Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

# TEACHERS' USE OF CLASSROOM-BASED MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: A SURVEY OF NEW ZEALAND TEACHERS

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Educational Psychology

Massey University, Albany

**New Zealand** 

**Charlotte Nasey** 

2012

# **Candidates Statement**

I certify that the thesis entitled "Teachers' Use of Classroom-based Management Strategies" and submitted as part of the degree of Master of Educational Psychology is the result of my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that this research paper (or part of the same) has not been submitted for any other degree to any other university or institution.

Signed		 	
Date			

#### Abstract

Behavioural problems are a constant threat to student learning and the learner environment, namely, the classroom. Researchers have identified empirically validated classroom-based strategies to support teachers to manage/deal with problem behaviours, but there has been very little research on whether these strategies are used in New Zealand (NZ) classrooms. The purpose of this present study is to fill the gap by conducting a survey of teachers' selfreported use of management strategies, to increase students' learning engagement and academic outcomes, and reduce behaviour interruptions. The present study is a partial replication and extension of a cross-cultural comparative study conducted in the United States (US) and Greece by Akin-Little, Little, and Laniti (2007) to determine the extent to which teachers' utilized research-based management strategies in their classroom. The process and methodology of the present study was similar in that it used the same questionnaire but a different sample of teachers. The replication was an opportunity to compare the US-Greek findings with the situation here in NZ. The survey questionnaire was slightly modified to cater for the New Zealand demographic, such as the racial/ethnic background of the participants and the racial/ethnic composition of the classes. Another change was made regarding the use of "corporal punishment" in the school, which was replaced with the use of "restraint," as non-violent crisis physical restraint is used as a last resort in some NZ schools/classrooms as a safety strategy to manage acting out students' extreme behaviour. The use of corporal punishment was banned in all NZ schools (including Early Childhood Centres) in 1990. Participants for this study comprised 53 practising teachers from a range of co-educational primary schools within the metropolitan area of Auckland. The survey questionnaire contained four sections which gathered information on teacher characteristics, classroom rules, classroom child-management systems, and teachers' perceptions of their role as a teacher, relative to their use of classroom-based management strategies. The results

showed that most schools used a school-wide discipline plan, and a large number of teachers developed their own classroom rules with student input. Teachers' overall reported the use of research-based management strategies (including those identified in the survey), as well as approaches appropriate to the ecology, culture/climate, and ethos of their particular school. In addition, the results showed that there was a greater emphasis on strengthening positive teacher-student relationships and proactive, preventative systems of managing behaviour, with less frequent resort to reactive-consequence based approaches. The results further indicated that over half the teachers perceived they communicated and monitored their students frequently during lessons and could attend to more than one event without undue disruption. In regard to teacher efficacy, the majority of teachers perceived that their classroom management strategies were adequate. These results have important implications for teaching practices and student learning. A comparison with teacher classroom management practices in the United State and Greece, limitations of the study, and possible further studies in this area are discussed.

#### Acknowledgements

Ehara taku toa i te toa takitahi, engari he toa takitini.

*My strength is not that of a single warrior but that of many.* 

This study has been a collective endeavour. I am extremely grateful for the assistance, advice, and guidance of my supervisor Dr Steven Little. I thank you especially for your continuous support and encouragement with my research and for giving me the confidence to persevere with this kaupapa. I appreciate the time you gave for meetings, for emails, for phone calls, and, for your suggestions and ideas for this study. *Nga mihi tino miharo mo enei manakitanga*. I want to acknowledge also the supportive encouragement of Dr Angelique Akin-Little, for your warm and caring presence, your wisdom, your passion, and your positivity. To a special friend and mentor Linda Marieskind, for your generosity and wisdom and encouraging faith in my work, nga mihi aroha whaea.

I am extremely grateful also to my employer, the Ministry of Education, Special Education, Management, for supporting my journey through this pathway and for allowing me the time to complete this research. To my colleagues and friends I thank you all for your active interest and empathic support.

To Clare, I am ever so grateful for your kete of skills, your clarity and focus and for always being here when I needed you. I'm ever so proud of you Clare. To Ernie, this has been the longest marathon ever and I thank you for your love and encouragement and for carrying the greater load to see me through. To the rest of my whanau for your many blessings, your unconditional aroha and faith, kei te miharo, kei te whakamoemiti tonu.

# **CONTENTS**

Cand	idates	Statemen	nt	ii
Abstı	ract			iii
Ackn	owled	gements		v
Conte	ents			vi
СНА	PTER	1: INTR	ODUCTION	1
	1.1	Purpo	ose of study	1
	1.2	Meth	odology	2
	1.3	Theo	retical framework of researcher	2
	1.4	Defin	uitions	5
		1.4.1	Classroom	5
		1.4.2	Management	5
		1.4.3	Strategy	5
		1.4.4	Procedure	5
		1.4.5	Discipline	6
		1.4.6	Classroom management	6
		1.4.7	Behaviour management	6
		1.4.8	Comprehensive classroom management	6
		1.4.9	Kaupapa	6
	1.5	Study	outline	6
СНА	PTER	2: HIST	ORICAL FOUNDATIONS	8
	2.1	Sumr	nary	16
СНА	PTER	3: LITE	RATURE REVIEW	18
	3 1	Sumr	nary	26

CHAPTER 4: AREAS INVETIGATED IN QUESTIONNAIRE			
	4.1	Classroom Rules	27
	4.2	Enhancing Classroom Environment	28
	4.3	Reinforcement for appropriate behaviour	30
	4.4	Reductive Strategies	31
	4.5	Teacher Perceptions of Their Role	32
	4.6	Summary	33
CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY			35
	5.1	Participant	35
	5.2	Materials and Procedure	36
	5.3	Procedure	37
CHAI	CHAPTER 6: RESULTS		
	6.1	Classroom Rules	38
	6.2	Reinforcement for Appropriate Behaviour	39
	6.3	Response to Class Disruptions	43
	6.4	Response to Continuous Non-Compliant Students	43
	6.5	Perception Survey	49
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSIONS			52
	7.1	Summary of Results	53
CHAPTER 8: LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER STUDIES			65
CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION			68
REFERENCES			70

# **APPENDICES**

A.	Participant Information Sheet	90
В.	Questionnaire Survey	92
C.	Ethics Approval	98

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

# 1.1 Purpose of study

The purpose of this study was to examine what New Zealand teachers indicated they do in their classrooms to minimize behavioural disruptions so that teaching and learning curricular can be optimized. In particular, teachers reported use of classroom-based management strategies (i.e., have rules, routines and expectations, give instructive feedback, specific praise, choice and preferred activities, token economies) will be investigated. This study is guided by two questions in relation to classroom management:

- What strategies do NZ teachers' use?
- How do they compare with the US/Greek study?

This study is a partial replication of a cross-cultural comparative study that was conducted in United States and Greece by Akin-Little, Little, and Laniti (2007), to determine the extent to which teachers used effective, research-based strategies to reduce unacceptable behaviour and increase student learning in the classroom. The study was a preliminary attempt to compare classroom-based management strategies across cultures (Little et al., 2007). The use of a questionnaire survey filled a gap in the psychological literature for teachers' reported practice of empirically validated approaches to manage behaviour and learning in the classroom (Little & Akin-Little, 2008).

In United States, the questionnaire survey was distributed to 149 teachers attending in-service training in science education in various locations throughout the United States. The survey asked questions about teachers' use of classroom-based management strategies such as rules, verbal praise, positive feedback and privileges, described by researchers such as Alberto & Troutman (2006, 2009); Kerr & Nelson (2001); Rogers (2002); Cowley (2001) and Maag (2001, 2004), as essential and effective strategies to help teachers better manage the classroom. The same survey was translated into Greek by Laniti, a Greek scholar and third

author of the comparative study, with minor modifications in the demographic section appropriate to the Greek sample. The survey was then distributed to teachers at schools accessible to Laniti in Athens and the surrounding area. There were 97 teachers in the Greek sample. The comparative study was facilitated by Laniti, who was and is affiliated (native) to the language and culture of Greece. The study found that teacher responses in both samples were relatively similar and that generally, teachers reported that they used research based classroom management strategies on a regular basis to enhance student learning and reduce behaviour interruptions.

The US/Greece study provided a framework for the researcher to examine the local New Zealand context to gain a snapshot of current teacher practices in the classroom. The study also catered to a relatively narrow research time frame in terms of the distribution of the questionnaires and the data collection process. The findings of the NZ study will be compared with the US/Greek study.

# 1.2 Methodology

This NZ study adopts an empirical approach (i.e., a detached, objective, structured methodology, allowing the results to speak for itself), in keeping with the descriptive nature of the survey. The researcher did not visit the classrooms to observe and talk with the teachers. However, there is opportunity within the survey (e.g., teachers' responses to openended questions) to gain some qualitative data about other approaches and to report teacher narratives regarding the use of particular models of practice and classroom rules.

