in England such as *Teach First*, *School Direct* and some part-time PGCE programmes differ from the university based, full-time PGCEs. They have a greater degree of autonomy to decide what beginner teachers do in their second placements. Most require beginner teachers to do some teaching but generally, they complete a number of research-type projects that range from a few days to up to two weeks in duration. These projects enable beginner teachers to expand their *substantive knowledge* of the schools and gain *process knowledge* of different methods. The reduced time spent teaching limits any negative impact on the students and minimizes the slow-down effect of transitions. The disadvantage of shorter second placements with less or no teaching is that beginner teachers are not 'forced' to develop schemas for managing behaviour in the new contexts in the way the participants did in my study. However, some beginner teachers may use their new knowledge to develop schemas as the need arises but this cannot be guaranteed and I have no empirical evidence of it because these teacher preparation programmes were not part of my study. Therefore, the question of whether to have a second extended duration, teaching placement remains to be addressed by further research.

The university tutors can reduce the effects of transition at the *meso* level by providing the skills beginner teachers will need to get to know the new schools. This begins with helping them analyze or understand student progress data to identify connections between underperformance and misbehaviour. The next step is observing the classes to be taught to see how vulnerable students act and how the teachers

intervene. University tutors can help beginner teachers with the observations by providing aspects to focus on such as entry/exit procedures, changes between activities, protocols for discussions, routines for resource distribution and setting homework as well as techniques for dealing with incidents. Departments within schools may differ in their approaches to these things. Therefore, beginner teachers need to be alerted to the potential for difference if they are teaching in more than one department.

The files of vulnerable students usually include information about barriers to learning caused by factors external to the school. The files may contain copies of Individual Education Plans (IEPs). The university tutor can draw the beginner teachers' attention to IEPs as documents that set out how a school is addressing the specific learning needs of the students. Beginner teachers should be made aware that IEPs can vary considerably and may not include much detail about strategies for dealing with misbehaviour arising from the main barrier to learning such as reading ability.

The last part of the process involves emphasizing to the beginner teachers the need to have behaviour plans, directions for routines, special lessons to teach them and pre-emptive, intervention strategies. They should also ensure beginner teachers seek advice from other teachers about differentiating the syllabus for vulnerable students.

Addressing the transition issue at the *meso* level in the school can be done in the following ways. Teaching schools and placement schools need to flesh-out the

beginner teachers' strategies formed in the universities prior to beginning their next placements or first teaching posts. This should be done by the school staff by providing data and information about the students (Fisherman *et al.*, 2003; Timperley, 2011). The staff need to be made aware of the preparation done by the university tutors on transition. The headteacher will benefit from training in strategies for reducing the slow-down effect. This can include the design of induction programmes that involve the process for analyzing school data.

The school-based mentors should be trained to help the beginner teachers identify vulnerable students and develop plans to assist them. Finally, beginner teachers should be encouraged to evaluate their induction at the end of the placement so the school can utilize the feedback to improve their procedures.

At the *micro* level, beginner teachers should recognize that transitions can be stressful resulting in a reversion to *self-concerns*. They need to re-focus their concerns on the students' needs as this study has shown, to speed up the development of the kind of knowledge necessary to overcome the negative effects of transition.

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September 2013

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Glossary of Terms

ADHD   Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

A-Level   Advanced Level Certificate of Education (usually taken in Year 13)

BT   Beginner teacher

CATE   Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education

C & G   Qualification awarded by the City an Guilds examination board and based upon practical competence of vocational trades

CSE   Certificate of Secondary Education (usually taken at Secondary Modern Schools in Year 11)

DFE   Department for Education

DfEE   Department for Education and Employment

DfES   Department for Education and Skills

HEI   Higher Education Institutions

HMI   Her Majesty's Inspectorate

GCE   General Certificate of Education (usually taken in Year 11)

GTC   General Teaching Council

GTP   Graduate Teacher Programme

IEP   Individual Education Plan

ITT   Initial Teacher Training

LA   Local Authority (previously known as LEA – Local Education Authority)

MOTE   Modes of Teacher Education

NAHT   National Association for Headteachers

NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
NUT	National Union of Teachers
OCD	Obsessive-compulsive Disorder
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
PGCE	Post-Graduate Certificate in Education
PRU	Pupil Referral Unit
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
SCITT	School Centred Initial Teacher Training
SEBD	Social, Emotional and Behavioural Disorder
SEN	Special Educational Needs
TDA	Training and Development Agency
TTA	Teacher Training Agency

Appendix 2 A description of System Theory to manage behaviour

The way teachers manage classroom behaviour at the level of the individual can be understood from three perspectives. These are:

<u>Psychological perspective</u> (within child). Also called the medical approach and requires clinical interventions (Dyson and Stiles-Quainton, 1989; Rendall and Stuart, 2005). Rutter and Graham (1968, p. 73) define psychiatric disorders as "abnormalities of emotions, behaviour or relationships which are developmentally inappropriate, and of sufficient duration and severity to cause persistent suffering or handicap to the child and/or distress or disturbance to the family or community". They do not define it as disease requiring treatment by a psychiatrist. Galloway *et al* (1982) define disruptive behaviour as behaviour which appears problematic, inappropriate or disturbing to teachers. The problem with this definition is that teachers and schools accept different levels of behaviour.

Some believe that disruptive pupils need to be controlled so the majority will benefit. A more liberal approach is pupil-orientated and places the focus of attention on the individual rather than school with an emphasis on treatment (Cooper and Upton, 1991; Galloway *et al.*, 1982). The problem with this perspective is that not all disruptive students have psychological difficulties. Evidence of this is when the teacher or school defines the disruption. This medical model also leads to the child being viewed as 'someone else's responsibility outside of the classroom.

<u>Sociological perspective</u> (external to the child). This is where the behaviour is attributed to factors external to the child such as family background, socio-economic factors.

<u>System perspective or ecological perspective</u> (transactional relationships, circular communication, between individuals with a system). Teachers' emotional reactions to confrontations often result in shifting the blame from themselves to the students, their family, or social background (Pik, 1981). Galloway (1985, p. 97) suggests that a teacher who finds a student's behaviour disturbing is suggesting that their responses are as much a part of the problem as the student's behaviour. Whereas, a teacher who labels a student as *disturbed* can then argue that their behaviour is someone else's problem with more specialist knowledge of such behaviour. This view has traditionally been supported by government (Elton, 1989) and has led to dealing with the consequences rather than the causes of unwanted behaviour by adopting strategies based upon Behaviour Modification (Skinner, 1968).

The *system perspective* based on *system theory* provides a way of removing the blame in order to address the cause of unwanted behaviour and find solutions. Burden (1981) and Hobbs *et al* (1981) suggested that there are many variants of *system theory* and identified five.

Dyson and Stiles-Quainton (1989) proposed that the variant of *system theory* of most use in schools arose from a study of the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric Company (USA). The findings were very useful in revealing how individuals functioned in furthering the goals of the organisation, but less useful in describing the inter-relationships between behaviour of individuals and the organisation. Dyson and Stiles-Quainton argue that the behaviour of an individual within an organisation can only be understood by considering all the other parts of the system.

System theory originated from two schools of thinking - Cybernetics and general *systems theory* (Von Bertalanffy, 1968). He proposed that the system is maintained in a steady state. All systems have goals. Actions that move the organisation towards its goals are described as *functional*, actions preventing achievement of goals as *dysfunctional*. Systems contain sub-systems that are interdependent in helping an organisation achieve its goals. A sub-set can therefore, help or hinder an organisation achieve its goals. For example, a student misbehaving can prevent a teacher teaching the rest of the class leading to poor exam results and the school dropping down in the league tables (Doyle, 1986b; Mehan *et al.*, 1982). Dyson and Stiles-Quainton (1989) point to the benefit of a *system theory* approach as a way of analyzing the specific dysfunction in the system, identifying a solution and making it functional again. Application in a school would be to turn misbehaviour into learning (not into behaviour for its own sake). *System theory* provides the methodology for arriving at such a solution (Douglas, 1981, p. 64).

Critics of *system theory* argue that it is flawed because the goals of organisations should not be prioritized over the goals of the individuals (Silverman, 1970). Dyson and Stiles-Quainton (1989, p. 114) suggest that the *system theory* approach is perceived naively when it is used by organisations in a "simplistic and mechanistic way with the aim of creating more efficient-that is more profitable-industrial concerns." Goldenberg and Goldenberg (1996) warned that if *system theory* is not tightly defined it leads to many different interpretations and confusion resulting in devaluation of the theory. Constantine (1986) argues that this is because the original concept of *system theory* has been undermined by a failure to adhere to the original definitions (Souter, 2001).

System theory has been used successfully in family therapy (Douglas, 1981). Advantages of it over purely psychodynamic approach (involving clinical specialists working with a child) and the behavioural modification approach (that requires a strict control of the child's environment e.g. a PRU or EBD school) are that it can be utilized within a culture of inclusion, e.g. within the home (family therapy) or the school (Barrow, 1995).

A *system perspective* involves looking at the transactional processes between all the individuals in the system (teacher and the students in the class). The form that *system theory* takes when used in the field of behaviour therapy was first put forward by Bateson (1972). He suggested that one event influences the next, which then influences the next and so on. He called this circular causality. Any behavioural

problems are susceptible to circular causality and therefore can also be resolved by intervening and breaking the cycle.

Dyson and Stiles-Quainton (1989, p. 144) and Shuttleworth (1983, p. 115) describe the *system theory* approach as value-free. It changes the question from 'who is to blame' to 'what is the source of dysfunction in the system?' There is an acknowledgement that the whole system or sub-system is becoming dysfunctional. The result is the search for a solution/action to correct the system rather than the child.

Classroom behaviour problems solved in the 'here and now' by interventions in the classroom ecosystem are called *simple*. Problems involving interventions outside of 'here and now' such as classroom behaviour solved using family therapy are called *complex*.

Not all systems are the same and so what is dysfunctional for one may be normal for a another, e.g. accessing resources in class, as part of developing confidence and self reliance in one school may be seen as dysfunctional in another where the practice is for teachers to give out everything students need to do a task (Doyle, 1986b; Kounin, 1970; Pollard, 1980). This will be dependant on the ethos of the school. Souter (2001) and Doyle (1986a) propose that *system theory* "…provides an alternative way of thinking about problems and finding solutions but it can do more than that; it can provide a way of generating solutions which are unique to that context and the individuals involved" (p. 39). This is important because is allows the commonly held view that strategies for classroom management cannot be taught because no two classes are the same to be incorporated.

Further research needs to take place in the application of *system theory* specifically in schools in order to legitimate claims for it as a theory capable of internal consistency. What appears to be clear is that it provides a useful, way of understanding and responding to unwanted behaviour from a blame-free, solution-based starting point.

Appendix 3 Becoming a Teacher study research instruments and phases of data generation

Wave	Beginner teachers' career stage	Research instruments	Date of main phase of data generation*
1	Beginning of one-year or beginning of final year of two-three or four-year ITT programmes	Self-complete questionnaire survey	Autumn 2003
		Case study interviews	
2	End of ITT programmes	Case study interviews	Summer 2004
		Telephone survey	
3	End of 1st year since completion of ITT	Case study e-journals Case study interviews Telephone survey	September 2004-July 2005#
			Summer 2005
4	End of 2nd year since completion of ITT	Case study e-journals Case study interviews Telephone survey	September 2005-July 2006
			Summer 2006
5	End of 3rd year since completion of ITT	Case study e-journals Case study interviews Telephone survey	September 2006-July 2007
			Summer 2007
6	End of 4th year since completion of ITT	Case study e-journals Case study interviews Telephone survey	September 2007-July 2008
			Summer 2008

*A small minority of case study interviews were administered outside the main fieldwork period due to the need to arrange times that were convenient to participants.
E-journal data was generated at approximately half-termly intervals throughout each academic year over Waves 3 to 6 (Hobson *et al.*, 2009, p. 6).

Appendix 4 Yin's matrix for selecting a research strategy

Strategy	Form of Research Question	Requires Control of Relevant Events?	Focuses on Contemporary Events
Experiment	how, why?	Yes	Yes
Survey	who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes
Archival analysis	who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes/No
History	how, why?	No	No
Case Study	how, why?	No	Yes

(Yin, 2003, p. 5)

Appendix 5 Basic types of designs for case studies
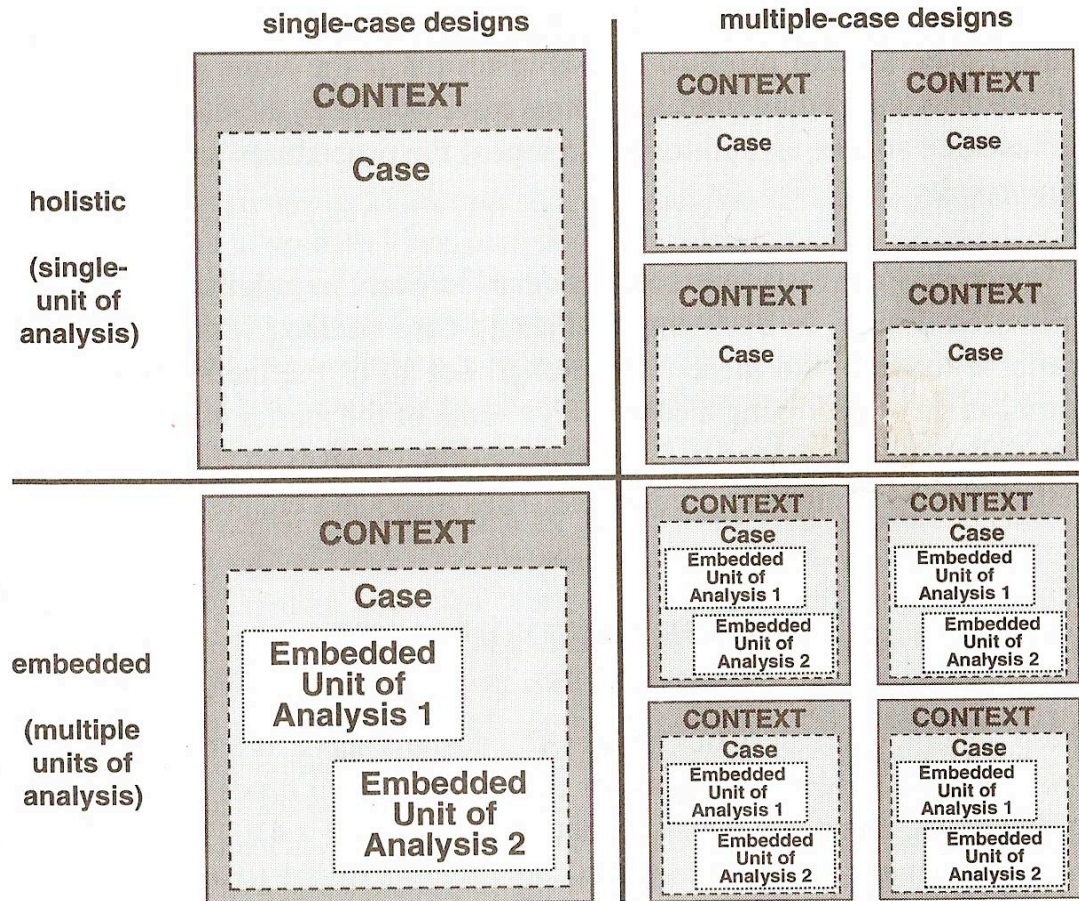
(Yin, 2003, p. 40)