#### 1.3 Theoretical framework of researcher

The researcher comes to this study as a practitioner with insider knowledge and experience of the research context, having worked in the field of education over a considered period of time. The researcher locates herself within a cultural or *kaupapa Maori* pedagogical framework which advocates that good teaching should promote values such as,

*tika*, to mean justice, *pono*, to mean integrity to justice, and *aroha*, an unspoken and expected outcome of this process (respect is inherent in this relationship); be holistic, innovative, intergenerational and familiar, and should focus on student potentiality/achievement. (These aspects are echoed in the works of Pere, 2002; Poskitt, 2001; Metge, 2001; Stoll, Fink, & Earle, 2002).

A kaupapa Maori position/perspective is used in this context to mean my point of reference with respect to research, my knowledge base and cultural identity, my world view and epistemology. It is a disciplinary foundation that is inclusive and strengths based and underpinned by the Treaty of Waitangi principles of partnership, protection and participation. Essentially it focuses on raising possibilities for all students and views students' culture as significant and critical in terms of curriculum and the values of the classroom and school.

Advocates of this approach include educational researchers such as Macfarlane and Macfarlane (2008) who talk about 'culturally responsive practice'; Durie (2002, 2003), who talks about 'cultural competence and cultural diversity,' and Castillo, Bishop, and Glynn (1999, 2003) who maintain that 'Culture Counts." The Ministry of Education Special Education Maori Strategy 2008 – 2012, released a working document, "Ka Hikitia: Managing for Success," which is essentially a 'Maori potential approach' and Maori enjoying educational success as Maori. According to Nash (1998), recent NZ research indicates that student achievement is affected by the degree to which a student's culture is respected by the school, and by the degree to which there is congruence between the culture of the community or whanau, and the values of the school. Stoll and Fink (1996, 2003) talk about learning as caring and teachers' creating a 'culture of caring':

Caring teachers expect all students to do well; they do what it takes to the best of their abilities to help each pupil achieve. The same principle of caring that engages pupils

in their learning apply equally to caring for teachers, for parents, for important ideas, and for organizations like schools (p. 192).

The researcher draws on several conceptual models (i.e., theory-based, eclectic, and shifting dictated by contextual circumstances and 'best practice' currency at the time), including the ecological or social ecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1989), the behavioural approach (Skinner, 1953), the humanistic perspective (e.g., Rogers & Maslow), and the social cognitive model of behaviour (e.g., Bandura & Mischel), and/or a combination of approaches (i.e., the cognitive-behavioural approach). Each model has made significant contributions to the understanding of behavioural difficulties. For example, while the behavioural model does have its limitations, considerable research over a long period of time has demonstrated how effective behavioural strategies (i.e., reinforcement and punishment) can be in reducing undesirable behaviours (Porter, 2007). Basically, these approaches were created to support classroom environments exhibit behaviour conducive to learning and have a positive, preventative orientation to classroom management (Porter, 2007).

Macfarlane (2000) maintains that a holistic approach (e.g., socio-ecological model) involving whanau is vital for culturally appropriate service to Maori. Viewing the child in terms of their interactions in contextual social environments is a culturally appropriate model for working with students in New Zealand, and could be used in combination with "*Te Whare Tapa Wha*" model of Maori health (Durie, 2002). This is a holistic model which caters to the spiritual, mental and emotional, physical, and whanau and social well-being of the individual. What the disciplinary models have in common is their recognition that individual classroom management approaches are better understood when viewed in comparison to each other (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Glynn & Berryman, 2005; Gable, Hester, Rock, & Hughes, 2009).

No one model is favoured over another, however, basic humanistic values are adhered to, such as respect for the dignity of each person, respect for the individuals' desire for

autonomy and independence, and an expectation that education/teaching should focus on helping students to reach their optimum potential in any learning context. The researcher has experienced (and observed) a range of effective strategies from authoritarian to authoritative, to teacher as expert and locus of knowledge and control, to teacher as facilitator and supporter in the learning process. What is acknowledged is that there are many different models, disciplinary options, and pedagogical practices (traditional, contemporary, innovative, and in development), available to teachers to support the diverse challenges of classroom management.

# 1.4 Definitions:

# 1.4.1 Classroom

The classroom refers to the physical place in the school where the teacher meets a group of students to interact with subject matter and materials so that learning can take place (i.e. the physical, social, political and intellectual context of the teacher and students). The classroom goes beyond the physical confines of the room to include the total school context that teachers and students inhabit throughout the school day.

#### 1.4.2 Management

Management refers to the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the resources (physical, human) required to achieve the goals/functions of teaching and learning (i.e., attending to the logistics of teaching).

#### 1.4.3 Strategy

A strategy is any action or instruction or series of actions directed by the teacher to achieve a specific task – what the teachers does.

# 1.4.4 Procedure

A procedure refers to how things are done in the classroom – a process.

#### 1.4.5 Discipline

Discipline refers to behaviour (students' responsibility – acting responsibly, managing impulse, having self-control) not procedures.

#### 1.4.6 Classroom management

Classroom management refers to the actions of the teacher to ensure that things get done. It has to do with rules, routines, structure – managing instruction, organizing learning materials and activities.

# 1.4.7 Behaviour management

Behaviour management refers to the use of proactive and reactive strategies to alleviate off-task behaviours – helping students to act responsibly, gain self-control.

# **1.4.8** Comprehensive classroom management

Comprehensive classroom management refers to all the actions and interactions that occur in the classroom from the start to the finish of the lesson. Behaviour management is one aspect of this process.

# 1.4.9 Kaupapa

Kaupapa refers to the subject, topic of discussion.

# 1.5 Study Outline

The structure of the study is as follows. Chapter One provides an overview of the study which includes the purpose of the survey, the methodological orientation utilized and the theoretical framework of the researcher. Chapter Two presents a discussion of the historical foundations of classroom-based management strategies, from a predominantly behaviourist view of learning to a more constructivist orientation where students are at the centre of the learning process and actively engage in their own knowledge construction. Chapter Three reviews the literature on classroom-based management strategies. Chapter Four discusses the methodological process used in the

study. Chapter Five is a discussion of the areas investigated in the study in relation to the literature reviewed. In Chapter Six the results of the survey are presented and illustrated as appropriate. Chapter Seven is an analysis and discussion of the key findings in relation to the purpose of the study and supporting literature. In Chapter Eight the limitations and further studies are discussed. Chapter Nine is the concluding chapter and presents a summary of the study and issues raised for further research on classroom-based management strategies.

#### 2 HISTORICAL FOUNDATIONS

The empirical study of classroom management developed in the l950s from two different schools of thought, behaviourists (Watson and Skinner) whose learning theories emphasized the observable and measurable aspects of behaviour (i.e., stimulus – response events), and the rules that establish their functional relations; and ecological theorists who were more humanistic (Bronfenbrenner, 1989; Kounin, 1970) and viewed behaviour holistically, as being influenced by the social and physical environment. The behaviouristic movement in psychology was essentially a reaction against the introspective approach of earlier theorists. Introspection (i.e., the method of examining one's thoughts, feelings and emotions and generalizing from them), was seen as an unscientific methodology.

Behaviourists emphasized a more scientific approach based on objectivity and experimentation with regard to overt observable and measurable behaviour. As such, they avoided such words as "emotions" or redefined them in terms of potentially observable responses. For example, Watson (1913), defined feelings as movement of the muscles of the gut, and thinking as movement of the muscles of the throat. (Tauber, 1999, 2007). Cognitive and unconscious processes were ignored as the focus of this approach was on observable symptoms and changing behaviours through external methods or rewards and punishment.

The behaviourists' derived their theories of learning and behaviour from studies of animal and later human conditioning. Many studies, experiments and practices involving animals have contributed to the history of rewards and punishments in behavioural psychology (Kohn, 1993). In terms of classroom management and learning theories, Skinner's (1953) theories, which go beyond classical conditioning, have had wide appeal and application in educational settings. Teachers who use this approach (e.g., rules, praise and ignoring as a base to change and correct behaviour) must 'control'/manage the environment to get desirable behaviours. The behavioural approach to classroom management (i.e., the

adaption and modification of experiments developed elsewhere and applied in the classroom such as applied behaviour analysis) evolved as a result of changes in the environment. Skinner wanted to find out whether the principles governing animal behaviour also governed human behaviour. The use of these principles (operant conditioning – positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, presentation punishment and removal punishment) to change human behaviour (behaviour modification) in real-life settings developed into the science/discipline of applied behaviour analysis (Alberto & Troutman, 2009).

Early applications of behavioural strategies to classroom management were mostly about shaping discrete behaviours of individual students by reinforcement (such as remaining quiet and staying in the seat). Reinforcements included immediate praise or feedback or some kind of token economy. Later, refinements were made to cater to groups of students and larger groups of behaviours over a longer period of time, with the teacher verbally articulating and monitoring reinforcement contingencies (e.g., task engagement, completion of assignments). Behaviourists continually modified and expanded their repertoire of recommended strategies beyond those developed in the laboratory, to accommodate generalization to the classroom (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

Research by Kounin (1970), Brophy and Evertson (1976), and others pursued this agenda indicating that effective managers needed to intervene early (rather than ignore) to extinguish potentially disruptive behaviour. The use of this strategy is variable, although most teachers would accept early intervention as an effective action. How the teacher attends to this situation will determine what the outcome will be. Another similar strategy that is common practice is the use of the Premack Principle (1965) or activity reinforcement.

The limitations of the behaviourist model and new theorising created a shift from the primary base of Skinner's operant conditioning to embrace Bandura's (1969) social learning application of behaviour modification and Meichenbaum's (1977) version of cognitive-

behaviour modification and the role of cognitive factors in changing behaviour. Further adaptions and dimensions to fit more preventative and constructivist-oriented classrooms led to the development of more comprehensive approaches to classroom management (e.g., the Assertive Discipline programme by Canter & Canter and the Crisis Prevention Institute -Non-violent crisis intervention programme).

An alternative but related perspective on the emergence of classroom management is presented by management theorists and researchers who also introduced/applied management principles and strategies into the classroom from other fields of inquiry. Prior to the systematic study of classroom management, what was happening in the classroom and in management specifically was subsumed within the broader context of school efficiency. Management theorists were pre-occupied with the changing political, economic, social, technological, global, and ecological conditions of the time. A brief examination of the language used to describe classroom management, indicates a close affinity and alignment with the language and management practices of the labour industry and business sector. An example of this is the work of Bagley (1907) which was based on his personal experiences and observations as a teacher.

According to Bagley (1907) the ultimate aim of education is to develop socially efficient individuals "by slowly transforming the child from a little savage into a creature of law and order, fit for the life of civilized society" (p. 35). To achieve 'efficiency' in the school system he expounded management principles (i.e., a lead and control approach to increase student performance) to deal with the 'problem of economy' in the class/room. He viewed the 'problem for the teacher' was to determine in what manner the 'working unit' of the 'school plant' could be made to 'return the largest dividend upon the material investment' of time, energy and money, using 'specific tools or methods' (e.g., scaffolding instructions). Teaching was viewed as a 'business problem,' with the management of a homogenous group

of individuals as the central point of interest, and how to get the best results from an educative process under this condition. Much of this advice is familiar to teachers and still appears in textbooks today.

Bagley went on to say that the function/duty of the 'school plant' was to turn out a certain 'raw material' (living and active) into a 'desired product'. To achieve this outcome a strict 'chain of control' was proposed beginning with the principal who issues the 'orders' to the teachers, who accept the dictum (e.g., teaching the national standards) without question and execute the assigned tasks (skills and knowledge) to the students, who in turn comply and follow through on the tasks. Albeit, a simplistic explanation of a very complicated process expounded by Bagley, which had at its core the efficient use of time (i.e., academic learning/habit training over engaged time) through the unquestioned obedience of the teachers and students.

An earlier study emerged from the Management field through the work of Taylor whose collection of strategies he called scientific management (also known as Taylorism). According to Taylor, the problem of management was the workers and their inefficient use of time, and this he attributed to the failure of management to structure the work effectively and to provide incentives (motivation). Taylor also viewed human labour as similar to machine work, as something to be "engineered" (manipulated) to achieve efficiency. He believed there was one best way to do a job efficiently and like the behaviourists he became obsessed with analysing each aspect of each task and measuring everything measureable. His time and motion studies allowed him to describe performance objectives quantitatively and to fit wages to standards. In other words, workers were paid for targets met and provided with regular feedback as an incentive or reward for attendance, rather than performance.

Remnants and modifications to these strategies are still evident in our classrooms, schools, and the education system today (e.g., standardized testing, performance standards

over "rule of thumb" strategies, standardization of 'best practices'). Taylorism has had global effect on various production industries from Ford Motors to McDonalds. On the surface this approach appears collaborative, although the autonomy of the teacher/manager is critical to this approach, as well as extrinsic motivation (i.e., the carrot-stick principle). Extrinsic incentives such as token economies, praise, rewards, and response cost are dimensions in every classroom (and in our daily lives) and there is a constant need to monitor this activity to secure its purpose/perspective.

What is replicated in these studies is the management function of the foreman in the factory, which is to control the work flow and worker capacity to give a profit on the process (i.e., management by objectives, to maximize production and minimize cost). The key function of the teacher, according to this paradigm is to create and maintain a productive learning environment by adherence to a highly structured curriculum, direct instruction and academic learning. Control is a key strategy in this model and there will always be place for authoritarian leadership in the classroom, however, what is more important in this approach is the teachers' ability to assert authority fairly and with tact, and to persistent with the follow through.

Historically, classroom management was equated with a mechanistic, authoritarian, and bureaucratic orientation where control and compliance took priority over student/teacher relationships. Classroom management was the construction of the physical environment so that productive teaching and learning could take place. The technical aspect of work was prioritised (and later challenged by humanistic theorists Rogers and Maslow). Researchers concentrated on teacher management of teacher centred environments by asserting control and direct management of classroom transactions (i.e., a Skinnerian, Tayloristic approaches) (Evertson & Neal, 2005).

The focus on school efficiency continued into the 1950's with research gradually shifting from the 'essentialism' of Bagley and his colleagues to a more progressive, preventative philosophy (Brown, 1952) to include engaging students in the development of rules and procedures, using rewards or praise versus punishment strategies and encouraging internal self-control. Research on the use of reward versus punishment found that reward and praise was far more effective than blame or punishment, however, punishment was also reported as effective with certain groups. This led to the suggestion that children's previous experience with praise and blame conditioned their responses to these strategies in the classroom.

Kounin and Gump (1961) extended these findings to the classroom in a study they conducted using rating scales to find out the most and least punitive teachers in three schools. Their students were asked "What is the worst thing you can do in school?" The research found that children who had excessively punitive teachers manifest more aggression in their conduct. In other words, punishment can promote aggressiveness, revenge, withdrawal, poor-teacher-student relationships, and inhibit learning. The inhibition on learning as well as the disruptive behaviour can take place even when the individual only observes someone else being punished (i.e., the ripple effect, Kounin & Gump, 1961).

In their separate and collaborative studies, Kounin and Gump (1961) discovered classrooms as tangible, dynamic ecologies, constructed and maintained to accomplish particular purposes. In their attempt to answer prospective teachers' questions about reducing inappropriate behaviour, they identified that the ecology of the school and classroom (eco-behavioural unit) created demands and pressures on students as well as teachers.

Their investigations found that it was easier to prevent behaviour problems than deal with them once they occurred, and that successful classroom managers used several strategies

to maximize on-task behaviour. These strategies included "withitness" an awareness of what was going on and communicating this awareness to the students, the ability to attend to more than one activity simultaneously (overlapping) and providing variety and challenge during seatwork. Accordingly, teachers who were "withit" could deal with overlapping situations, were able to maintain smoothness and momentum in class activities, had stimulating lessons, kept the whole class involved and had fewer interruptions to deal with. The research also identified that effective classroom management had a powerful effect on student achievement. This approach fits well with Maori socio-cultural frameworks. The Ministry of Educations early childhood curriculum — Te Whariki is modelled on this framework.

Kounin and Gump (1961) concluded, that ecologically, the pressures and demands of the behaviour setting constitute the origins of the task of classroom management, which is, to establish and sustain order (through co-operation) in the curricular/educative activities that fill the available time (e.g., mat time, brain-food time, spelling test, seatwork and the kinds of behaviour permissible during these activities). In accord with this purpose, a number of teacher tasks/strategies were identified; to develop caring, supportive relationships with and among students, organize and implement instruction to optimize students' access to learning; use group management methods to encourage engagement in tasks, promote the development of social skills and self-regulation and use appropriate interventions to assist students' with behaviour problems (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

These tasks are critical teacher roles, however, what is more important, according to this theory is how the teacher structures and achieves order in the classroom, not just the rules, rewards and penalties. Moreover, teachers' need to be aware of how they communicate to students as well as what they communicate (e.g., 'it's not what you say, but how you say it, or what you do, but how you do it'). Doyle (2006) attributes the 'classroom' in classroom management to the vigorous theorizing about classroom processes and management to

Kounin and Gump (1961). Both theorists were interested in the "ripple effects" - the effect of a teacher reprimand on other students nearby. Their investigations then shifted to investigating teacher behaviours and the specifics of effective classroom management. They concluded that classroom management skills were critical aspects of effective teaching and that teachers who employed effective classroom management strategies had a greater impact on student engagement and achievement. Throughout the history of classroom management there is a great deal of evidence that supports this claim (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993/1994).