Appendix 6 Patton's 'Sixteen Purposeful Sampling Strategies'

Types of purposeful sampling strategies	Definition of the sampling strategy
Extreme case	The case demonstrates unusual manifestation of the phenomenon, such as outstanding success and notable failures
Intensity case	The case is information rich but not an extreme case
Maximum variation case	Cases, despite having diverse variations, exhibit important common patterns that cut across variations
Homogenous case	Variation between cases is minimized, analysis is simplified and study is focused
Typical case	Case illustrates what is typical, normal or average.
Stratified purposeful case	Case illustrates characteristics of a particular subgroup to facilitate comparison and not for generalization or representation
Critical case	Case that permits logical generalization to other cases because if it is true to this one case, it's likely to be true to all other cases
Snowball case	Cases of interest from people who know people who know people who know cases, rich information rich, good examples for study, etc
Criterion case	Cases picked because they meet some predetermined criterion
Theoretical case	The cases are manifestation of a theoretical construct and are used to examine and elaborate on it
Confirming or disconfirming case	Cases that elaborate on initial analysis to seek exceptions or test variations
Opportunistic case	Cases that emerge from following leads during field work
Random purposeful case	Cases are randomly selected from a large sample for the purpose of increasing credibility and not for generalization or representation
Politically important case	Cases are selected or eliminated because they are politically sensitive cases
Convenience case	Cases are selected on the basis of minimum effort, time and money. They are candidate examples of low credibility, information rich cases
Combination case	Cases are flexible and meet different interests and needs

(Patton, 1990, pp. 182-183)

Appendix 7 Shakir's Three-Cluster Framework

Purposeful sampling clusters	Purposeful sampling strategies	is contrasted to	Purposeful sampling strategies	Purposeful sampling clusters
	Extreme case			
Significant cases	Intensity case		Typical case	Ordinary cases
	Critical case			
	Politically important case			
	Maximum variation			
Different cases	Random purposeful		Homogeneous	Similar cases
	Stratified purposeful case			
Fieldwork determined cases	Snowball			
	Opportunistic			
	Criterion		Convenience	Ad hoc cases selection
	Theoretical			
Priori theory determined cases	Confirming and disconfirming			

(Shakir, 2002, p. 194)

Appendix 8 Information sheet for prospective universities

My name is David Wright. I am carrying out research for a PhD into how beginner teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour.

The study

My study involves following a number of beginner teachers through their initial teacher training and NQT year. The time span of the study is 2 years, between September 2007 and July 2009. During that time, I will conduct interviews with the participant beginner teachers and observe their practice. The aim of the research is to contribute to the knowledge about teacher development by:

(i)   Understanding how beginner teachers use their initial responses to incidents as starting points for the development of strategies for managing classroom behaviour.
(ii)   Explaining how beginner teachers make use of the reflective process to improve those strategies.
(iii) Showing how beginner teachers are combining their beliefs about the purpose of education with their strategies for managing classroom behaviour.
(iv)   Providing a model made up of stages that describes a teacher's development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour over time.

The outcomes of this research will result in a thesis that will be lodged in the university library where I am enrolled and possible published in a journal or as a book.

Biographical information

I have been a teacher for nearly 20 years. I began my career as a lecturer in Further Education. I moved to the compulsory education sector in 1997 as a Head of Sixth Form. I have worked in Secondary and Primary schools, a special school for children with moderate learning difficulties and two Pupil Referral Units. I became an Ofsted inspector in 200o and a headteacher in 2004. I currently work with a secondary SEBD school as a consultant head. I have written 4 books about classroom management, currently in print and provide training and coaching to schools and individual teachers who are experiencing difficulties managing classroom behaviour.

The role as a 'host' University

If the University chooses to become involved in this research, the commitment is as follows:

    (i)   To facilitate the participation of up to 6 students enrolled in the full-time Secondary PGCE programme that commences in September 2007

    (ii)   Provide an opportunity for the researcher to introduce his study to a group or groups of prospective participants (1/2 hour in September 2007)

    (iii)   Provide a suitable venue in September 2007 for the researcher to carry out the pre-teaching placement interviews with each of the participants

The role of the University will finish in July 2008 at the end of the participants' PGCE programme. An electronic copy of the thesis will be made available to the PGCE course leader once it has been finalized and approved by the validating university.

<u>The role as a participant</u>

All the participants will be involved in the study in the first year (September 2007-July 2008). If they chose to participate, their commitment will be as follows:

    (i)   A pre-teaching placement interview (40-50 minutes) in September 2007

    (ii)   Complete a personal contact form and a short written exercise entitled "My ideal classroom"

    (iii)   A 1st placement interview (1 hour) and observation of 1 lesson in the Autumn term 2007

    (iv)   A 2nd placement interview (1 hour) and observation of 1 lesson in the Spring Term 2008

    (v)   Facilitate the completion of a questionnaire for 10-15 students in the lesson observed at each visit

Only 3 of the participants will participate in the study in the second year (September 2008-July 2009). Those who decide to participate further will need to make the following commitments:

    (i)   A 1st post interview (1-2 hours) and observation of 3-5 lessons over the period of a day

    (ii)   Facilitate the completion of questionnaires with students for each lesson observed

They will have the opportunity to read and comment on the thesis upon completion of the 1st draft.

<u>Ethical considerations</u>

The Ethical Review Board for research projects at the university where the researcher is enrolled has already passed this study.

Consent

Informed consent will be gained in advance in writing from the University, the 'host' schools, and any staff involved, the participants (including students). An information sheet like this will be given to the 'host' schools, staff and participants to ensure they understand the purpose of the study and the requirements made of them.

Confidentiality

All names of participants and students will be changed to fictitious ones to ensure anonymity. The name of the university where they are enrolled as PGCE students will be changed to "a London university". The names of the placement schools will be anonymised and the staff mentioned in the data will be assigned fictitious names.

Consequences of the research

The researcher- David Wright will have a current, full CRB and a letter from the University confirming his enrollment on the Doctoral programme. These will be available for inspection upon request by any parties concerned.

Every effort will be made to ensure that the outcomes of the interviews, observations and questionnaires will not be reported in any way that might be detrimental to the participant, students, 'host' schools and universities.

I hope this information sheet is useful in helping you with your decision to become a participant in this research.

<div align="center">David Wright</div>

Appendix 9 Information sheet for prospective participants

My name is David Wright. I am carrying out research for a PhD into how beginner teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour.

<u>The study</u>

My study involves following a number of beginner teachers through their initial teacher training and NQT year. The time span of the study is 2 years, between September 2007 and July 2009. During that time, I will conduct interviews with the participant beginner teachers and observe their practice. The aim of the research is to contribute to the knowledge about teacher development by:

(i)   Understanding how beginner teachers use their initial responses to incidents as starting points for the development of strategies for managing classroom behaviour

(ii)   Explaining how beginner teachers make use of the reflective process to improve those strategies

(iii)   Showing how beginner teachers are combining their beliefs about the purpose of education with their strategies for managing classroom behaviour

(iv)   Providing a model made up of stages that describes a teacher's development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour over time

The outcomes of this research will result in a thesis that will be lodged in the University library where I am enrolled and possible published in a journal or as a book.

<u>Biographical information</u>

I have been a teacher for nearly 20 years. I began my career as a lecturer in Further Education. I moved to the compulsory education sector in 1997 as a Head of Sixth Form. I have worked in Secondary and Primary schools, a special school for children with moderate learning difficulties and two Pupil Referral Units. I became an Ofsted inspector in 200 and a headteacher in 2004. I currently work with a secondary SEBD school as a consultant head. I have written 4 books about classroom management, currently in print and provide training and coaching to schools and individual teachers who are experiencing difficulties managing classroom behaviour.

<u>Your role as a participant</u>

All the participants will be involved in the study in the first year (September 2007-July 2008). If you chose to participate, your commitment will be as follows:

(i)   A pre-teaching placement interview (40-50 minutes) in September 2007

     (ii)   Complete a personal contact form and a short written exercise entitled "My ideal classroom"

     (iii)   A 1st placement interview (1 hour) and observation of 1 lesson in the Autumn term 2007

     (iv)   A 2nd placement interview (1 hour) and observation of 1 lesson in the Spring Term 2008

     (v)   Facilitate the completion of a questionnaire for 10-15 students in the lesson observed at each visit

Only 3 of the participants will participate in the study in the second year (September 2008-July 2009). If you do participate, your commitment will be as follows:

     (i)   A 1st post interview (1-2 hours) and observation of 3-5 lessons over the period of a day

     (ii)   Facilitate the completion of questionnaires with students for each lesson observed

You will have the opportunity to read and comment on the thesis upon completion of the 1st draft.

Ethical considerations

Consent

Informed consent will be gained in advance in writing from all of the participants (including students), the headteacher and staff involved in the 'host' schools and the university where you are enrolled. Information sheets will be provided to all those involved to ensure they understand the purpose of the study, the requirements made of them and biographical details about the researcher.

Confidentiality

All names of participants and students will be changed to fictitious ones to ensure anonymity. The name of the university where you are enrolled as a PGCE student will be changed to "a London university". The names of the placement schools will be anonymised and the staff mentioned in the data will be assigned fictitious names.

Consequences of the research

The researcher- David Wright will have a current, full CRB and a letter from the University confirming his enrollment on the Doctoral programme. These will be available for inspection upon request by any parties concerned.

The purpose of the school visit is to gather data about the strategies the participants are developing. This involves observing lessons. Every effort will be made to ensure that the researcher does not intervene in the normal practices of the school or lessons. However, if the researcher sees something that he perceives as likely to put a child at risk he will seek assistance in the first instance but if it is deemed to be an emergency,

he will intervene as a *responsible adult* to afford care or protection as set out in the United Nations *Rights of the Child* agreement (1989).

Care will be taken to ensure that the outcomes of the interviews, observations and questionnaires will not be reported in any way that might be detrimental to the participant, students, 'host' schools and universities.

I hope this information sheet is useful in helping you with your decision to become a participant in this research.

David Wright

Appendix 10 Information sheet for 'host schools

My name is David Wright. I am carrying out research for a PhD into how beginner teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour.

The study

My study involves following a number of beginner teachers through their initial teacher training and NQT year. The time span of the study is 2 years, between September 2007 and July 2009. During that time, I will conduct interviews with the participant beginner teachers and observe their practice. The aim of the research is to contribute to the knowledge about teacher development by:

    (i)   Understanding how beginner teachers use their initial responses to incidents as starting points for the development of strategies for managing classroom behaviour
    (ii)   Explaining how beginner teachers make use of the reflective process to improve those strategies
    (iii)   Showing how beginner teachers are combining their beliefs about the purpose of education with their strategies for managing classroom behaviour
    (iv)   Providing a model made up of stages that describes a teacher's development of knowledge for managing classroom behaviour over time

The outcomes of this research will result in a thesis that will be lodged in the University library where I am enrolled and possible published in a journal or as a book.

Biographical information

I have been a teacher for nearly 20 years. I began my career as a lecturer in Further Education. I moved to the compulsory education sector in 1997 as a Head of Sixth Form. I have worked in Secondary and Primary schools, a special school for children with moderate learning difficulties and two Pupil Referral Units. I became an Ofsted inspector in 200 and a headteacher in 2004. I currently work with a secondary SEBD school as a consultant head. I have written 4 books about classroom management, currently in print and provide training and coaching to schools and individual teachers who are experiencing difficulties managing classroom behaviour.

Your role as a 'host' school

If you agree to be a 'host' school, the commitment required is:

    (i)   To allow the researcher to visit your school to observe the participant teaching one lesson

    (ii)   To allow time for the researcher to conduct an interview with the participant either before or after the observation (time required - 1 hour)

    (iii) To give permission for 10-15 students to complete questionnaires about their perceptions of how classroom behaviour is managed. Note, only students who want to participate and been given permission by their parents will be involved

Ethical considerations

Consent

Informed consent will be gained in advance in writing from all of the participant (including students and their parents), the headteacher and staff involved. Information sheets like this will be provided to all those involved to ensure they understand the purpose of the study, the requirements made of them and biographical details about the researcher.

Confidentiality

All names of participants and students will be changed to fictitious ones to ensure anonymity. The names of the 'host' school will be anonymised and the staff mentioned in the data will be assigned fictitious names.

Consequences of the research

The researcher- David Wright will have a current, full CRB and a letter from the University confirming his enrollment on the Doctoral programme. These will be available for inspection upon request by any parties concerned.

The purpose of the school visit is to gather data about the strategies the participants are developing. This involves observing lessons. Every effort will be made to ensure that the researcher does not intervene in the normal practices of the school or lessons. However, if the researcher sees something that he perceives as likely to put a child at risk he will seek assistance in the first instance but if it is deemed to be an emergency, he will intervene as a *responsible adult* to afford care or protection as set out in the United Nations *Rights of the Child* agreement (1989).

Care will be taken to ensure that the outcomes of the interviews, observations and questionnaires will not be reported in any way that might be detrimental to the participant, students and 'host' schools.

I hope this information sheet is useful in helping you with your decision to become a 'host' school in this research.

<div align="center">David Wright</div>

Appendix 11 Approach letter to the Course leader (PGCE programme)

University Name
School of Education
Campus (if required)
Address

<div align="right">

My name
Address
Date

</div>

Dear (name),

I am conducting research for a PhD into how beginner teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. My study involves following a number of beginner teachers through their initial teacher training and NQT year. The time span of the study is 2 years, between September 2007 and July 2009. During that time, I will conduct interviews with the participant beginner teachers and observe their practice.