Many theorists have contributed to the comprehensive development of classroom management. Rogers (1953) in contrast to Skinner (1953) proposed a non-directive, personcentred intervention or self-directed, self-actualization approach to managing behaviour (i.e., humanistic). Skinner's and Roger's theories of how human beings learn represent two extremes or opposite ends of a learning/behaviour continuum. Skinner's view of human nature originates from 'Science and Human Behaviour' and Roger's 'client-centred' opposing view from Humanism. Both paradigms have deep roots in the past and remain to the present day (Tauber, 1999). Aspects of Skinner's principles (constructing contingencies of reinforcements) are evident in Canter and to a lesser degree in Jones' disciplinary - behavioural model (Edwards, 2000).

Research educators of Roger's approach (e.g., Maslow, 1987) conclude that feeling and thinking are intertwined (Aloni, 2002). The function of the teacher in this model is to provide the conditions for self-growth. This approach complements the pastoral care and enrichment programmes in many schools today as teachers and parents want students to develop positive feelings about themselves and about learning, and to perceive school as a place where they will be supported in their efforts to develop new knowledge and skills.

Glasser (1984) proposed a leadership oriented behaviour model where students are assisted to assume greater responsibility (control) for themselves. Teachers who use this approach are instructed to direct students towards making value judgements about their behaviour (Emmer & Stough, 2001). Students generally become frustrated with their inability to cope with the problems they see in their life, so that personal control, according to Glasser, is necessary to achieve a psychological balance. How the teacher negotiates student autonomy is a key task of classroom management.

In New Zealand, classroom management moved toward a school-based positive behaviour support programme when Special Education 2000 oriented the delivery model to an inclusive structure for education. This inclusive model required teachers to actively accommodate the needs of students with diverse abilities (Procknow & Macfarlane).

#### 2.1 Summary

In summary, the research shows that empirical classroom management emerged/evolved from two different sources, the behavioural and the ecological, demonstrating a historical/traditional framework, and a more contemporary approach, much more attuned to practices that can be implemented by teachers in the classroom. Skinner's early experimental studies with animals and later humans were a major paradigm shift in terms of theory (and ethics) and research. Science provided an explanation, a prediction and procedures for the control of behaviour. Skinner called this science "the experimental analysis of behaviour." By the 21<sup>st</sup> century applied behaviour analysis had replaced Skinner's original term, and terms continued to evolve following Skinner's original framework. A number of practices in all areas of behaviour (e.g., animal training, business, clinical work, health and teaching) were influenced by Skinnerian science and these applications have kept the 'science' alive today. Skinner's model is viewed as the basis of

classroom management approaches including those popularized by Canter, Jones and the Non-violent crisis intervention model of practice (Tauber, 1999).

The ecological researchers created another paradigm shift to include personenvironment interactions and their reciprocal influences. This approach was more humanistic
(Rogerian) than mechanistic and added another dimension to classroom management. It also
highlighted the complexity of classroom interactions and the potential for minor behaviour to
escalate if teachers didn't attend to them promptly (i.e., a preventative rather than reactive
philosophy). Neither one of these paradigms has remained static, but their core tenets have
been recycled, refined and reframed to accommodate constant changes and developments in
teaching and learning globally (i.e., internet, virtual classrooms). Behavioural theories have,
and continue to emerge, converge and regenerate as researchers make their investigations
more accessible and comprehensible to practitioners in settings such as the classroom.

In terms of a 'framework', classroom management is a multidisciplinary, multidimensional paradigm. It also spans a much wider context than the specific business of the classroom (physical environment, instructional programme, teacher-student relationships) and the politics of schooling - charter schools, class sizes, national standards, standardized testing and technology, teacher performance pay, parenting programmes/community, citizenship, responsibility, and democracy. In this regard, an eclectic approach to classroom management would acknowledge the breadth and depth of this kaupapa in terms of student learning and behaviour, teacher efficacy and the more critical aspect of preparing teachers to be effective classroom managers. What is evident in this research is that the world of classroom management is reflective of the changing reality of schools, which are in the business of management.

# 3 LITERATURE REVIEW

Classroom management refers to the actions taken by the teacher to create and maintain an environment that actively supports and facilitates meaningful teaching and learning in the classroom. This includes organizing the physical environment, establishing relationships and facilitating interactions, planning and conducting instruction, maintaining order, motivating students, and keeping them on task, and developing rules and procedures so that students know what to do responsibly.

Many theorists of classroom management would support these ideas. For example, Brophy (2006); Charles (2008); Jones and Jones (2004); Little and Akin-Little (2003); Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering (2003); Macfarlane and Procknow (2006); Randolph and Evertson (1994); Wilson and Fehring (1992); and others would go further to include in their characterizations of classroom management the collection of useful assessment data, the creation of racially and culturally inclusive environments, and a curriculum that is intellectually challenging for all students. In light of these concepts and collection of strategies, classroom management refers to every word and every action a teacher takes in the classroom to orchestrate, facilitate and optimize student achievement (Porter, 2000, Weinstein, 2004, Marzano, 2003).

What the research shows is that classroom management is a multidimensional and expansive construct, so there is no definitive understanding of what it is. However, Evertson and Weinstein (2006) propose a framework that represents a current view of classroom management. According to Evertson and Weinstein, the purpose of classroom management is twofold; to create and sustain an orderly climate for academic learning, and to enhance the social and moral growth of students. In support of this perspective, and to emphasize the varied facets of classroom management, they suggest that teachers carry out a number of specific tasks such as:

"develop caring, supportive relationships with and among students; organize and implement instruction in ways that optimize student's access to learning; use group classroom management methods that encourage students' engagement in academic tasks; promote the development of students' social skills and self-regulation; and use appropriate interventions to assist students with behaviour problems" (p. 5).

This approach to classroom management is comprehensive and can be quite daunting for teachers in terms of their practical experience and understanding of evidence-based practices that underpin their tasks/roles and management responsibilities. A major assumption is that teachers are prepared, and can confidently carry out these various functions and tasks. More importantly, that teacher will be supported to engage effectively with these tasks.

A significant body of research indicates that classroom organization and behaviour management competencies can influence the persistence of new teachers in their vocations (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003) because they perceive they lack the skills and confidence to effectively manage students' disruptive behaviour (Donovan & Cross, 2002). Managing problem classroom behaviour is also a reason given for teachers leaving the profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Jones and Jones (2004) report that teachers' appear to have negligent pre-service training and information on research based strategies for effective classroom management practices. This claim is supported by a recent NZ study conducted by Johansen, Little, and Akin-Little (2011), which found that teachers received minimal formal training and on-going professional development in behaviour management practices. However, a large majority also reported that they felt confident in managing classroom behaviour problems (Johansen et al.).

A history of theorising about various approaches to classroom management has emphasised student behaviour over intentional learning, and what teachers should do to manage problem behaviours in the classroom. Consequently, the element of control and punishment is fairly well embedded in schools and educational settings, although teachers are more aware that it is more productive to create effective learning systems than to focus on managing the specific behaviours of individual students. Creating conditions that are conducive to optimizing learning capability and sustaining on-task engagement is not an easy task, given the unpredictable nature of the classroom and the range of activities that occur simultaneously in the classroom (Procknow & Macfarlane, 2008), as well, the energy required to manage the curricular, leaves little time for teacher reflection.

Charles (2000) recommends making teaching and classroom management compatible with the human nature of students, suggesting that behaviour problems can be eliminated, modified and/or avoided if teachers designed activities which "work with rather than against student nature" (2000, p. 8). This means differentiating or tailoring instruction with the students' academic and social needs in mind, empowering the students to learn and to realize their capacity to learn regardless of the subject matter (Craig, 2008; Greene, 2008). This humanistic (holistic) orientation enables teachers to focus on student possibilities and potential, rather than correcting/managing behaviour (Hoy, Hoy, & Kurtz, 2008).

Many leaders in the field of classroom management highlight the relationship between desirable student behaviour and effective instructional strategies and conclude that unproductive social and academic behaviours "can often be traced to failure to create an educational climate conducive to learning" (Jones & Jones, 2004, p. 151). In acknowledging this perspective, the research consistently supports the assertion that all students benefit from warm and caring teachers who prioritise relationships with students and tailor learning situations accordingly (Macfarlane, 2000; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008).

In saying that, teachers are becoming more conversant with many of these challenges/tasks because of the growing trend toward inclusive education and the need to

assess their own work and performance. Classroom management is more comprehensive than responding to behaviour and behaviour-correction or reactive and preventative resolutions (Little & Akin-Little, 2003; Procknow & Macfarlane, 2006). A comprehensive approach is about creating a climate and culture of learning which begins with classroom management.