I am seeking six participants who are enrolling on a full-time Secondary PGCE starting in September 2007. I would be very grateful if the **[insert University name]** could become involved by allowing some of its student to participate in my research. I have enclosed an information sheet about my study to assist you in your decision.

If you agree to take part please contact me to arrange a suitable time to meet and discuss the study further. You can contact me in any of the following ways:

       Email: ■■■■■■■■■

       Telephone at work: ■■■■■■■■■

       Mobile: ■■■■■■■■■

I look forward to hearing from you in the near future.

Yours sincerely,

David Wright

Appendix 12 Approach letter to a 'host' school

School name
Address

<div align="right">

My name
Address
Date

</div>

Dear (Headteacher's name),

I am conducting research for a PhD into how beginner teachers develop knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. My study involves following a number of beginner teachers through their initial teacher training and NQT year. The time span of the study is 2 years, between September 2007 and July 2009. During that time, I will conduct interviews with the participant beginner teachers and observe their practice. I have enclosed an information sheet giving more detail about my study.

One of the participants of my study **[insert name]** is currently **[on a teaching placement/working]** at your school.

I would be very grateful if you would allow me to visit your school to interview and observe **[insert name]** teaching a lesson. If you grant me permission, I will make contact with **[insert name]**, who will make the necessary arrangements for my visit. Please note, I have sent a copy of this letter to **[insert name]** for **his/her** information

Please feel free to make use of the stamp addressed envelope when replying to me. I look forward to hearing from you in the near future.

Yours sincerely,

David Wright

cc. **[insert name]**

Appendix 13 Permission letter to parents of students in a 'host' school

Dear Parent/Carer,

My name is [insert name] and I am currently teaching your son/daughter. I am involved in a study into how teachers develop their knowledge for managing classroom behaviour. A part of this research involves students completing a questionnaire about their experiences in my lessons. The responses to the questionnaire will be anonymised and no student names will be recorded.

Your son/daughter's participation in this research will be greatly appreciated.

I would be grateful if you could complete the tear-off form at the bottom of this letter and return it to me [Name of participant] by [Insert date].

Yours faithfully,

[Name of participant]

I do / do not give permission for my son/daughter to complete a questionnaire.

Name of student……………………………………………………………………..

Signed………………………………...

(Name of parent/Carer)

Appendix 14 Interview schedule
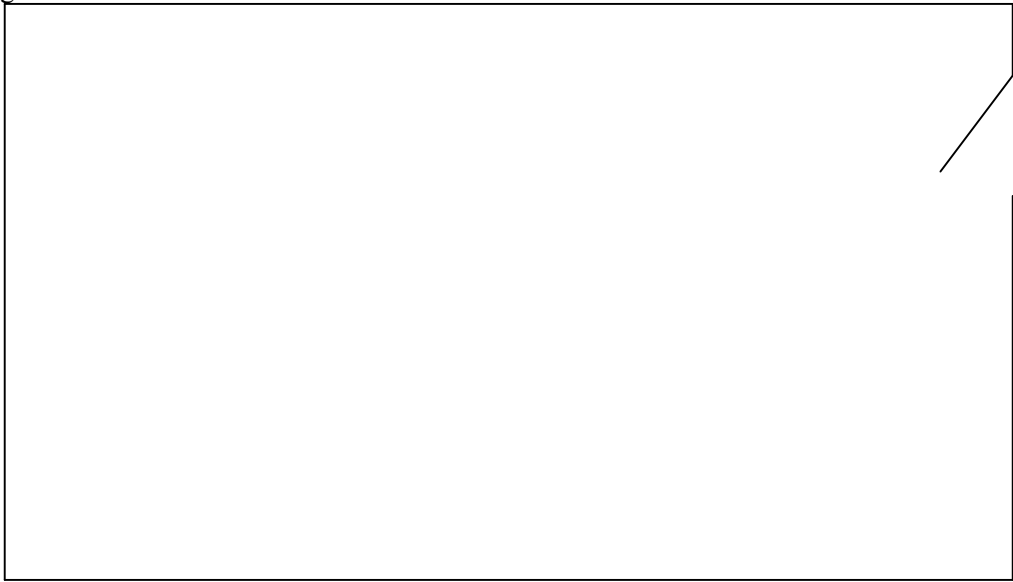
Interview type	Date	Approximate duration	Number of participants
Pre-course interviews	September 2007	50-60 minutes	6
1st teaching placement interviews	October-December 2007	60 minutes	5
2nd teaching placement interviews	April-June 2008	60 minutes	5
Final NQT year interviews	April-July 2009	2 ½ - 3 hours	3

Appendix 15 Observation recording form

Name of Participant	Date	Time	Duration of observation	Subject observed	Class

Number in the class	Number of boys	Number of Girls	Number of students with identified SEN	Number of weeks teaching this class	Position or set in the Year group

Goals for the lessons

Physical layout of the room
e.g.

Time	Event or activity

Time	Critical incident

Reflection

Appendix 16 Participant permission form

Name………………………………………Mr, Mrs, Ms, other…………………..

Address………………………………… Tel.(Home)…………………………..

 ……………………………………… Mobile……………………………….

 ……………………………………… Email…………………………………

Date of birth………………………..……….

Education History		
Secondary school	Dates	Exams gained
Further/Higher Education		
Colleges	Dates	Exams gained
Employment History-most recent post first		
Employer	Dates	Job title

Describe your reasons for wanting to become a teacher using bullet points

Interests

I agree to participate in David Wright's PhD study and I give permission for him to interview me, and observe my lessons. I agree to gain permission for him to observe my lessons from the headteacher, class teacher and the students. I will gain permission from the student's parents for them to participate in the completion of a questionnaire survey.

Signed…………………………………………………….. Date………………………..

(Print name)………………………………………………….

Please describe what your ideal class will be like. Try to make your description as full as possible.

Appendix 17 Examples questions for pre-training interviews

The questions shown here formed the starting points for the interviews but were adapted as and when necessary. The interview begins with a discussion about the participant's reasons for becoming a teacher (see Participant Permission Form).

Childhood

1. Can you tell me about the primary school you attended (how big, where was it, likes and dislikes)?

2. How did the teachers manage behaviour (describe specific events and teachers)?

3. How about your secondary school, what was that like (how big, where was it, likes and dislikes)?

4. How did the teachers manage classroom behaviour (describe specific events and teachers)?

5. What was your home life (parents' jobs, brothers, sisters, where you lived, specific events and memories)?

6. How did you feel about the way your parents managed your behaviour (specific incidents, similarities, differences between treatment of other siblings)?

7. Did you notice any changes in the way they managed your behaviour as you got older?

Becoming a teacher

8. Have experiences of childhood and your own schooling influenced the way you will manage classroom behaviour?

9. How are you going to manage classroom behaviour as a teacher?

10. Which aspects of becoming a teacher are you looking forward to, and why?

11. Is managing classroom behaviour important to you and if so why?

12. Are there any aspects that you are not looking forward to and why?

13. How did you feel about being interviewed?

Appendix 18 Examples questions for first and second placement interviews

1. How has it been going?

2. Can you tell me about the school (size, location, culture ethos, staff, Year groups, sets and topics you teach)?

3. In the last interview, you said you felt it important to develop good relationships with the students as a way of managing classroom behaviour. How have you been going about that?

4. Is the teaching placement living up to your expectations about becoming a teacher?

5. Can you tell me about your relationship with the class teacher and other staff?

6. Can you describe specific aspects of your work that have been going well?

7. Have there been any events or incidents that have taken you by surprise (why did it happen, how has your practice changed because of it)?

8. Is the management of classroom behaviour important to you and if so, why [Adapt if necessary]?

9. How is this placement helping you to develop your teaching and classroom management?

10. What have been the most useful aspects?

11. What will you take away with you from this experience?

University and PGCE

12. What aspects of the time you spent in the University have been useful to you (especially focus on classroom management)?

13. How do you currently feel about becoming a teacher (hopes, fears, areas of development)?

14. If you could change any aspects of your preparation to become a teacher, what would they be?

15. What are your plans for next year (first post as a Qualified Teacher)?

16. What are you most looking forward to when you start that job?

17. How confident do you feel about 'going solo' as a teacher?

18. Can you explain how you have learned to manage classroom behaviour?

Appendix 19 Examples questions for NQT year interviews

1. How has it been going?

2. How do you feel now, after nearly a year as a qualified teacher?

3. Can you tell me about the school (size, location, culture ethos, staff, Year groups and sets)?

4. How much do you think the culture of a school influences how teachers manage behaviour?

5. Can you tell me about your relationships with other staff?

6. What have you been teaching?

7. Can you describe your style of classroom management? Is it working for you?

8. How important is it to have consistency in the management of behaviour across the school?

9. Does your teaching differ between classes and if so how?

10. How do you manage classroom behaviour now?

11. What are the similarities and differences between how you manage classroom behaviour in this school compared to the other schools?

12. Are there any similarities and differences in the ways you manage different classes?

13. Why is the management of classroom behaviour important to you?

14. Can you describe a specific aspect of your work that is going well?

15. What have been the most useful experiences?

16. How have your initial impressions of what teachers do changed?

17. What are your plans for the future?

18. What do you think is the purpose of Education?

19. Can you describe your own personal educational philosophy?

20. What are your views on inclusion? Can you describe some examples of it in your practice?

21. What do the following mean to you:

Burrhus Frederic Skinner   Alfred Adler

William Glasser   Forest Gathercoal.

Behaviourism   Behaviour modification

Choice, Reality or Control Theory   Judicial Discipline

Individual Psychology or democratic guidance

Appendix 20 Questionnaire for Teacher Interaction

This questionnaire asks you to describe your teacher's behaviour. Your cooperation can help your teacher improve his instruction. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME, as your responses are confidential and anonymous. This is NOT a test. Your teacher will NOT read your answers and they will not affect your grades. He will only receive the average results of the class, not individual student scores.
On the next few pages you'll find 64 sentences. For each sentence on the questionnaire circle the letter you think most applies to the teacher of this class.
For example:

	Never				**Always**
He expresses himself clearly.	**A**	**B**	**Ⓒ**	**D**	**E**

If you think that your teacher always expresses himself clearly, darken letter E on your answer sheet. If you think your teacher never expresses himself clearly darken letter A. You can also choose letters B, C or D, which are in between. If you want to change your answer please erase it completely before you circle another letter.

Thank you for your cooperation.

1	He is strict.	A	B	C	D	E
2	We have to be silent in his class.	A	B	C	D	E
3	He talks enthusiastically about his subject.	A	B	C	D	E
4	He trusts us.	A	B	C	D	E
5	He is concerned when we have not understood him.	A	B	C	D	E
6	If we don't agree with him we can talk about it.	A	B	C	D	E
7	He threatens to punish us.	A	B	C	D	E
8	We can decide some things in his class.	A	B	C	D	E
9	He is demanding.	A	B	C	D	E
10	He thinks we cheat.	A	B	C	D	E
11	He is willing to explain things again.	A	B	C	D	E
12	He thinks we don't know anything.	A	B	C	D	E
13	If we want something he is willing to cooperate.	A	B	C	D	E
14	His tests are hard.	A	B	C	D	E
15	He helps us with our work.	A	B	C	D	E
16	He gets angry unexpectedly.	A	B	C	D	E
17	If we have something to say he will listen.	A	B	C	D	E
18	He sympathizes with us.	A	B	C	D	E
19	He tries to make us look foolish.	A	B	C	D	E
20	His standards are very high.	A	B	C	D	E
21	We can influence him.	A	B	C	D	E

22	We need his permission before we speak.	A	B	C	D	E
23	He seems uncertain.	A	B	C	D	E
24	He looks down on us.	A	B	C	D	E
25	We have the opportunity to choose assignments, which are the most interesting to us.	A	B	C	D	E
26	He is unhappy.	A	B	C	D	E
27	He lets us fool around in class.	A	B	C	D	E
28	He puts us down.	A	B	C	D	E
29	He takes a personal interest in us.	A	B	C	D	E
30	He thinks we can't do things well.	A	B	C	D	E
31	He explains things clearly.	A	B	C	D	E
32	He realizes when we do not understand.	A	B	C	D	E
33	He lets us get away with a lot in class.	A	B	C	D	E
34	He is hesitant.	A	B	C	D	E
35	He is friendly.	A	B	C	D	E
36	We learn a lot from him.	A	B	C	D	E
37	He is someone we can depend on.	A	B	C	D	E
38	He gets angry quickly.	A	B	C	D	E
39	He acts as if he does not know what to do.	A	B	C	D	E
40	He holds our attention.	A	B	C	D	E
41	He's too quick to correct us when we break a rule.	A	B	C	D	E
42	He lets us boss him around.	A	B	C	D	E
43	He is impatient.	A	B	C	D	E
44	He's not sure what to do when we fool around.	A	B	C	D	E
45	He knows everything that goes on in the classroom.	A	B	C	D	E
46	It's easy to make a fool out of him.	A	B	C	D	E
47	He has a sense of humour.	A	B	C	D	E
48	He allows us a lot of choice in what we study.	A	B	C	D	E
49	He gives us a lot of free time in class.	A	B	C	D	E
50	He can take a joke.	A	B	C	D	E
51	He has a bad temper.	A	B	C	D	E
52	He is a good leader.	A	B	C	D	E
53	If we don't finish our homework we're scared to go to his class.	A	B	C	D	E
54	He seems dissatisfied.	A	B	C	D	E
55	He is timid.	A	B	C	D	E
56	He is patient.	A	B	C	D	E
57	He is severe when marking papers.	A	B	C	D	E
58	He is suspicious.	A	B	C	D	E
59	It is easy to pick a fight with him.	A	B	C	D	E
60	His class is pleasant.	A	B	C	D	E

61	We are afraid of him.	A	B	C	D	E
62	He acts confidently.	A	B	C	D	E
63	He is sarcastic.	A	B	C	D	E
64	He is lenient.	A	B	C	D	E

Appendix 21 The eight aspects

SCALE	ITEMS
Leadership	3, 31, 36, 40, 45, 52, 62.
Helpful/Friendly	5, 15, 29, 35, 37, 47, 50, 60.
Understanding	4, 6, 11, 13, 17, 18, 32, 56.
Student Responsibility/Freedom	8, 21, 25, 27, 33, 48, 49, 64.
Uncertain	23, 34, 39, 42, 44, 46, 55.
Dissatisfied	7, 10, 12, 19, 26, 28, 30, 54, 58.
Admonishing	16, 24, 38, 41, 43, 51, 59, 63.
Strict	1, 2, 9, 14, 20, 22, 53, 57, 61

Appendix 22 The pilot

The purpose of the pilot was to test the research tools being used to collect the data and the arrangements for conducting the interviews and the questionnaires.

Interview pilot
The pre-interview questions were tested to establish whether they yielded useful data (the final set of questions for the pre-placement interviews is shown at appendix 17). The initial set of questions was as follows:

Question 6 was originally worded as:

Can you remember what it was like at home and give an example of how your parents disciplined you?

A number of problems arose from this form of the question. The participants could remember and were able to recount some examples of being disciplined. Their responses did not reveal how they felt about the way their parents managed their behaviour. Feelings signalled what the participants thought about the treatment they received. This was important because it showed the link between their beliefs about managing classroom behaviour from a child's perspective. The question was rewritten as:

How did you feel about the way your parents disciplined you(include specific incidents, similarities, differences between treatment of other siblings)?

There was also a problem of referring to 'being disciplined' because it produced negative responses about punishment, usually of a physical kind. ;Disciplined' was replaced with 'managed your behaviour'.

Questions 2 and 4 were originally phrased as:

Can you describe what happened when you misbehaved at school?

One participant in the pilot said that she did not really misbehave. The words of the sentence were changed for the next participant and read as:

Can you give me an example during your schooling of the teacher intervening in misbehaviour?

This resulted in the participants focusing on how they felt and I had to prompt them to describe incidents so the question was rephrased:

How did teachers manage behaviour (describe specific events and incidents)?

This focused the responses on the teachers' involvement rather than just what the students did. Note, 'misbehaviour' was also changed to 'manage behaviour' because some participants felt that classroom management was not always about the negative aspects of behaviour. Question 7 was added because two participants pointed out that their parents tended to treat them (and their siblings) differently as they moved into their teens.

Question 8 was originally worded as two questions:

How will you deal with disruptions to your lessons?

And:

What steps will you take to prevent this kind of inappropriate behaviour occurring?

These questions were designed to reveal the strategies that the participants had already considered by probing for links to their values and beliefs. The questions did not yield the expected data and so they were changed to become more focused on the origins of their beliefs. The new question was:

Have experiences of childhood and your schooling influenced the way you will manage classroom behaviour?

The change placed the focus on what I wanted data about – the connection between prior experience and current attitudes. This resulted in the participants giving specific examples of their views about the role. The other change was to combine the intentions of the original two questions into one. This would yield data about how the participants were planning to go about managing behaviour. The question was worded as:

How are you going to manage classroom behaviour as a teacher?

It introduced the discriminative aspect of managing behaviour from a teachers' perspective rather than from the students' perspective, which proved to be more effective.

These two questions were followed up with a question designed to yield data about participants' underlying beliefs of the purpose of managing behaviour. A similar question asked in later interviews was used to chart any changes in their reasons.

Questions 11 and 12 were originally asked as one question, framed in a negative way:

Did you have any anxieties about becoming a teacher?

All the teachers involved in the pilot were already in post and found it difficult to remember how they felt. They made some useful suggestions that led to the question being rephrased as:

Do you have any concerns around the role of the teacher?

This enabled the participants to think about their perceived role of a teacher and what factors might influence their ability to do it well. The use of the word 'anxiety' may have narrowed the participants' understanding of the question. It could have influenced them to believe that they were expected to talk about anxieties of managing behaviour because they knew that was the subject of this research. Using 'concern' may have resulted in the participants talking about the pressures of planning, marking, relationships with colleagues, fitting into the school, and meeting the assessment requirements placed on them as beginner teachers or newly qualified teachers. Eventually, I decided to rewrite it as two questions:

Which aspects of becoming a teacher are you looking forward to and why?

And:

Are there any aspects that you are not looking forward to and why?

These questions brought out the participants' hopes as well as fears in ways that were more coherent. They also led to discussions about their reasons for becoming teachers and some of the things they were dreading might happen.

The final question about how the participants of the pilot felt about being interviewed was very useful in confirming that the experience was useful. Several participants said they enjoyed talking about their earlier experiences as it made them feel that being a teacher was not something they went into lightly. They also said that it was the first time anyone had asked them to talk about their experiences as a child. It had made them reflect on how they acted as teachers now and how their students might be viewing them.

Questionnaire Pilot
Three teachers volunteered to be involved in testing the questionnaires to identify any procedural difficulties in administering it with the students. One was a new teacher, one experienced teacher and one senior manager with a class responsibility. The new teacher was representative of the participants of the main study and so any problems that she encountered might be resolved in advance.

They administered the questionnaires simultaneously in June 2007 to satisfy the requirement that it was not used in the first two weeks of the year. The reason for this is that questionnaire should only be administered once the teacher and the class have developed a relationship over a period of time (Wubbels and Levy, 1993). The

teachers asked their students to volunteer to ascertain whether enough would participate and in all three cases, over fifteen students from each class came forward.

A number of minor problems arose around students understanding specific questions. The reason for this was that they had difficulty reading and/or understanding key terms in the questions. Another reason was that some students had not experienced what a question was asking. For example, one teacher had not given the class a test so they were unable to answer question number 14:

His tests are hard

Some students did not know the meanings of the words 'suspicious', 'sarcastic' and 'lenient' so they were unable to answer the following questions:

Question 58-He is suspicious
Question 63-He is sarcastic
Question 64-He is lenient

I decided not to change the wording as the questionnaire had already been through a testing process. Instead, the students were instructed that they should ask if they did not understand any of the words and the meaning would be explained using examples. In the case of question 14, the students were told that if they had not done any tests to read it as 'tasks'.

Another problem was that two of the teachers mixed up the teacher's questionnaire with the students' questionnaires. This was overcome by changing the wording at the top of the student questionnaire to read - "This questionnaire asks you to describe your teacher's behaviour" and on the one for the teacher to read - "Please complete this questionnaire for how you think students in a particular class see you." An identifier was also included in the header part of the questionnaire indicating whether it was for the teacher or the students.

The third problem was that some students omitted to complete the last page. To ensure that this did not happen during the main study, each questionnaire was checked as it was returned.

Further difficulties came during the actual fieldwork. Some students found it hard remembering which end of the scale was 'never' and which end was 'always'. Any questionnaires that appeared to contain this error were removed and declared invalid. A further preventative measure was introduced by inserting the scale on each page of the questionnaire.

Appendix 23 Coding criteria for strategies for managing classroom behaviour

Reasons for managing classroom behaviour
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Enabling me to teach, keep order, get through the material, speak without being interrupted, get through without feeling angry, threatened, scared of what might happen, break off from the lesson to deal with requests, teach how to behave, do good work, allow students to feel safe, take responsibility, be able to be independent when they are older, act in an adult way, support others, pass examinations, do well in interviews, get good jobs
Keywords or phrases like –
Discipline, survive, order, consequences, punishment, safe, secure, supportive, uncertain, helpful, citizen, adult, choice, responsibility, empathy, purpose, independent, examinations, interviews, jobs, employment, careers, training

Relationship-building
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Knowing the names of students, their backgrounds, academic scores, being able to chat, running extra-curricular activities, being *in loco parentis*, providing support and encouragement, talking in a helpful tone, finding ways that avoid conflict, appearing human and showing emotion, using humour and seeing the funny side, relationships in childhood with family and at school, difference between friend and teacher, being the adult, authority figure, methods of developing relationships, offering explanations.
Keywords or phrases like –
Names, baseline data, background, home-life, chat, get on, understanding, sympathizing, caring, encouraging, motivating, helpful, humour, emotion, friend, adult, authority, aggressive, passive, assertive, compliant, manipulative, dominated, put-down, explanations, punishments.

Self-concerns
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Being able to cope - not wanting to appear inexperienced, inadequate, too young, frightened, scared, apprehensive, running away, running out of resources or time, coping with planning and marking, not knowing what to do, knowing my subject, being accepted by colleagues, dealing with parents, identifying teaching styles that are liked/not liked and to be avoided, having a fear of failure, wanting to be a success, getting it right.
Keywords or phrases like –
Worried, anxious, frightened, fear, uncertain, apprehensive, panic, running away, failure, success, surviving, coping, getting through, being accepted, inadequate, time, resources, planning, marking, assessment, colleagues, parents.

Task concerns
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Pressures of planning, marking, assessment, writing reports, attending meetings, equipment not working, finding resources and equipment, duties, administering detentions, referral procedures between classes, form filling and bureaucracy, checking students' uniforms, expectations of class teacher/Head of Department.
Keywords or phrases like –
Planning, marking, assessment, reports, meetings, equipment, photocopier, interactive white board, computers, resources, equipment, duties, time, detention, forms, bureaucracy, timetables, uniform, expectations.

Impact concerns
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Descriptions of approaches to help students to succeed, accounts of psychological difficulties that particular students have that they know about, stories about students' home life that is having an impact on their learning, successes of students or classes, strategies to help students behave, stay on task, strategies like move seats or exit the class if needed, strategies like time-out, cooling off and tactically ignoring unwanted behaviour, teaching students - to learn how to behave, make choices, take responsibility for their behaviour, aims – pass tests and examinations, become good citizens, act like adults, understand that they have choices with consequences.
Keywords or phrases like –
Succeed, difficulty, home, parents, behave, unwanted behaviour, task, seat, exit, cool-off, time-out, tactically ignore, model, example, choices, responsibility, consequences, tests, examinations, citizen.

Using praise to encourage and motivate students
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Effort is highlighted and praised, descriptions of reward and consequence schemes, strategies are used to improve effort as well as attainment, students misbehaving are tactically ignored and students doing the right thing are praised, descriptions of how parents and teachers used positive and negative comments that encouraged/discouraged the participant during childhood, examples of good role-models during childhood, accounts of teachers during training that used positive/negative methods and the impact, showing students that they are valued.
Keywords or phrases like –
Effort, praise, reward, consequence, attainment, tactically ignore, admonish, reprimand, encourage, discourage, childhood, role-models, put-downs, motivate, positive, negative, valuing.

Treating students as individuals reduces misbehaviour
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Knowing the students' names, the participants' feelings about being regarded as special by their parents, accounts of how adults treated children as either individuals or differently in childhood, knowing the individual needs of the students, accounts of achievements of particular students, accommodating the idiosyncrasies of the students, devising strategies to deal with the behaviour of individual students, valuing individual contributions to lessons, making time to talk to students in and out of lessons, getting to know students by running extra-curricula activities, views about setting, streaming and mixed ability.
Keywords or phrases like –
Name, special, different, personality, characteristics, individual, parents, needs, strategies, valuing, like, know, extra-curricular, setting, streaming, mixed ability.

Avoiding labelling students
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Experiences/memories of being 'labelled' during childhood, opinions about setting streaming and mixed ability classes, descriptions of students where labels are used, accounts that seem to refer to an inevitability or fixed view of an outcome, derogatory terms are used to describe a student's academic ability such as 'thick', experiences of bullying or unfair treatment during childhood, rationales for grouping in the class, a focus on the unwanted behaviour, differentiated approaches described, strategies are used to prevent students being ridiculed, the participant may typecast students as naughty or difficult, a 'can-do' approach is used in lessons.
Keywords or phrases like –
Label, setting, streaming, mixed ability, inevitable, thick, slow, simple, naughty, difficult, bullying, unfair, differentiate, ridicule, can-do.

A personal approach to teaching leads to more interesting lessons
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Participants' accounts of how their teachers made reference to personal experiences during their own schooling, the participant does not feel constrained by the Ofsted formula for lessons, the process of learning is valued as well as the outcomes, the participant describes how they work with students to figure things out, the participant is prepared to take risks and try out different things in their teaching, the lesson content is adapted to suit the interests of the students, the participant incorporates their own experiences, views and opinions during their teaching, they let the students know when they are feeling unwell/fragile to ensure that any unusual behaviour is understood, personal possessions are brought into school to use in their teaching, the participant makes students aware of their own standards in order to help them understand what they expect of them, showing a passion for the subject.
Keywords or phrases like –
Childhood, feelings, emotions, interests, hobbies, possessions, stories, Ofsted, lesson structure, process, outcome, work or figure out, risk, try, different, own, communicate, unwell, annoyed, cross, fragile, standards, expectations, passion.

Valuing academic achievement
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Accounts of the value that adults put on education in childhood, academic achievement is promoted in the lessons, students contributing to the lessons are given strategies to prevent them being called 'boffs', merit systems are used to reinforce academic achievement, the participant shows they value academic achievements by using praise and encouragement, identifying what is valued by the schools.
Keywords or phrases like –
Value, academic achievement, attainment, name-calling, boff, swot, merit, reward, star, points, encourage.

Consistency of approach
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Experiences of consistency in childhood, participant expresses the view that students should all be treated fairly, rules, rewards and consequences are applied to all students, routines are used in the classroom, routines are tailored to suit the class or year group, descriptions are given of how individuals are dealt with differently with justification for the difference.
Keywords or phrases like –
Consistency, fair, same, differentiated, rules, routines, consequences, individual, approach.

Good basic lessons ensure students are engaged
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Likes and dislikes of subjects in childhood schooling, capturing the students' imagination with their own passion and enthusiasm, lessons are interesting and relevant as well as covering the syllabus, realistic expectations are set for the students, time targets are used so the students know what is expected, 'scaffolding' structures such as writing and talk frames are used to help the students make small steps, the pitch and pace of the lesson is in tune with the needs of the students, clear explanations with examples, the participant identifies them self as a teacher first and sees the pastoral role as a supportive one, links made between good behaviour and academic learning.
Keywords or phrases like –
Capture, imagination, passion, enthusiasm, realistic, interesting, relevant, syllabus, expectation, time-target, scaffolding, small steps, writing frames, talk frames, pitch, pace, clear, example, good behaviour, academic learning, progress.

The teacher is the catalyst for good behaviour
Interviews were searched for key references like –
Unwanted behaviour is treated as a sign of some other underlying problem, participant recognizes that they are the 'adult' in the classroom, sometimes their own actions may cause problems and conflicts, participant builds up trust with the students so they feel safe to express their views, students will be taught how to behave so they do not have to guess, rules and routines are applied consistently, the teacher searches for solutions rather than blaming the students.
Keywords or phrases like –
Sign, underlying, adult, trust, conflict, safe, express, taught, guess, rules, routines, consistent, solutions, blame.