As indicated above, the research literature identified what research-based classroom management means, and what teachers can do to achieve this end. Little and Akin-Little also conducted a review of 'best practice' classroom management strategies and established that there are a wide range of effective strategies which teachers can use to support and improve their practice. The strategies employed will depend on a number of factors such as the ecology of the classroom, student-teacher, student-student, teacher-parent interactions and modes of communication, the classroom climate and culture, the experiences and issues (cultural baggage) students' bring with them from the wider ecological systems in which they live; the level of engagement of specialist support such as psychologists, resource teachers of learning and behaviour (RTLB) and paraprofessionals in the school, and the nature of the problem behaviour (Little & Akin-Little).

There are various approaches to classroom management. Some are based within a 'teacher-oriented model' (e.g., Canter, 2010), others support a 'student-oriented model' (Gordon, 1974), and others support a 'group-oriented model (Dreikurs, Gunwald, & Pepper, 1982; Glasser, 1969). There are also alternative models outside these ideological perspectives (Lewis, 2009) which indicate that there is a wide range of classroom management strategies to support student responsibility and appropriate behaviour.

Weinstein (1999) identified four major changes in approach to classroom management. These approaches or paradigm shifts reflect the 'cyclic-regressive-progressive-futuristic' nature of theorising, research and practice generally (e.g., Bagley's moralistic,

character-building curriculum and KRIC – Kids rich in character type programmes are just as relevant in current curricular). The changes include, a view of management as a "bag of tricks" (i.e., lack of any systematic methodology), to management as a set of research-based strategies and practices that warrant reflection and study; a change from managerial practices designed to obtain compliance (controlling students), to practices that encourage students to self-regulate; a shift in thinking "from a purely cognitive perspective that emphasizes the importance of developing and teaching rules, to a cognitive affective perspective that also recognizes the need to establish caring, trusting relationships between students and teachers and among students" (Weinstein, p. 152). The fourth change articulated identifies a view of classroom management as an authoritarian, mechanistic (routinized), teacher-driven procedure, to an orientation where active student participation, independence, and problem-solving is emphasized (Weinstein).

These changes are evident in many NZ schools, often driven by Government Policy/Ministry of Education initiatives (e.g., implementation of national standards; Ka Hikitia – Success for all; PB4L – Positive behaviour for learning – school wide behaviour programme). For teachers this could mean a more crowded curriculum and/or an enhancement of current practices. For instance, "Ka Hikitia" and culturally responsive classroom management is being implemented with some urgency in schools because of the disproportionate representation of Maori students challenged by learning and behaviour difficulties (Church, 2003; Ministry of Education, 2007). In saying this, teachers are becoming more competent in using (or thinking) differentiated instruction to ensure that all their students have the opportunity to access learning success, excellence, potentiality and creativity, in a flexible and responsive classroom (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010). This philosophy of instruction (i.e., adding value, catering to diversity) is embedded in the 'classroom mind-set' and woven through the literature on classroom management.

Some researchers assert that teachers high in social emotional competence have a greater capacity to maintain on-task behaviour when compared with others. Kounin (1970) used the construct of "withitness" to describe teacher's level of awareness and ability to notice subtle changes in students' emotions and behaviour, and to be able to respond proactively to influence, and regulate these dynamics (Kounin, 1970). This is what teachers would call having "eyes in the back of your head" – knowing what's happening in the classroom at all times and being able to 'attend' to a number of tasks simultaneously ('overlapping'). Fortunately, students are also acquainted with this strategy. This strategy also allows the teacher to give individuals 'help' guidance and specific feedback to keep students on task and minimize disruptions (Edwards, 2000). Further research suggests that social awareness, self-management, and relationship management may help teachers maintain attentive monitoring and support for student on-task behaviour (Jennings, 2007; Kounin, 1970, 1977; Zins, Weissberg, Wang & Walberg, 2004).

This understanding of classroom management is echoed by other educationalists (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Hattie, 2003; Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2008; Rice, 2003; Zins, Peyton, Weissberg, & O'Brien, 2007) who go on to say that effective teaching, and positively functioning classrooms, (i.e., with low levels of disruptive behaviour), enhances student learning engagement (Bishop & Berryman, 2006; Procknow, 2006; Rice, 2003).

Accordingly, students with high rates of engagement tend to experience more positive outcomes (i.e., enjoy school, persist at difficult tasks, and have higher achievement), and have less opportunity (and need), to display inappropriate behaviours (Brophy, 1988, 1999; Charles, 2002, 2008; Good & Brophy, 2000). These perspectives accentuate that positive teacher-student relationships is fundamental to effective classroom management and that student engagement is directly related to student achievement.

As previously stated, strategies which have been found to contribute to these outcomes are consistently identified in the literature (Little & Akin-Little, 2003; Safran & Oswald, 2003; Maag, 2004; Grossman, 2004; Kerr & Nelson, 2006; Good & Brophy, 2000; Jones, 1996), and include, having clear, simple rules and expectations, connected to consequences and consistently applied; ensuring predictability of events through establishment of routines and structure; frequent use of specific, verbal and non-verbal praise; monitoring task difficulty, proximity control for task engagement, and opportunities to respond and participate in the classroom activities.

However, none of the aforementioned strategies will guarantee a reduction in misbehaviour. Investigations of teacher capacity in both disciplinary and instructional aspects of classroom management indicate that managing daily classroom operations is a consuming challenge and concern for schools, teachers, parents, and the public at large (Little & Akin-Little, 2003). Consequently, models of effective classroom management practice abound in various forms, in multiple media (professional papers and seminars, education gazettes, educational research journals, newspapers, television programmes and computer websites). Topics include: "Staying in control," using a non-confrontational approach to classroom management, "finding the voice that fits", taking care of the minor misbehaviour and the big stuff is less likely, start as you mean to go on, and setting solid expectations at the start of the year. This means establishing with students the rights, rules, and responsibilities that govern the classroom, clarifying "who's the boss," and taking the bull by the horns with classroom management programmes. These descriptors are indicative of the prevailing climate which is challenging teacher capacity in NZ classrooms and abroad.

A significant body of research refers to classroom behavioural problems among the key reasons for teacher stress, well-being and confidence, and a significant factor for student disengagement with learning and academic achievement (Beaman & Wheldall, 2000; Lewis,

Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2003; Little & Hudson, 1998; Poulou & Norwich, 2000). Additionally, a number of survey studies indicate that teachers feel inadequately trained in behaviour management (Buchanan, Gueldner, Tran, & Merrell, 2009; Justice & Espinoza, 2007), a factor which also contributes to teacher stress and burnout (Hastings & Bham, 2003). Moreover, high teacher stress can result in teachers defaulting to reactive, harsher disciplinary strategies, by means of consequences assumed to be aversive to the student (Clunies-Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008; Infantino & Little, 2005; Maag, 2001).

Teachers in NZ are not immune to this vulnerability. Hall and Langton (2006) include student behaviour problems and lack of authority as barriers to young people entering teaching in NZ. Those who do enter the profession report poor initial teacher education and induction, a negative school environment, lack of collegiality and input into decision making, and constant curricular changes as high risk factors for leaving the profession (Margolis & Nagel, 2006). Teachers in the study also reported that classroom management issues, unmotivated students and lack of management support seriously affected their ability to teach (Margolis & Nagel). Several studies elicit that teachers who struggle to manage student behaviour are more prone to stress and burnout (Chaplain, 2003; Rogers, 2006).

The Elton Report (1989), estimated that 80% of disruptive behaviour in the UK can be "directly attributed to poor classroom organization, planning and teaching" (Elton Report, cited in Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, Ofsted., 2005, Section 65, p.15), and that teachers reported behaviours such as talking out of turn (TOOT) and other forms of persistent low-level interruptions, as the most stress-inducing and emotionally exhaustive behaviours, because of the constantly disruptive effect on the teaching and learning process and classroom activities generally.

Other behaviours identified as being most troublesome and frequent include, hindering other children, idleness/slowness, making unnecessary noises, disobedience and aggression (Beaman, 2006; Farrell, 2005; Infantano & Little, 2005; Little, 2003; Little, Hudson, & Wilks, 2002; Stephenson, Linfoot, & Martin, 2000, Wheldall, 1991). The evidence suggests that it is the cumulative effects of student disruptions that predominantly account for teacher stress, burnout, and resignation.

Supporting teachers to be 'the best teacher they can be' will require more than performance pay, funding and resources. Uninterrupted teaching time is a valuable asset to be pursued at all costs. It is critical then that schools build a culture of on-going professional learning to ensure that teachers can continue to enhance their classroom management practices/strategies to address the changing nature of student behaviour and learning.