Appendix 24 Biographical data taken from the interviews

Peter

Age: 40-46 years old   Ethnicity: White UK

Peter was born in Leicester. He spent most of his early childhood in a new town in Essex where he had a happy experience at primary school. He had two sisters, both older than him. He was not really aware of the conflict going on in his home until his parents separated. He was eight and said that he had blanked most of the memories of that time out, perhaps because they were too traumatic for him to recall. At the end of his primary schooling, he went to live with his father in a coastal town in Essex where he attended a local secondary school.

Peter's parents both worked in the public sector. His father was a social worker and his mother a probation officer. He enjoyed his own company and was fairly well behaved but he did not like pointless rules and regulations.

He was one of the youngest in his year group and enjoyed primary school very much. Things changed for him once he went to secondary school. He became interested in music and dance and consequently was bullied and called "gay" by both the teachers and the students even though he was not a homosexual. Towards the end of his time in secondary school, he was invited to go along to the local theatre arts evening class. This led to an audition where he was given offers to study with the Royal Ballet School and the Ballet Rambert.

He went off to study ballet in Belgium but eventually returned home because the experience was too much for him at that age, so far away from home and living away from his family. Several years later, when he was seventeen he re-auditioned for Rambert, was accepted, spent two and a half years with the company and then got a job working in a dance group. From there, he went on to work for a media company before eventually turning to teaching at the age of forty. His first post was at an independent school, which had originally been founded over a hundred years ago as a naval college for boys. After a year, he moved to a secondary school on Oxfordshire to teach English.

Peter has recently got married. He enjoys rowing, singing in choral groups and playing the trumpet in a number of bands. He also still acts on stage occasionally and is a member of a number of groups that regularly discuss the philosophical aspects of education.

Ann

Age: 20-26 year old   Ethnicity: White UK

Ann was born in Essex and had a very happy childhood. She has a younger sister and brother and enjoyed doing creative things as a child. She lived with both her parents and described them as very fair, even when things got difficult. She remembers her mum being more erratic and emotional than her dad, who always seemed level-headed.

Ann had fond memories of her primary school. She transferred to a mixed comprehensive secondary school in Essex. She enjoyed school because she liked the praise she received when she did things well. Once she entered her teens, she became interested in boys. This was often a source of conflict with her parents and she described it as 'teenage angst'. She would throw fits, get very upset and then snap. Such incidents happened quickly and would usually occur when she did not like the way she was being spoken to by her parents. Ann got a Saturday job when she was sixteen, which she felt helped her become more responsible about things.

Ann recounted a number of incidents of misbehaviour at secondary school but felt she was not really a rebel. There were times however, when she got caught up in pranks that the whole class were playing on particularly weak teachers.

Ann did her English degree at a university in London and enjoyed the metropolitan experience so much she decided to continue with her career aim of becoming a teacher. She studied for a Post Graduate Certificate in Education in London. Her reasons for this, in her own words were: "I've had my eyes opened a bit but even being here for a week listening to certain speakers and how they perceive – and how you've got different majorities and Bangladeshi communities and how you have different splits between white middle-class and working class. You have got lots of different mixes and it has opened my eyes a lot and I guess you take it for granted that you are going to a school that has got exactly the same atmosphere as the one you've been to, so I have to bear that in my mind, and you can't take for granted, what people bring to the classroom really, because the classroom may not have the same feeling as you had. You have to learn as a teacher to develop the teaching styles to cope with it."

Although Ann's initial aim was to work in London, she found that her experience at her first teaching placement inspired her to want to return. Ann took up her first post at the secondary school in Essex where she did her first teaching practice. She is still at the same school and is highly regarded by the headteacher. She has recently completed a Masters Degree in Teaching.

Her interests are poetry, literature, and anything creative. She is single and still lives with her parents.

Melanie

Age: 20-26 years old   Ethnicity: White UK

Melanie grew up in a town near Sheffield. She came from what she would describe as a very 'middle-class' family. Her parents were quite well placed financially, which enabled them to give her a private education. For most of the time, she said she really enjoyed it and recognized the benefits that she was gaining from being at a good school away from the 'rough and tumble' of the state system.

She considered her parents very fair most of the time but she did occasionally disagree with them over things, which she believed was quite natural. She recounted one occasion where she had a huge argument with her mother over something she wanted to wear to a party. Her mother thought it was "quite unsuitable" for the occasion because it was "trashy" and "too revealing." In the end her mother said she could not go to the party unless she changed. This upset her so much she decided to run away from home (she was only thirteen). She described how she climbed out of her bedroom window armed with a torch and a can of baked beans. The family home was quite a distance away from the city and involved catching a number of buses. She did not get far before her father caught up with her and persuaded her to return home to sort things out. Melanie realized from that day on that she was quite a headstrong girl and could manipulate her parents when she wanted to get her way. Looking back, she realized that she did not really need to because they gave her quite a lot of freedom.

At school, she occasionally pushed things too far and was usually reprimanded. It was usually for trivial things that adolescent girls do like wearing her skirt too short or having make-up on. She did not see these things as particularly rebellious because all the girls tried it on in one way or another. The school was very strict but she said they usually only gave out bad conduct marks and then kept those girls in detention when they had amassed three.

Melanie particularly wanted to work in the state sector and in London. She did her first teaching practice at a newly opened school in a challenging part of West London. Her second teaching practice was in North London. Like Ann and Nadia, she was offered a post at her first teaching practice and decided to accept it. She is still at the same school. Although Melanie said that teaching consumes much of her time, she enjoys the London lifestyle when she is able to. She particularly enjoys getting out and socializing, shopping in the West End and going to theatres, the cinema and art galleries. She is single and now lives in a suburb of London.

Yasmin

Age: 20-26 years old   Ethnicity: White UK

Yasmin grew up in a rural area between Nottingham and Loughborough. Her parents were wealthy and provided her with a comfortable lifestyle, secluded from the world until she went away to university. In order to socialize with her friends, Yasmin had to be driven by her parents because if she wanted to catch a bus, the nearest one stopped twenty minutes walk up a hill from her house, along a road with no pavements. Furthermore, she had little experience of using public transport or the money to pay the fares. Her only experience of buses was her daily trip on the school bus. She was an only child and her parents were fairly strict in comparison to those of her friends. They were very protective of her and believed in the adult/child separation in that they took responsibility for her and expected her to respect their views and acknowledge that they were the adults and she was the child. This was a contrast to the parents of her friends. She felt that the boundaries were confused in the relationships her friends had with their parents. It was as if the adults were trying to be their friends rather than their parents. For example, her friends described to her how their parents would freely discuss their emotional difficulties with them. In Yasmin's case, her parents did not talk about such things; they did not even let her know how much they earned.

This attitude annoyed Yasmin when it came to things that she disagreed with her parents about. She felt that they should have explained the reasons behind some of their actions like not letting her go to a dance with her friends. Their response was one of, "We are the adults, and we do not have to give our reasons." This affected Yasmin and she decided that the one thing she would do if she had her own children, would be to explain her actions especially when she had to reprimand them.

Yasmin's nearest primary school was quite a distance away and had a very large rural catchment area, which was why she was either driven or had to get the school bus. She went to a large independent all-girls secondary school that was very strict. The students knew that they would be for it if they tried answering back or being cheeky to the teachers. Yasmin signed on to an Associate Teacher Scheme that enabled her to spend two weeks in a school to find out what the role of the teacher was like. She gained this experience in a school in London and could not believe how different the behaviour was to her own school experience. The amount of answering back and rude remarks being made about and at the teachers shocked her.

Yasmin completed a degree in English and Drama and then went on to study for a Masters degree in Film Studies. She also worked to support herself during this time before deciding to train to be a teacher. Yasmin is single and now lives and works in one of the boroughs in North London where she teaches English at an independent secondary school with a sixth form. She enjoys watching films and is the coxswain in a rowing team that races on Sundays at a club based on the River Thames.

Nadia

Age: 20-26 years old   Ethnicity: Black UK

Nadia grew up in an inner London borough. She has two brothers, one older and one younger than her. Her parents separated when she was quite young so she has had to come to terms with the fact that her Dad does not want much to do with her and her brothers. To begin with, he used to come back on a regular basis but gradually his visits got further apart and eventually stopped. Her elder brother started going off the rails soon after her parents separated. He rebelled against authority by ignoring his mother and challenging the teachers at school. He was excluded on-and-off during his first year of secondary school, an all-boys school. The result was that he did not complete Year 7 because he was finally excluded permanently. He went to a number of special units for excluded students but they could not handle him so he eventually found himself out of school completely. Nadia reached a point where she disliked him because of what he was doing to their mum and she lost a lot of respect for him. This experience had a profound effect on her and she believed it was one of the reasons for becoming a teacher.

She went to a large primary school near her home of the kind commonly found in the inner London boroughs. Her experience was a good one and she felt that she enjoyed school, believing the stability and calm atmosphere to be one of the reasons. She went on to the all-girls school that was highly regarded. Nadia always tried to behave but recalled that she was occasionally told off for minor things. Her memory of the teachers was that they were very fair and rarely shouted at the students.

She had always wanted to be a teacher for as long as she can remember and began her teacher training with a view that teachers who wanted to work in inner-city areas needed to have a very special quality. They need to be able to connect with the students and gain their trust. At the same time, they need to retain their position as the teacher, not appear as if they are trying too hard to be friendly to the point of losing the student's respect for their position. Nadia began her training with the concern that she would not be able to develop this quality, and this hung over her to begin with.

She describes herself as a very assertive and authoritarian person but recognizes that there has been a change in the way she views children. She used to believe that shouting would automatically make the students fear her, resulting in them behaving. Her experience with her younger brother showed her that shouting and getting angry were not very effective responses. She developed a calmer, less aggressive approach and found that it worked with him. She commented that London schools are filled with boys like her brother and so she was going to adopt the same strategies with her students when they starting misbehaving like she did with him.

Nadia is single and still living at home with her mother. She returned to the mixed comprehensive secondary school where she completed her first teaching practice to take up her first post and is still there after two years.

Appendix 25 A critical appraisal of the behaviour management theories

Behaviourism-Dominator-behaviourist style
This approach is characterized by a repressive power structure. The teacher believes that he has the legitimacy vested in him because of his status as an instrument of the school. He perceives the students as being subordinate to him and unable to manage themselves. There is little movement for debate or questioning as the teachers regards themselves as having total control. They may act unfairly and erratically and maintain order by using punishments that are unrelated to the action. The traditional stereotype of a teacher as the sole arbiter of the classroom and everything that occurs in it is an example of such authoritarianism. Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs (2000) state that:

> Traditional methods of influencing children have come from an autocratic past where reward and punishment were the effective means of influencing and stimulating subordinates and promoting conformity to the demands of authorities like parents and teachers (p. 2).

Teachers adopting this style in a modern educational system may find themselves in conflict with students who have a different view and believe that they have rights that should be recognized. Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs (2000, p. p. 118) suggested that:

> Many still believe that we have to exert force to influence children when they misbehave. We have to 'show' them, 'teach them a lesson'. Repeatedly 'explain and advise', but at any rate not 'let them get by with it' without punishment or retaliation. Many sincerely believe that these methods have an educational value, nay, are essential in bringing up children and teaching them (p. 118).

However, for autocratic methods to be effective students need to accept the power relationship within the school and their position as subordinates to the dominance of the teacher. This is not the case judging by the number of reports of aggressive acts on teachers by students. The basis of classroom management should be on teaching students how to control their own behaviour however; it is still based on the belief that teachers acquire technical skills to control students (Bullough, 1994; McLaughlin, 1994) and student discipline is still seen as providing rewards and consequences (Jones, 1996; Richardson and Fallona, 2001).

The classroom of a dominator-behaviourist is an unproductive, stressful one where students learn that they are powerless and helpless. Schools that are authoritarian usually "…support traditional behaviour management models that emphasize restrictive and reactive approaches to children's actions" (Stanley, 1998: p. 247). Relationships between students and teachers in these schools are unhealthy because they are based upon the manipulation of students' emotions. Rewards and punishments are used to get students to comply but eventually they lead to resentment and even resistance (Good and Brophy, 1990, p. p. 551). Noddings (1992) suggests that Domination Behaviourism does not serve the emotional and intellectual needs of

the students. Instead, it serves the immature emotional needs of the dominator, secures short term order and allows them to act out their own unconscious and unresolved emotions of anger and rage (Stanley, 1998).

Burrhus Frederic Skinner - Behaviour modification

Edward Thorndike (1911) was one of the first to use this term-behaviour modification. It has come to refer to techniques for modifying undesirable behaviour by reinforcing adaptive behaviour with rewards and maladaptive behaviour with punishments. The techniques are derived from behavioural psychology and most practitioners use behaviour modification methods along with behaviour therapy and applied behaviour analysis. Ideally, an analysis of the behaviour should take place to decide upon the best therapy that will lead to behaviour modification. However, teachers do not usually have training or significant experience in applied behaviour analysis. They use the strategies and interventions without first carrying out the thorough assessments. They usually use it with the whole class as form of behavioural engineering. Behavioural engineering has been used to understand and improve the performance of individuals. It has been adopted in schools to produce higher rates of task completion and minimize classroom disruption through the development of self-control by the students.

> Contemporary behavior modification approaches involve students more actively in planning and shaping their own behavior through participation in the negotiation of contracts with their teachers and through exposure to training designed to help them to monitor and evaluate their behavior more actively, to learn techniques of self-control and problem-solving, and to set goals and reinforce themselves for meeting these goals (Brophy, 1986: p. 183).

Behaviour modification can involve two kinds of conditioning. *Classical conditioning* (also called *Pavlovian conditioning)* is caused by providing a stimulus in advance which causes the behaviour. For example, in the case of Pavlov's dog. The dog is trained to expect food every time it hears the sound of a bell. Once trained, the dog salivates when it hears the bell. Behaviours conditioned *via* a classical conditioning procedure are not maintained by consequences. *Operant conditioning* involves the modification of voluntary behaviour with consequences after the event (Skinner, 1968).

Operant conditioning requires the use of reinforcement and punishment. Rewards are delivered after the correct behaviour is exhibited and punishment is delivered following a negative response. There are four basic consequences and a fifth that leads to no change. Reinforcement is a consequence that causes a behaviour to occur with greater frequency. Punishment is a consequence that causes a behaviour to occur with less frequency. Extinction is the lack of any consequence following a behaviour. When a behaviour is inconsequential, producing neither favorable nor unfavorable consequences, it will occur with less frequency. The terms "positive" and "negative" are used to describe addition and subtraction of reinforcement of punishment. The basic consequences are:

Positive reinforcement-occurs when a behaviour is followed by a reward to increase the frequency.

Negative reinforcement - occurs when behaviour is followed by the removal of an unwanted stimulus that may be unpleasant. For example, in Skinner's Box experiment a loud noise continuously sounded in the rat's cage until it pressed a lever and then the sound stopped.

Positive punishment - occurs when behaviour is followed by an unpleasant stimulus, such as introducing a shock or loud noise. The result is a decrease in that behaviour.

Negative punishment - occurs when behaviour is followed by the removal of something pleasant. For example, taking away a child's toy after an undesired behaviour, resulting in a decrease in that behaviour.

A number of factors can increase or decrease the power of a consequence. The effect of a consequence may become diminished as the individual loses interest. This is described as *satiation*. For example, food will not be a very good reinforcer if someone is not hungry. The biological purpose is to maintain the homeostasis. Being deprived of something causes the reinforcer to be high. Once satiated, homeostasis is reached and the reinforcer's effect becomes lessened (Frank, Seeberger and O'Reilly, 2004).

The time between the behaviour and the consequence can be important. If the consequence is administered immediately it will have more effect. This is particularly important when a student misbehaves. Leaving the response to the next day can diminish its potency. Consequences should be administered consistently and reliably. For example, a teacher who picks up every case of students calling out instead of putting their hand up to speak is likely to see a change in behaviour. A teacher who only occasionally responds will find their authority to will diminish and the students will call out more often. The size of the consequence will determine its effect. Students will weigh up the 'risks' and choose whether or not to comply. The effect remains strong when the reward is received but diminishes when it is not. The objective is to maximize the receipt of rewards and provide information to parts of the brain that are responsible for acquiring new behaviour (Redgrave and Gurney, 2006).

Bryan and Walbek (1970) carried out a number of studies that suggested that the most effective way of modifying behaviour using the behavioural management method was through the modelling of the desired behaviour to the child. They found that the use of didactic methods such as instruction did not work as well because it was often in the form of preaching, pleading or persuading. Furthermore, demonstration of the right way to do something is a more useful and meaningful way to communicate. Baer, Peterson *et al*. (1971) agree and go on to say that if children are taught how to imitate in general, they will copy behaviour that they have never before displayed themselves or been offered any kind of reinforcing reward as an incentive.

Martin and Pear (2007) suggest that there are seven characteristics to behaviour modification. These are:

- A strong emphasis on defining problems in terms of behaviour that can be measured in some way.
- Treatment techniques can alter an individual's environment to help that individual function more fully.
- The methods and rationales can be described precisely.
- The techniques are often applied in everyday life.
- The techniques are based largely on principles of learning - specifically, <u>operant conditioning</u> and respondent conditioning.
- There is a strong emphasis on scientific demonstration that a particular technique was responsible for a particular behaviour change.
- There is a strong emphasis on accountability for everyone involved in a behaviour modification program.

In practice, the approach to behaviour modification is generally applied by assessing with the students involved using the *Antecedents*, *Behaviours*, and *Consequences* or the **ABC** approach. This enables the students to understand how they came to make their decisions to behave in the way they did and consider the consequences of their actions.

A number of issues can arise from the use of behaviour modification. At face value, it seems to provide the ideal solution to behaviour problems because of the 'quick-fix' approach. This over-simplification of behaviour stresses the importance of control and discipline in the classroom whilst ignoring the underlying reasons behind why a student may be misbehaving. The use of rewards sets up a hierarchy of power that does not lead to a position of mutual respect. It places the teacher in a dominant role and the student in a subordinate position. The use of rewards becomes extrinsic to the reason for applying them resulting in them being perceived by the students as bribes. The chance of assisting the students towards adopting internal controls becomes reduced, especially if rewards are used as incentives for any length of time. The lesson learned is that nothing of any value is given freely (Dreikurs, 1972). There is a place for the use of reinforcement during the early period of behaviour modification but overuse can lead to rewards losing their value.

The current national guidance (Steer, 2005) refers to the use of sanctions rather than punishment although the popular media seem to still favour the use of the term. Punishment in the school system closes the door on the very thing that schools are about - education. A punishment can be conceived as the debt that a child must pay back when they misbehave. This 'payment' may well reinforce the need to stay within the rules but also drives the desire to challenge authority underground (Chew, 1998, p. p. 53). The current officially endorsed approach to classroom management by the Government is based upon the principles of behaviour modification (Steer, 2005) and the *Behaviour4Learning Programme*. The emphasis is on control even

though "punitive approaches are likely to exacerbate, rather than eliminate, problems in schools" (Bromfield, 2006: p. 189).

Alfred Adler - Individual Psychology or democratic guidance

This was first proposed by Alfred Adler, an Austrian medical doctor and psychologist. Adler believed that individuals should be viewed in a holistic way by understanding them in terms of the communities, within which they belong and the social and political forces that shape those communities. His approach was based upon enabling lay people to make practical use of the insights that psychology had to offer. Adler believed that a child's life-style determined how they would perceive the world and it was fairly fixed within their mind by the age of four. For this reason, he believed that the role of instilling a democratic view of the world was one that should be shared between parents and the school.

The principles of the Adlerian approach are in training parents, teachers and social workers to use the democratic methods found within a just society to enable children to feel equal and take responsibility for their own behaviour. They are encouraged to use reason in their decision-making and to look for ways of cooperation. The emphasis is on promoting the interests of community over those of the individual, eradicating the twin excesses of 'pampering' in terms over indulging the child and eliminating neglect, especially the use of corporal punishment. The practical methods are based upon the idea that inappropriate behaviour of a child that leads to egocentricity, aggression and a desire for power can be replaced with purposes that will be for the greater good of the community. A requirement for the success of this is a respect for stability and social order through clear rules, expectations and the natural consequences (not punishments or sanctions) that are inevitable. The aim is the avoidance of conflict by reasoned argument and collaboration.

Natural consequences flow from the stimulus without intervention by the adult. For example, a child who stays out in the sun for too long without using a sun-block may get sun-burnt. Logical consequences are linked to the breaking of a rule or agreement within the society, for example stealing someone's property or swearing in class. The process that follows involves an adult helping the child to understand what they did wrong by reviewing the choices they could have made instead. The child then identifies a solution rather than expecting the adult to suggest one. This enables the child to learn from the situation and appreciate the power they have over their own choices. When the adult intervenes, the power is lost. For consequences to be logical, they must be related to the misbehaviour and accepted by the child. When they are not, a change in the balance of power occurs and the effect will be one of punishment rather than learning. The selection of a logical consequence depends upon the goal of the child and may not necessarily seem adequate by the adult who may feel that it should be more severe. Chew (1998, p. 43) addresses this argument of fairness and equity for children who suggest different consequences for what appears to be the same misbehaviour. Fair does not necessarily mean that things need to be the same to be equal. He illustrates this with an example of a doctor's waiting room. The doctor walks into the room and says, "I'm going to dispense equal treatment today by giving

all of you an aspirin." Different people have different needs so using an equal solution instead of a fair one would be out of place (Blamires, 2006: p. 185).

A commonly held view is that the consequences that will be used in a classroom are clearly spelt out to the children to enable them to choose the appropriate behaviour. Dinkmeyer (1987) and Rogers (1994) produce similar sets of guidelines for the effective use of consequences in the classroom. These are:

- Identify the goal of the behaviour.

- Recognize who owns the problem.

- Give logical choices and follow through.

- Negotiate consequences if appropriate.

- Choose words carefully; be brief.

- Avoid hidden motives.

- Look for good behaviour to comment upon.

- Follow through in the future (Blamires, 2006: p. 185).

William Glasser - Control Theory
Control Theory, also known as 'Reality Theory' or 'Choice Theory, was proposed by Dr William Glasser. He believed that teachers were too concerned with discipline and making students follow rules. He maintained that behaviour is inspired by what a person wants most at any given time rather than as a response to an outside stimulus. His theory attempts to explain why students under-perform and provides practical suggestions for how performance and behaviour could be improved by making changes to the ecology of the classroom and the school.

Glasser believed that most of the problems associated with behaviour in the classroom are based upon the various needs of the students, especially a desire for power. He maintained that behaviour problems in the classroom stemmed from students trying to fulfil their need for power (Glasser, 1999). Glasser felt that all students need a close relationship in order to achieve their other needs. Teachers could assist this aim by developing certain habits in their own practice but they first needed to change their own views and move away from the behaviourist approaches that were common in schools.

Glasser identified two types of teachers. Firstly, there were those who depended upon rules and consequences and the use of rewards and punishments to get students to comply. The second type designed lessons and learning opportunities that would provide ways for students to learn and develop their primary needs. The latter avoids the need for a reward system, as they would be naturally interested and intrinsically motivated. The students have some say in what they will learn through a process of negotiation around the content and the methods that will be used. These are often

cooperative, active-learning techniques designed to empower the students. In this way, the teacher secures the cooperation and loyalty of the students, especially when routine or apparently meaningless tasks need to be done.

The teacher can help students take more responsibility for their actions and make better choices by employing positive, caring habits. This is achieved by being supportive, offering encouragement, listening, accepting, trusting and respecting the students and when things do not go right, helping them negotiate differences and find solutions. Nagging, criticizing, blaming, threatening or actually giving punishment had no place in a teacher's repertoire and the use of rewards was seen as bribing a student to comply. The significant principle of his theory rested on the belief that the only person whose behaviour we can control is our own.

Glasser defined the good school as a place where quality work is done. Quality work is work that meets the internal needs of the students while satisfying course and teacher requirements (Henry and Abowitz, 1998, p. p. 159). Students work on subjects until they achieve mastery. They are not failed for failing to learn enough during a fixed period. Glasser's Control Theory aims to prepare students for their place in the world of work. This presupposes that to be a good worker is to be a good citizen and differs from the beliefs of Gathercoal, Butchart and McEwan outlined later, who suggest that students should actually experience school as a democratic society. Henry and Abowitz (1998: p. 160) agree and argue that:

> By both practicing the skills required for associated living, and living in an associated way with others at school, the means of democratic living are made indistinguishable from their evolving end: the constantly fluctuating life in a democratic society. When means and ends are separated, the likelihood for a counterfeit form of education occurs.

Giving students some control over certain aspects of school life in an effort to satisfy their needs does not automatically mirror democracy. The emphasis in Glasser's theory is on quality work rather than personal growth; in students having choices in what they do to satisfy their own needs rather than involvement in decision-making for the greater good in a communal, democratic context.

Forrest Gathercoal - Judicious Discipline
The role of classroom management and discipline can go beyond simply producing a climate for academic learning. It is also a means for promoting reflection on moral action and moral development. Morality is not just about behaving appropriately. "Domestic animals can be trained to behave appropriately, yet we do not refer to animals behaving morally when they refrain from inappropriate behaviour" (Butchart and McEwan, 1998: p. 11). Behaving morally has to include some degree of reflection on what is going on and thought about what is right and wrong. Teachers who do not acknowledge and act on this are in danger of contradicting themselves. The emphasis in the academic curriculum on critical thinking, learning styles and multiple intelligences is in contradiction with a 'behaviour curriculum' that emphasizes a non-cognitive, unreasoning obedience (McEwan, 1998). Furthermore, classroom management methods that demand unreflective, automatic responses or

that create negative climates based upon fear and humiliation have harmful effects upon the mental development of children (Butchart and McEwan, 1998, p. p. 13). These methods teach a form of dependency leading to social apathy, passive involvement, hands-off learning and a blame-out culture. These are not the qualities and values that are promoted in the wider education systems of many countries of the world (Sirotnick, 1983).

Gathercoal proposed that rules and consequences should be used to build a community of cooperation between students and staff in order to keep students in school rather than using them to exclude students. He described *judicious discipline* as a mind-set that sees "…rules as guidelines as opposed to restrictions, and uses consequences for diagnostic purposes instead of for punishing students" (1998: p. 203). He goes on to agree with McEwan that school is a contradiction in that the first real experience students have with government is when the law requires them to attend school. They are then confronted by:

> …a system of rules, decisions and authority which rewards obedience, punishes offences, and needs no justification other than, "I am in charge here" (Ibid: p. 203).

Judicious Discipline differs from Glasser's Control Theory because it seeks to promote democratic principles by the practice of them in the classroom. Teachers have the same authority to enforce rules and settle disputes in the classroom as magistrates and judges do in society. The same boundaries and responsibilities apply to students and teachers in schools as apply to citizens in a democratic society. Human rights can be limited by governments so long as they remain reasonable. For example, students do not have total freedom of speech in that they can talk or speak up for something whenever they feel like it. Their right to freedom of speech is regulated but not curtailed by the teacher to ensure that the human rights of the students and staff as a whole are not infringed, for example, the right to learn and the right to teach unhindered. The role of the teacher is one of a manager of the learning environment that balances and teaches the students about their rights and responsibilities. This emphasis is on resolving differences against the background of human rights rather than one of individual power. Gathercoal rationalizes this as a means of empowering the students:

> When they disrupt the class by talking too loudly, there is much less stress created by asking them, "Is this a reasonable time, place or manner of talking?" than to open up the possibility of a power struggle with the usual demand, "Stop the talking!" (p. 204-5).

The key difference between democratic and autocratic classrooms is in how rules are articulated. Democratic classrooms begin with the premise that students are free and the rules are to ensure the basic human rights of everyone in the class. The intention is that a climate of freedom and justice is not punitive. Making the wrong choice is not something to be punished but an opportunity to learn and grow in knowledge and experience. The belief is that students become more motivated, respectful and independent. In autocratic classrooms, rules emphasize and impose personal limitations on the students. This can sometimes lead to perceptions of unfairness and

even humiliation. Students may learn to comply, often out of fear or they may rebel and become defiant. The net result is a negative environment where they become insecure, lack real motivation and independence and possibly even disengage with school.