# 3.1 Summary

The literature shows that classroom disruptions take up valuable learning time and that problem behaviours affect the learning opportunities and potential achievements of all students (Witzel & Mercer, 2006). The research also suggests what teachers can do to support the learning climate. However, teachers continue to raise behaviour management as a critical concern. Given this rhetoric, it appears that teachers' understanding of classroom management strategies learnt from research is not being put into practice. Furthermore, it appears that teachers are not being taught the skills required for effective classroom management. This includes pre-service teacher training and on-going professional development.

Research in NZ on this particular kaupapa has been limited. The purpose of this study is to fill the gap by investigating what New Zealand teachers do to manage learning and behaviour in the classroom. This study is a partial replication of a cross-cultural study conducted in United States and Greece. Aspects of this research will be compared with the current NZ study.

# 4 AREAS EXAMINED IN THE STUDY

The following areas were examined in the classroom management survey.

#### 4.1 Classroom Rules

It has been suggested that classroom rules help reduce disruptive behaviours (Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995), while promoting positive interactions (Gunter, Jack, DePaepe, Reed, & Harrison, 1994). Rules provide a basis for the teacher to "catch them being good". When classrooms have clear rules for appropriate behaviour that are consistently taught and reinforced, teachers spend less time addressing challenging behaviours (Colvin, Sugai, & Patching, 1993; Darch & Kameenui, 2003; Jones & Jones, 2001). The use of classroom rules and routines is a powerful, preventative component of classroom management (Kerr & Nelson, 2000; Little & Akin-Little, 2009), as the rules establish the behavioural context of the classroom, specifying what behaviours are expected, what behaviours will be reinforced, and the consequences for inappropriate behaviour (e.g., re-teaching behavioural expectations), (Colvin, Kame'enui, & Sugai, 1993).

Teacher educators (and researchers) have long advocated that school personnel establish a set of basic rules in order to create safe, orderly, and productive classrooms (Madsen, Becker, & Thomas, 1986). Rules are explicit statements that define behaviour expectations, and there is general agreement that teachers should have relatively few rules (four to five rules), stated positively, and age appropriate (e.g., raise your hand to speak, listen quietly while others are talking, follow directions the first time) (Grossman, 2004; Maag, 2004).

There is general consensus also that the rules should be observable, measurable, strategically posted where everyone can see them, connected to consequences, easy to understand and enforceable, and integrated with a comprehensive behaviour management plan (Burden, 2006; Grossman, 2004; Kerr & Nelson, 2006; Little & Akin-Little, 2003;

Maag, 2004; Rhode, Jensen, & Reavis, 1993). For young students, it may be helpful also to include pictures or icons with the written expectations that provide examples of the expected behaviour (Lane, Kalberg, & Menzies, 2009).

Once the rules are established, students should be taught situationally and systematically to comply with the rules. According to Kounin (1970) students are more likely to follow classroom rules if they believe that teachers are cognizant of compliance and non-compliance expectations. In addition, to reduce the probability of further misbehaviour, teachers should monitor students' rule-abiding behaviour and be prepared to intervene to address repeated violations (Grossman, 2004). Rather than serving a purely regulatory function, expectations help define appropriate classroom behaviour, routines or strategies (Bear, 2005), and build cohesion among students and teachers (Henley, 2006), particularly when students have had input into the construction of the rules. Based on the research, rules are a critical start to effective classroom management.

In most New Zealand classrooms, the Treaty of Waitangi framework (e.g., in relation to the three principles of partnership, participation and protection) is often used as the template for developing and establishing classroom rules. The rules become the values which encourage students' to change their behaviour. This process helps to set the tone and working climate of the classroom. Bill Rogers (2000) argues that teachers need to have rules to manage behaviour, just as they do to manage curriculum.

## **4.2** Enhancing Classroom Environment

According to the DfE (1994) "the role of the teacher is pivotal... Effective teachers operate under clearly understood rules, give clear presentations, have clear work requirements of pupils, give clear instructions, handle misbehaviour quickly, and calmly, ensure that work is appropriate to pupils' abilities, set clear goals, start and end lessons on time and minimise interruptions" (p. 4).

Similar sentiments have been consistently expressed by researchers, that good pedagogy and highly effective teachers, competent in their subject knowledge, elicit a positive response with approximately 70% of classroom time devoted to academic tasks (Little & Akin-Little, 2003) while lessening the tendencies/opportunities for disruptive behaviour (Sutherland & Wehby, 2001). Moreover, given the increasingly diverse ethnic composition of classes, the inclusion of children with learning and behavioural problems in classrooms and curriculum, the growing recognition of disparate cultural norms (Cartledge & Loe, 2001; Gable, Hendrickson, Tonelson, & Van Acker, 2002), as well as the increased pressure on academic performance, teacher efficacy in classroom management is critical, as no single strategy will be effective for every student, at all times, and in all contexts. Highly effective teachers are expected to create classroom management strategies that will make the students see the need for learning (Brophy, 1998; Cowley, 2003; Jones, 1996).

A large number of behavioural strategies have been found to be effective (Brophy, 2006; Stage & Quiroz, 1997), including specific contingent praise (Feldman, 2003; Weinstein, 2003), a token economy system (Higgins, Williams, & McLaughlin, 2001), and behaviour contracts (Kelly & Stokes, 1984). Wehby and Lane (2009) recommend an antecedent approach to classroom management which employs the use of strategies (e.g., proximity monitoring and control, high probability requests (behavioural momentum) and opportunities to respond, choice making (Little & Akin-Little, 2003), and interventions that promote desirable, pro-social behaviour that prevent the occurrence of problem behaviour (Luiselli, 2006). This is done by modifying the immediate antecedent and contextual setting events, in such a way that precipitating events are eliminated or ameliorated (Crosby, Jolievette, & Patterson, 2006; Dunlap, Foster-Johnson, Clarke, Kern, & Childs, 1995; Luiselli, 2006; McAtee, Carr, & Schulte, 2004).

Manipulations of antecedent stimuli have been shown to be very powerful ingredients of behaviour support plans (Luiselli, 2006). Colvin et al. (1993) devised a precorrective strategy to deal with predictable classroom behaviour problems with the focus on manipulating contextually-based classroom antecedents, establishing an acceptable level of classroom conduct, using behavioural rehearsal to teach positive behaviours, as well as teacher use of cues, prompts and positive reinforcement of appropriate behaviour (Colvin et al.). In pre-correction, the teacher starts by identifying a potentially difficult situation, delineates the expected behaviour, modifies the context in which the behaviour is to occur, provides multiple opportunities for students to practice the behaviour, delivers positive reinforcement for compliance, and gives students reminders regarding the expected behaviour before the opportunity arises to engage in the behaviour (Colvin et. al.; Lewis, 2004).

The use of preventative interventions (antecedent approaches, i.e., contingent instruction, pre-correction, planned ignoring, and quiet reprimands) strategies; such as, maximizing learning time, providing ample opportunities for high rates of correct responding, and monitoring student performance; allow teachers to establish a positive climate conducive to learning (Crosby, et al., 2006; Gable, Hester, Rock, & Hughes, 2009).

# 4.3 Reinforcement Strategies

Because low-level disruptions can be endemic and stress inducing, as well as a potential catalyst for more problematic behaviours, whole class interventions can be more effective than targeting individuals. In addition to natural reinforcement strategies such as verbal praise and positive verbal/non-verbal feedback, there are numerous proactive programme options in the research literature. These include token economies and prize draws, competitions (e.g., "Good Behaviour Game"), the use of the "Yakker-Tracker" to manage noise levels in the classroom, and the use of colour coded rule cards and a matching signalling system to show which rules are in effect at any given time.

In addition, studies of peer-control of reinforcement (Solomon & Wahler, 1973), the use of peers as 'aides' and pupil self-evaluation strategies for on-task behaviour, indicate that engaging students in their own behaviour management can effectively support teacher applied consequences as part of an effective classroom management programme (Parsonson, Baer, & Baer, 1974). According to Little and Akin-Little (2003), reinforcement should be age-appropriate and appropriate to the student's level of functioning. Furthermore, some strategies, such as the use of touch (pat on back or shoulder), although effective, should be used sparingly and with respect for cultural norms.

Some NZ schools have a total "hands off" policy; however, teachers tend to use their discretion with this strategy. If a school-home-note system is used, where a student earns reinforcement at home for behaviour performed at school, actively involving parents in the programme may lead to better outcomes for the student (Little & Akin-Little, 2009).

# 4.4 Reductive Strategies

The use of reductive and punitive measures in response to continuous misbehaviour may be as mild as the withdrawal of teacher attention, and often involves response cost (i.e., the withdrawal of a privilege or reward contingent upon misbehaviour) or overcorrection, to more harsh methods such as exclusion. For punishment to be effective it should be administered as immediate as possible, be something the student will try to avoid in future, be able to be consistently enforced and used in conjunction with a positive reinforcement programme (Little, Akin-Little, & Cook, 2009) Van der Kley, 1997).