Judicious Discipline purports to offer ways for dealing with the full range of behaviours from the low-level disruption to the more complex. Gathercoal outlines a similar approach to that used by other professions:

> Professionals ask questions and their clients do most of the talking. Physicians, for example, would not prescribe automatically two aspirin tablets to every patient who complains of feeling ill. Rather, physicians respond to medical problems with "Where does it hurt?" "How long has it been this that way?" and, "Is it worse when I do this?" Before a lawyer agrees to represent anyone, considerable time is taken pursuing the facts and interests of the client. Without gathering appropriate and relevant information, professionals simply cannot act in the best interests of the people they are employed to serve (Ibid p. 206).

He maintains that behavioural problems should be approached in the same way. The problem should be approached from the perspective of the student. The teacher tries to resolve the problem by finding out what happened, what choices the student had, what were the consequences of their action and then helps them to consider what they would/could do next time a similar situation arises. The dialogue is designed to help the student talk and reflect on what they did rather than becoming defensive. It is a powerful way of giving students authority over their own lives and helping then to take responsibility for their actions. Generally, this strategy leads to an acceptance by the students of their role and judicious consequences that are based upon resolution through restitution can be used.

Judicious Discipline, by its title appears to reflect a society where the natural consequences of breaking rules should be punishment. Gathercoal argues that this is where the justice model should be abandoned in favour of a different approach based upon professional relationships. He describes two approaches that educators usually take when rules are broken. The first one involves deciding how they will confront the student and giving consideration to what should be the most appropriate punishment. This is the 'eye for an eye' approach. The second involves finding out what more they need to know about the incident then considering how to help the student learn from their poor choice and what other things need to be done to affect a resolution.

Gathercoal suggests that the justice model is s a good one for the development of rules that are fair and acceptable by the community but inadequate for administering consequences. In the criminal justice system, offenders are sent to prison, usually as a last resort once all the other alternatives such as fines, community service and suspended sentences have been exhausted. In school, detention is a very common form of punishment. It treats the student in the same way as criminals, by isolating them and cutting them off from the very thing they need - mentoring, counselling and the opportunity to learn from their mistakes in the same way as they would in an

academic subject like Mathematics when they get a sum wrong. Gathercoal asserts that "It does not make sense for educators to use the criminal justice model as the first resort!" (p. 209).

There are two parts to the natural consequences used in a Judicious Discipline system. They both form the discussion that the teacher and the student have about the future and are designed to resolve the situation for everyone involved. The first concerns what needs to be done and this usually involves restitution and an apology. The second is what needs to be learned and how it will happen.

Natural consequences should be linked to the rule, for example, a student who rages and tears down displays in the classroom should help put them up again. The teacher should resist the temptation to exact a greater consequence like making them tidy up displays in other classrooms. The consequence should not harm the self-esteem and personal development of the student. Repairing the displays should take place at a time that does not prevent the student participating in something they had planned to attend. The judicious style is one that combines wisdom with an authority to implement restorative actions that are fair, developmental and lead to students feeling they have control over both their behaviour and any consequences that follow inappropriate choices.

The apology is important in ensuring that all parties reach an understanding. For example, when a student calls another student an unkind name, apologizing to the victim provides a way of understanding why it happened. This is commonly known as restorative justice. The victim gets an opportunity to explain to the perpetrator how the name-calling made them feel. The aim is for the perpetrator to understand by empathizing with the victim. This leads to an apology and an agreement not to do it again. The focus on the feelings of the victim and searching for solutions shifts the emphasis away from the negative effects of punishment to the positive aspects of finding solutions.

The learning aspect of a Judicious Discipline system is crucial as it helps remove any negative feelings and provides a structure for the students' personal development. Gathercoal (1998: p. 211) warns that discussions about what can be learned need to ensure that students believe "…their feelings and opinions are a valued part of the process". This will lead to a "…sense of accountability [that] feels much better to the students than being 'let off the hook' with a lecture from an authority figure".

Returning to the analogy of the physician who tailors the treatment to suit the patient's needs, judicious consequences are also designed to match the emotional and learning needs of the student. Students who behave inappropriately will do so for different reasons and will require individual interventions to help them learn in their own way. In practice, teachers often find they do not have enough time, know-how or desire to approach misbehaviour in formative ways that have regard for the students' personal development or the use of fairness. Teachers are more likely to spend time "…scolding, reminding, coaxing, confronting, demanding, lecturing, lamenting,

conjecturing and cajoling" (Ibid: p.212). They are also more likely to rely on their instincts and accuse a student who they think is misbehaving than seek adequate evidence. Schools have codes of conduct, which are articulated in their behaviour policies. These codes and rules form the professional ethics of the school and will differ depending on their approach (Stanley, 1998). The beliefs about how a teacher should act and deal with a situation and what they actually do in practice can differ, sometimes significantly. For example, it should be possible to see in a school that espouses beliefs about student-centred approaches, responses to misbehaviour that seek to help students learn through their mistakes in the same way as they might learn academic subjects. The teacher makes an ethical response in line with the professional ethics of the school. However, managing the ethics of any profession is hard and needs to be worked at. Every teacher needs to articulate them in their practice so that the students can become used to them. "The lifeblood of an ethical relationship lies in the students believing that their best interests are foremost in the minds of their educators" (Gathercoal, 1998: p. 213).

The age of the students is also significant in the way Judicious Discipline is used. Primary aged students cannot be reasoned with in the same way. Very young children need to be gradually inducted into this approach. However, this research is concerned with secondary school students and Judicious Discipline does appear to offer a viable means of managing behaviour.

Appendix 26 Variations in the development of strategies over the two-year period

Ann

	Pre-placement	First placement	Second placement	NQT Year
Relationships	▮	▮	▮	▮
Personal approach			▮	▮
Strict at first	▮	▮		
Consistency	▮	▮		▮
Praise	▮	▮		▮
Avoiding labelling	▮	▮		▮
Academic achievement		▮		▮
Teacher as catalyst				▮
Seating plans	▮	▮	▮	▮
Good teaching	▮	▮	▮	▮
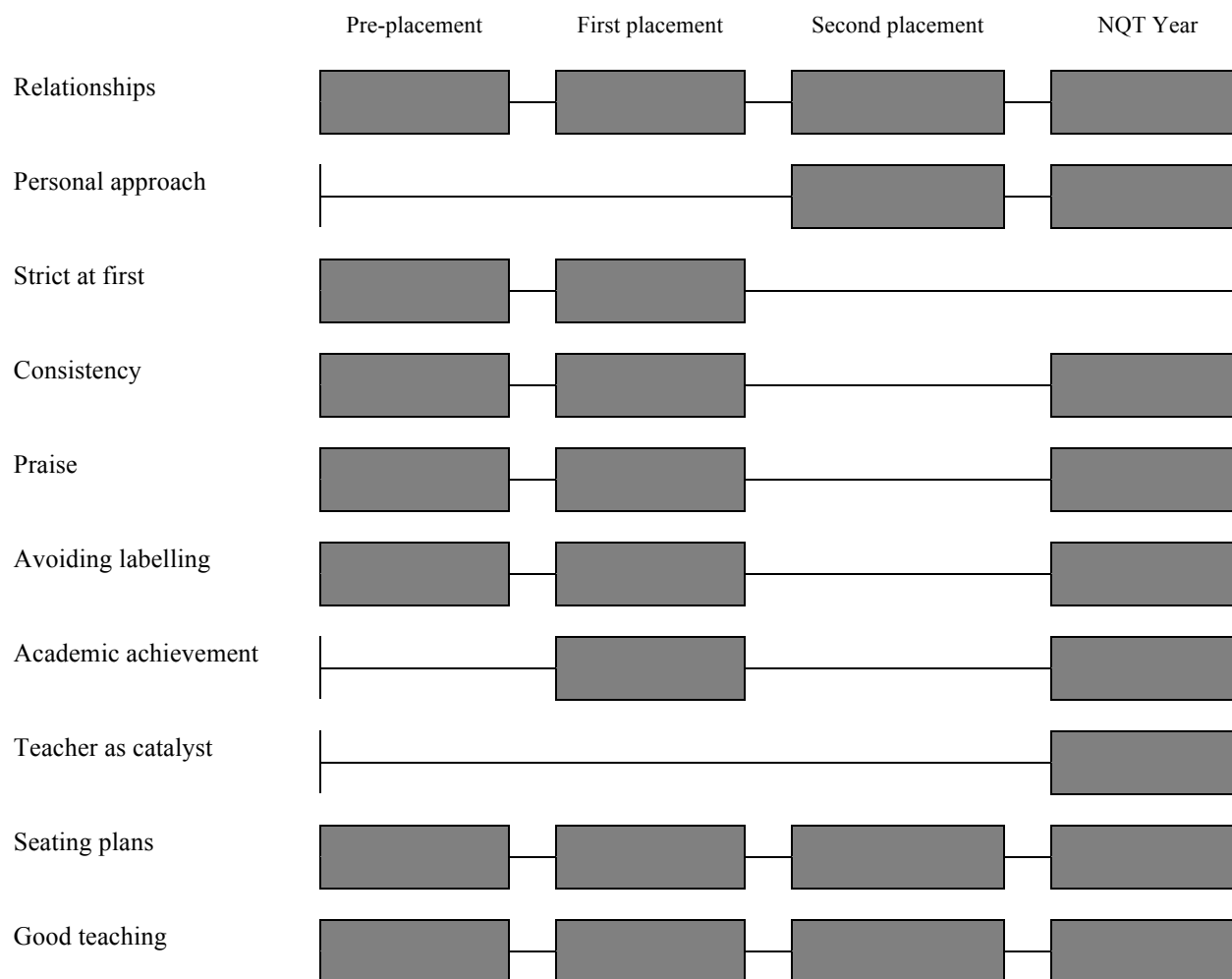
▮ Indicates a strategy developed during the period

Melanie
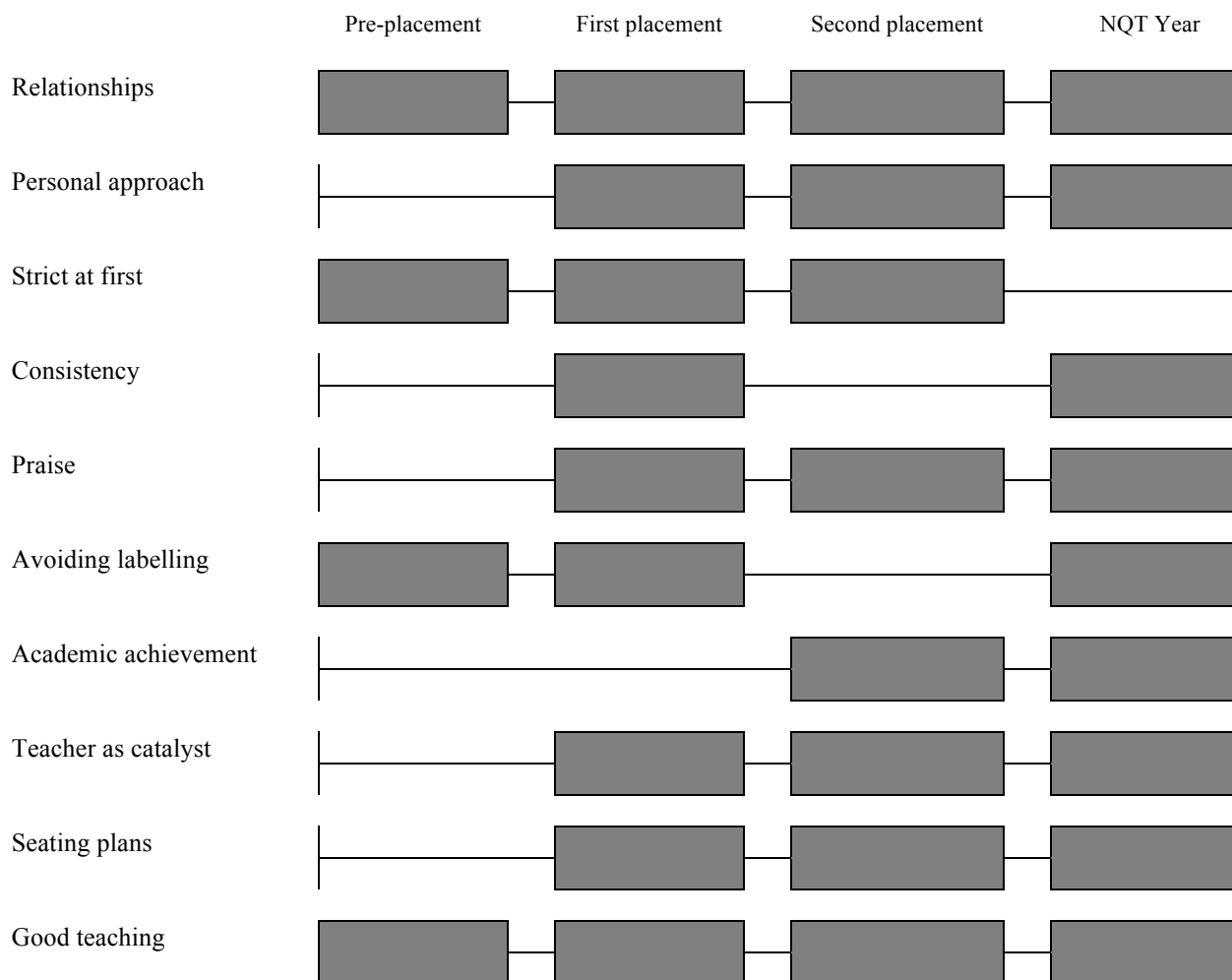
	Pre-placement	First placement	Second placement	NQT Year
Relationships	�	▒	▒	▒
Personal approach		▒	▒	▒
Strict at first	▒	▒	▒	
Consistency		▒		▒
Praise		▒	▒	▒
Avoiding labelling	▒	▒		▒
Academic achievement			▒	▒
Teacher as catalyst		▒	▒	▒
Seating plans		▒	▒	▒
Good teaching	▒	▒	▒	▒

▒ Indicates a strategy developed during the period

Peter

	Pre-placement	First placement	Second placement	NQT Year
Relationships				
Personal approach				
Strict at first				
Consistency				
Praise				
Avoiding labelling				
Academic achievement				
Teacher as catalyst				
Seating plans				
Good teaching				
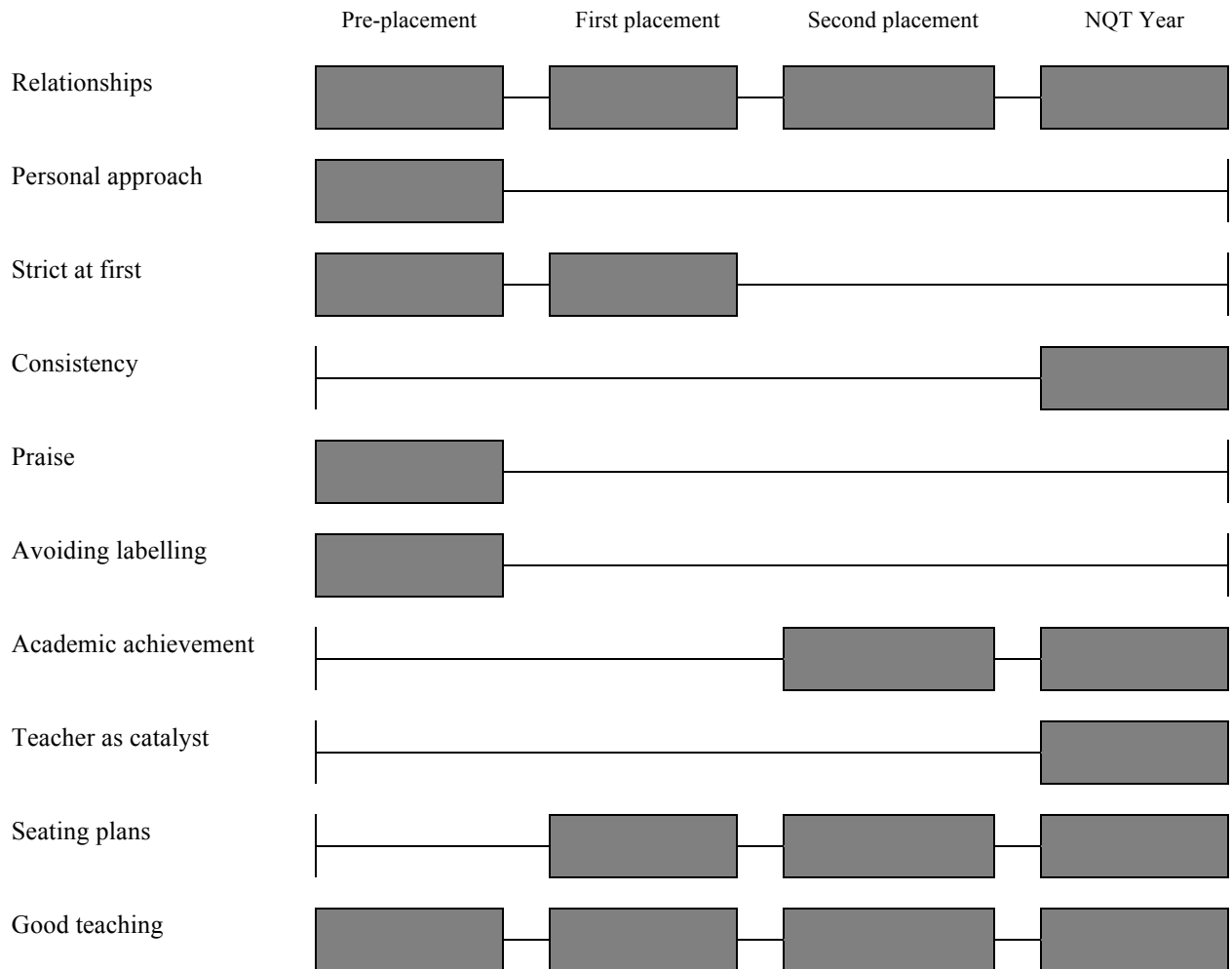
■ Indicates a strategy developed during the period

Appendix 27 Sample behaviour plan for secondary students[23]

Rules
Keep hands, feet, objects to yourself
No teasing or name-calling
Follow directions at all times
Speak in a nice voice

Rewards
Praise
Stickers, house points, credits etc.
First choice during free time
First in line for break, lunch, end of school
Made a monitor
Postcards or letters sent home to parents
Telephone calls home to parents
Have lunch or afternoon tea with the teacher

Consequences
The first time a student breaks a rule:
>   Warning recorded in the behaviour log

The second time:
>   Five-minute time-out away from the class

The third time:
>   Last in line for break, lunch, home or free time

The fourth time:
>   Stay in during break or lunch or after school for 1-5 minutes to discuss behaviour

The fifth time:
>   Teacher calls parents

The sixth time:
>   Begin the next stage in the school hierarchy for behaviour

Serious incident:
>   Sent to Head of Year, Head of Department or Headteacher

Isolation from class
A student who is isolated from the class must apologize and state what s/he will do to put things right and how s/he will behave in the future. A letter will also be sent home explaining why the student was internally isolated.

Appendix 28 Sample special lessons to teach behaviour expectations

Linking rights and responsibilities

Objective: To identify and list some rights and responsibilities of students.

Resources: White board or flip chart, marker pens, Mind Map 1 and 2.

Activity 1:   Discuss the rights of the individual in our society. Talk through the links between rights and responsibilities and the role of everyone within the community of upholding the rights of the individual. List the rights and responsibilities of students and teachers.

Activity 2:   Working in pairs, or small groups, talk about one right from the list and try to find the role of the teacher and the student in protecting it. What do they each have to do to uphold the it.

Keywords: Right, responsibility, uphold, support, protect, safe, secure, laws, opportunities, individual, community, opinions, boundaries, freedom, fair.

Rules and laws need to be kept

Objective: To link actions to consequences**.**

Resources: Mind Map 3-'Rights and Responsibilities', Sample Rules Sheet.

Activity: White board or flip chart, marker pens.

What happens when we break rules? Discuss giving examples.

Activity 1:   Using some of the rules from the last activity, work as a whole class to decide what the consequence for breaking each rule should be. Stress the difference between a punishment and consequence.

Activity 2:   As a whole class, decide which rules apply to the classroom. Agree some basic rules including 'Following Directions'.

Keywords: Right, responsibility, uphold, support, protect, safe, secure, laws, opportunities, individual, community, opinions, boundaries, freedom, fair.

Protecting rights and responsibilities

Objective: Produce some rules for the class.

Resources: White board or flip chart, marker pens, A1 sheets of paper

Mind Map 3-'Rights and Responsibilities'.

Activity 1:   Introduce the notion of rules then, working in pairs or as a whole class think of:-

- 1 rule we have in our country and discuss why we have it. What happens when it is broken?
- 1 rule you have at home. Explain why you have it and what happens when it is broken.
- 1 rule we should have in the school or our class. Why should we have it?

Share the outcomes of the discussions as a whole class and list the rules on separate, large sheets of paper together with the consequences. This will enable the class to contribute their ideas about the rules that could be used in the school.

Activity 2:   Help the class separate rules that should be in force at all times with directions that will apply to specific routines and circumstances.

Keywords: Rules, community, home, school, directions, consequences, rights, responsibilities, stability, laws, codes, conduct, behaviour, crime.

Rules and laws need to be kept

Objective: To link actions to consequences**.**

Resources: Mind Map 3-'Rights and Responsibilities', Sample Rules Sheet,

Activity: White board or flip chart, marker pens.

What happens when we break rules? Discuss giving examples.

Activity 1: Using some of the rules from the last activity, work as a whole class to decide what the consequence for breaking each rule should be. Stress the difference between a punishment and consequence.

Activity 2: As a whole class, decide which rules apply to the classroom. Agree some basic rules including 'Following Directions'.

Keywords: Rule, law, direction, consequence, dislikeable, uncomfortable, illegal, crime, punishment.

Rewards

Objective: List the rewards that the class would value and want to work towards.

Resources: White board or flip chart and marker pens.

Activity: Brainstorm with the class what rewards they would value. Begin by reminding them that their suggestions need to be realistic. Asking for things like a day off school would not be possible.

During the activity you could begin to separate the rewards in to ones that the individual students would get and those that the whole class could work for.

Keywords: Reward, earn, motivate, value.

Consequences

Objectives: To make a list of consequences that could be used in the lessons.

Resources: Whiteboard or flip chart and marker pens.

Activity: Remind the students of the connection between their actions and the consequences. Explain that consequences need not be harsh, just dislikeable and they should be linked to the action wherever possible. The whole class then works together on thinking up consequences for their rules.

Keywords: Rule, direction, poor choice, consequence.

Appendix 29 Sample directions for classroom routines

Lining up outside the room.

1. Stand still in single file.
2. Face the front.
3. Talk quietly or no talking.

Entering the room.

1. Wait outside in line until you are told to enter.
2. Go straight to your place and take out books, pens etc.
3. Put under desks.
4. No talking.

Registration.

1. Sit in seats facing the front.
2. No talking.
3. Answer "Good morning/ afternoon" or "Present" when your name is called.

Teaching an up-front whole-class lesson.

1. Put everything away except pen and paper.
2. Look at me. Silence.
3. Raise your hand and wait till I give you permission if you wish to speak.
4. Listen while I am speaking/ or another student is speaking to me.

Working in-groups.

1. Stay in your seat, raise your hand if you need something.
2. Do not shout, talk quietly to each other.
3. When I give the signal to stop work, puts pens on the desk and face the front.

Art, Science, Technology activity.

1. Stay at your place, raise your hand if you are need something.
2. Only one person at a sink, power tool etc.
3. Clean and put away all the equipment, tools, paints you used.

Class test or examination.

1. Enter the examination room in silence. Do not talk until the teacher gives you permission.
2. Leave bags and coats outside/ at the front of the room.
3. Sit facing the front, eyes on your own paper.

4. If you need something raise your hand and wait in silence until a teacher comes to you.
5. Leave in silence.

Computer work.

1. Stay in your seat.
2. Raise your hand when you need something. Do not call out.
3. Close programmes, return to the desk-top and log off.

Endnotes

[1] I use the male term to make this thesis easy to read and not to indicate particular gender bias.

[2] I use the word 'told' to include all secondary sources including the Media.

[3] A government sponsored scheme for graduates who were considering a career in teaching.

4 Michelle described this teacher as being very clear about his expectations at the start of the school year. She remembered him saying that he did not want any funny business and the class understood what he meant. She explained that a lot of natural authority and was a very big man with a very strong voice resulting in him rarely being challenged.

[5] Ann went into detail about her experience of school as a child and the things she liked and disliked. She described how she was praised for taking great care in the presentation of her work and getting praised for it which resulted in her becoming very motivated to try to please her teachers from that point on. She commented that she still puts a lot of effort into the presentation of things, even now.

[6] Nadia had lived in the East End of London all of her life and decided that she wanted to become a teacher and teach in the area she grew up in. She was very aware of how tough the job would be but felt prepared for the task. She described how her younger brother had been excluded from school on many occasions and eventually he was permanently excluded. She felt she had learned a lot about managing difficult boys from having to look after him while her mum was at work.

[7] Michelle is referring to an experience while working as a teaching assistant in the year preceding her PGCE.

[8] Michelle had been describing how her father disciplined her and her brother, She said he had shouted at them a lot and when he got very angry he would smack them. Although she felt it did not do her any harm, it represented a particular feature of behaviour. This narrative provided an insight into the way some parents can act when things do not go the way they want. His actions do not indicate a controlled approach of discipline by administering the minimum amount of 'punishment' in proportion to the child's action (Foucault, 1975). It is wielding power over a child that some would argue is verging on abuse.

[9] Yasmin's experience of school was one of order and discipline. She attended an all-girls independent school that she described as very strict. So her comments about what students should and should not do were deeply rooted in her own experience of what she had been allowed to do in her own schooling.

[10] Nadia's experience of good teachers was one of keeping order and being clear about what was required. She described the good teachers as being strict at first and gradually softening as they got to know the students. This was a theme running through the other interviews and several participants even used the expression of "not smiling until Christmas" to describe this approach. The coding theme of adopting an approach of revealing things that a participant liked or disliked and telling the students about aspects of their lives to aid their teaching encompassed the idea of being strict at first.

[11] This incident occurred while Peter was on an Associate Teacher Scheme, not on his PGCE teaching placement.

[12] Peter had described an event in his own schooling and several incidents while on the Associate Teacher Scheme that illustrated this view. He believed that students should not have to put up with 'boring' lessons. It was the duty of the teacher to capture their interest and hold it for the period of the

lesson. This 'raised my antenna' to watch out for how he went about ensuring he got the students' attention when I observed his lessons.

[13] Ann began her ITE immediately after completing her undergraduate degree. Although she described herself as a young teacher and had come straight from university and school without any experience of working full-time, she had a commanding presence in the classroom and students did not tend to exploit her age or size.

[14] I should make it clear that although Yasmin had described her school experience as strict which implied that she had not experienced this kind of extreme behaviour, she was not at all phased by it.

[15] This is further evidence of Peter's views about the purpose of Education. Peter, recognized the need for students to get the best qualifications that they could but was also acutely aware of the emphasis on performativity in terms of teacher competence, students results and the national inspection system.

[16] At the time of writing this thesis, the school was one of the highest performing state schools in the country and was regularly ranked in the top five in the national league table.

[17] I was only able to observe one of Yasmin's lessons because the headteacher of the school where she did her second teaching placement declined to give permission and I did not retain Yasmin in the study during the second year.

[18] Peter was a keen rower from an early age and had used his membership of a rowing team to describe a number of his views about Education. He ran a rowing club at the independent school where he gained his first post as a qualified teacher and this is the incident he was referred to in his NQT interview in April 2009.

[19] Planners are given to the students at the start of the academic year. They contain a diary of events, a space to write in the weekly timetable, space to write in the homework for each subject and a number of school policies for behaviour, uniform, external trips. They may also contain a home-school contract that the parent/carers read and sign at the start of the year. When a student obtains a merit or conduct mark, they are entered either by the student or the teacher. Some schools require the parent/carers to check and sign the planner each weeks as a means of keeping a close connection between the home and the school.

[20] The Leading Edge Partnership was established in 2003 by the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF). Its aim was to encourage secondary schools to work in partnership to solve some of the really difficult problems that caused barriers to academic progress.

[21] This is a case from the author's own experience as a headteacher at one particular school where there was no centrally agreed timetable at the time he took up the post. The teachers decided it for themselves. There were a number of cases of teachers not teaching subjects because they disliked or did not feel confident teaching.

[22] In his role as headteacher, the author had encountered a considerable number of teachers who had never moved away from this view.

[23] The sample behaviour plan, special lessons and directions for routines were taken from the author's own practice and have appeared in (Wright, 2005)