Strategies that have been shown to be well-established and efficacious in the management of inappropriate behaviour include the use of proximity control, where the teachers physical presence serves as a cue to return to, or begin appropriate behaviour (Colvin, Sugai, Good, & Lee, 1997); the use of verbal reprimands or gestures indicating disapproval and asking questions to get students back on task (Sutherland, Alder, & Gunter,

2003); the use of eye contact (taking into account cultural differences and sensitivities) to increase compliance (Kodak, Northup, & Kelly, 2007); praising appropriate behaviour of other students (using behaviour specific praise) to reduce the inappropriate behaviour of the student who is off-task (Sutherland, Wehby, & Copeland, 2000); the use of temporary escape or removal (time out) of a student from a potentially volatile situation (Wright-Gallo, Higbee, Reagon, & Davey, 2006); and the use of the rule reminder (pre-corrections) (Colvin et a., 1991).

Conversely, and as indicated, the use of negative consequences such as response cost (e.g., removal of privileges such as computer time, interval or rewards) is best combined with positive reinforcement (Little & Akin-Little, 2003, 2009). Overcorrection involves reprimanding an undesirable behaviour by having the student perform another behaviour (Kazdin, 2001), and is either restitutional, which requires the student to rectify the damage created by his/her actions (e.g., clean graffiti on desk), or positive practice overcorrection, which requires the student to practice the desirable behaviour repeatedly (Little & Akin-Little, 2003, 2009). Research on social learning supports the assumption that appropriate reductive strategies are effective for controlling (managing) serious misbehaviour (Walker, Ramsey, & Gresham, 2004).

## 4.5 Teacher Perceptions of Their Role

Research on teacher efficacy is perceived as essential for student academic and behavioural learning (Bezzina & Butcher, 1990) and impacts positively on teachers' classroom management beliefs and practices (Good, 1981; Ross, 1994; Soodak & Podell, 1994). Teacher efficacy refers to the teachers' belief in his/her capability to influence students' academic achievements (Ross, 1994). According to Agne, Greenwood, & Miller (1994, p. 13):

There can be little doubt that the teachers encounter a variety of new experiences in the classroom. Their beliefs regarding these experiences and the manner in which they approach them, work together to create a unique and individual style of classroom management.

Research on classroom management verifies that teachers are concerned about the amount of time they spend on behaviour management issues to the detriment of learning/instructional time (Merrett & Wheldall, 1993). Studies also show that teacher confidence and capacity can deteriorate if they continually experience troublesome students, and are not sufficiently skilled in classroom management strategies, or have a highly limited repertoire of behaviour management skills (Bibou-Nakou, Kiosseoglou, & Stogiannidou, 2000; Billingsley, 1993). Consequently, teachers perceive they are inadequate, which may deteriorate into emotional exhaustion, decreased accomplishment, and burnout (Evers, Gerrichhauzen, & Tomic, 2000). Furthermore, teachers believe that classroom management skills are of major importance to them professionally (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Fraser, Moltzen, & Ryba, 2000) and many feel dissatisfied with their pre-service professional skills training in classroom management (Merrett & Wheldall, 1993).

The focus of the research on teacher efficacy appears to be twofold, namely, supporting teachers (to integrate their perceptions into classroom practice) with more effective teacher training programmes (and professional development), and making teachers aware and confident in their personal capacity and potential to bring about desired improvement and change in the classroom.

## 4.6 Summary

The research on teachers' use of classroom management strategies confirm that teachers are using empirically validated strategies (establishing clear rules and expectations and involving students in rule development and classroom decision-making, using prompt

and behaviour-specific feedback, using "withitness") to manage behaviour and increase student learning engagement in the classroom. However, classroom-based management practices/strategies continue to challenge teacher efficacy and performance. Comparative studies on classroom management practices conducted by Akin-Little, Little, and Lantani (2007) and Lewis, Romi, Qui, and Katz (2003), indicate that there is a great deal of variability in teacher practices in managing classroom behaviour. This current study provided an opportunity to investigate what teachers in NZ classrooms do to manage classroom learning and behaviour.

## 5 METHODOLOGY

# **5.1 Participant**

This study was conducted in the metropolitan area of Auckland. A range of coeducational primary schools/principals were contacted by telephone and invited to participate in the study. From a total of 27 schools who accepted questionnaires, 53 practising teachers participated in the study (35.3% response rate). Of the 53 participants, 85% were female (n = 45) and 15% were male (n = 8). This is a general reflection of the proportion of male and female teachers in primary schools in New Zealand. A study conducted by Harker and Chapman (2006) on teacher numbers identified that in 1971, 38% of primary teachers were male. By 2004 this number had halved to 19.5%. During this period teacher numbers increased but the number of male teachers declined from 6,600 in 1971 to 4,600 in 2004 (Harker & Chapman). The current situation indicates that, including secondary schools, 28% of teachers are male and 72% are female. Excluding secondary schools, 19% are male and 81% are female (Education Statistics of New Zealand, 2007).

The majority of teachers in the study were New Zealand European (53%), with others identifying as Maori (23%), Pacifica (4%), Asian (4%), or other ethnic group (17%), including South African Indian, South African, British (Welsh, English), Swiss, German, Dutch, American, Australian and Indian. The number of foreign teachers working in NZ classrooms is a growing reality. This growth is particularly evident in the ethnic composition of most NZ classes. Twenty nine percent reported more than 20 years teaching experience, 29% had 11 to 20 years, 21% had 6 to 10 years, and 21% had 0 to 5 years of teaching service. Of the sample, 60% (n = 32) reported a bachelor's degree, 19% (n = 10) a diploma, and 15% (n = 8) a post-graduate qualification. The majority of teachers taught in regular classrooms (77%), with 75% teaching at primary level (years 1 - 8) and 11% (n = 6) identifying teaching in a special school. Fifty one percent reported having a teacher aide in the classroom.

Schools were either suburban (50.9%) or urban (49.1%), with total school enrolments ranging from 83 - 1050 (M = 402.1, SD = 252.04). Approximately 52% identified working in decile 9 - 10 schools and 27% in decile 1 – three schools. A school decile rating indicates the socio-economic group that the school catchment falls into (i.e., the socio-economic background of the students in the school). Decile 1 schools are located at the lowest end of the socio-economic scale and decile 10 schools at the highest end of the socio-economic scale. The Ministry of Education uses information from the National Census to determine these ratings. The ethnic class composition of the total sample identified 65.7% Caucasian, 29.9% Maori, 22.6% Pacifica, 10.2% Asian and 11.6% as other racial affiliations.

Participants were asked to report on their actual use of important classroom management practices by completing a survey questionnaire in their own time. The completed questionnaire was posted back in the reply paid envelope provided. Participation was voluntary and no identifying information was required of the participants.

## **5.2 Materials and Procedure**

The survey used in this study (Appendix B) was developed for teachers in the United States (US) by Little and Akin-Little (2002) and reviewed by PhD students in school psychology. The survey was piloted on a group of 10 teachers to verify its comprehensiveness, readability, and understandability (Akin-Little et al., 2007). The survey was then distributed to teachers in professional training at various locations in the United States and, after translation, Greece (Akin-Little et al.).

Minor demographic changes were made to the survey to accommodate the Auckland/New Zealand research sample. In particular, the ethnic background of participants, and the ethnic composition of the classroom were changed. A question on the decile rating of the school was added to the survey. One other change was made to the questionnaire relating to the use of "corporal punishment" in the school. This was replaced with "restraints." The

survey comprised four sections. The first section detailed information on teacher demographics (gender, ethnicity, educational qualifications, and years of teaching), as well as school and class demographics (school roll and decile, levels taught, type of classroom and ethnic composition of class, and teacher aide support). The second section examined classroom rules. Teachers were also asked to list their classroom rules in rank order of importance. The third section investigated classroom-based management strategies used to deal with disruptive behaviours. Teachers who used a particular behaviour management model or approach were asked to provide a description of the model. The fourth section required teachers to match their classroom management strategies with their perception of their role as a teacher. Four items covered classroom management strategies used and three enquired about teacher confidence and capacity in using classroom management strategies.

A Likert- type assessment scale was used with "1" indicating that they strongly agreed and "5" indicating strongly disagreed with the classroom management principle and teacher role match.

## **5.3 Procedure**

Subsequent to ethical clearance from the Massey University Human Ethics

Committee, school principals were contacted by telephone and informed of the study.

Following the principal's approval to access teachers in the school, the survey package was delivered to the school for distribution. The principal's role was limited to informing the teachers that the survey was available. Teachers were required to fill out the survey in their own time and return the questionnaire in the reply paid envelope. Data were coded and analysed using PASW Statistics 18 (SPSS).

#### 6 RESULTS

The data were collated and analysed using PASW Statistics 18 (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to analyse data. Specifically, data on percentages and frequencies were calculated to illustrate patterns of classroom management strategies.

## **6.1 Classroom Rules**

The survey indicated that the majority of teachers follow a school wide discipline plan (93%) and a large number of teachers also employ their own set of classroom rules (72%). The range of rules was 2-20 (M=5.82, SD=3.82) with most teachers using five rules. Rules are generally posted at the front of the class (60%) and introduced on the first day (49%) or week (33%) of the school year. Fifty seven percent reported introducing the rules during class lessons, and informing parents at the parent/teacher interviews or at IEP (Individual Education Planning) meetings for students. For younger children, 48% of teacher participants indicated using icons or pictures for each rule. Every teacher was involved in the development of the rules, with 47% indicating student and teacher input. Parents had minimal involvement in the construction of rules.

In addition, teachers were asked to list their classroom rules in rank order of importance. Teachers identified 'respect' as the most important rule. Rules and expectations were school-wide and covered a broad range of behaviours or strategies, such as, respect for people, respect for self, respect for actions, respect for property, respect for learning and knowledge, and respect for the school community (ecology and relationships). Teachers who taught children with special needs or worked at new entrant level reported that they tried different techniques depending on the age of the child, the situation, and the context. Rules highly prioritised tended to relate to the physical safety of the child and others in their environs (e.g., no hitting, no running, no leaving class; keep hands, feet and objects to yourself, use good words, a quiet voice, gentle hands, hands up for speaking, listen to the

teacher and follow directions). The number of rules prioritised ranged from 3 – 15, with the majority prioritising five rules [e.g., have a go, be considerate, problem solve (3 rules); be prepared, be positive, give 100% effort, learn from your mistakes, enjoy learning (5 rules)]. Variations of these rules and rank order of importance was marginal. A number of teachers indicated that all the rules were of equal importance and needed to be consistently reinforced. Teachers who responded to this question expressed the pastoral care aspects of classroom management such as positive, teacher/child relationships, school connectedness, developing trust, caring and consistent support, providing lots of positive reinforcement and taking time to build a respectful culture.

# **6.2 Reinforcement for Appropriate Behaviour**

As can be seen in Table 1, all the teachers reported using verbal praise (such as "good job" or "I like the way"), 96% use positive feedback (a smile or head nod), 81% use stickers or tokens, 70% use privileges (extra computer time, teacher messenger), 53% positive touching, and 51% a positive note home to parents. In rank order of importance verbal praise was ranked 100%, followed by positive feedback, stickers and tokens, a note home to parents, positive touching, and then privileges. In addition, 34% reported using other methods such as extra points for a game, a learner attitude card which is given out daily, treasure box points, gold star awards (school system), placing marbles in a jar for whole class compliance, principal's certificate, ringing parents or telling them when they collect their child, group or house points and giving student a list of choices.

## Further Analysis of Data

A further analysis of the data (as can be seen in Table 1) to examine the relationship between the relative experience of the teachers and their use of research-based classroom management strategies showed no significant differences between each cohort. Recently trained teachers used a wider variety of management strategies, and, ignored improper

behaviour, put names on the blackboard and used the long stare more than their cohorts.

Verbal praise was used by all the teachers with recently trained teachers making greater use of stickers and positive notes home to parents. There were similar responses from all the teachers for introducing rules on the first day. What is most significant in this analysis is that recently trained teachers used a wider variety of strategies than their more experienced colleagues.

In the comparison of Maori and Non-Maori classroom management strategies (see Table 2) some differences are worth noting, specifically; Maori make less use of the long stare, and greater use of positive touching; Maori 'ignore improper behaviour and recognize positive behaviour in another student' less, and give extra homework and detentions more than non-Maori teachers. Similarities between the two groups include the use of verbal praise, rules introduced on the first week of school, parents are made aware of rules at parent hui and revoke privileges. The use of positive touch and the long stare may be attributed to cultural factors.

Table 1

Teachers' use of classroom –based management strategies

Procedure	Recently Trained 0-5	Experienced 6-10	Relatively Experienced 11-20	Very Experienced Over 20	Total Sample
Rules					
School-wide discipline plan	82	91	93	100	93
Employ separate rules for classroom	73	82	73	67	72
Introduction of rules on the first day	56	56	57	57	49
Introduction of rules on the first week	44	33	36	36	32
Students involved in rules developed	89	89	86	72	75
Teachers involved in rules developed	78	89	100	100	81
Parents involved in rules developed	0	0	8	7	6
Admin involved in rules developed	0	22	39	13	25
Pictures or icons used	67	11	57	67	48
5 rules used	63	44	64	77	41
Posted at the front of the classroom	63	22	43	57	60
Rules taught in lesson format	56	67	62	64	57
Parents made aware of rules at parent/teacher conference	50	33	21	55	30
Response to class disruption					
Verbal reprimand	100	100	87	87	93
Long stare	100	18	33	33	77
Move closer to student	82	36	80	60	64
Name on blackboard	64	36	33	33	42
Ignore improper behaviour	82	46	27	20	40
Ignore improper behaviour and recognize positive behaviour in another student	91	100	60	80	79
Response to continuous non-compliance					
Privileges revoked	73	36	60	60	57
Extra work	27	9	20	20	19
Loss of reward	36	36	13	60	36
Detention	46	9	13	20	21
Remove from class to hallway	46	18	73	40	45
Send to principal's office	36	46	20	40	36
Note sent home to parents	46	46	33	53	43
Reinforcement for appropriate behaviour					
Verbal praise	100	100	100	100	100
Positive touching	56	46	67	40	53
Positive feedback	100	91	100	93	96
Sticker or token	100	82	87	73	81
Positive note home to parents	91	46	60	53	51
Extra privileges	46	64	80	67	70

Table 2

Maori and Non-Maori teachers' use of classroom-based management strategies

Procedure	Non-Maori	Maori
Rules		
School-wide discipline plan	90	100
Employ separate rules for classroom	71	75
Introduction of rules on the first day	54	64
Introduction of rules on the first week	37	36
Students involved in rules developed	85	100
Teachers involved in rules developed	91	100
Parents involved in rules developed	6	9
Admin involved in rules developed	6	27
Pictures or icons used	52	33
5 rules used	73	55
Posted at the front of the classroom	44	55
Rules taught in lesson format	65	55
Parents made aware of rules at	38	40
parent/teacher conference		
Response to class disruption		
Verbal reprimand	93	100
Long stare	24	17
Move closer to student	66	58
Name on blackboard	37	58
Ignore improper behaviour	44	25
Ignore improper behaviour and recognize	90	42
positive behaviour in another student		
Response to continuous non-compliance		
Privileges revoked	56	58
Extra work	12	42
Loss of reward	39	25
Detention	15	42
Remove from class to hallway	44	50
Send to principal's office	34	42
Note sent home to parents	46	33
Reinforcement for appropriate behaviour	100	100
Verbal praise	100	100
Positive touching	46	75
Positive feedback	95	100
Sticker or token	81	83
Positive note home to parents	51	50
Extra privileges	68	75

## **6.3 Response to Class Disruptions**

In this third section, teachers were asked what course of action they would take when disruptions occurred in the classroom. As can be seen in Table 1, the majority of teachers (93%) reported using a verbal reprimand, 79% ignore improper behaviour and recognize positive behaviour in another child, 77% use the "long stare" noting disapproval of behaviour, 64% move closer to the student, 42% put the child's name on the blackboard or other list and 40% ignore improper behaviour. In order of effectiveness, the teacher's ranked ignoring improper behaviour and recognizing positive behaviour first, followed by a verbal reprimand, the "long stare," moving closer to the student, putting the child's name on the board or other list, and ignoring improper behaviour.

# **6.4 Response to Continuous Non-Compliant Students**

Teachers were asked their normal course of action or combination of actions for dealing with students who are continuously non-compliant. As can be seen in Table 1, the majority of teachers reported revoking privileges (57%), removing the student from the classroom into the hallway (45%), and sending a note home to parents (43%). Fewer teachers identified loss of rewards, sending the student to the principal's office, assignment to detention, and extra work. In order of effectiveness as a management strategy, teachers identified revoking privileges as most effective, followed by removal from the classroom into the hallway, a note sent home to parents, sending the student to the principal's office, loss of reward, detention, and extra work.

Teachers were asked at what stage parents were notified of a student's inability or unwillingness to follow the rules in the classroom, and whether restraint was allowed and used as an intervention in the school. Forty percent reported that they would notify parents when misbehaviour continued for a week, while a number of teachers specified 1-2 days if the behaviour was seriously impacting on the student's learning and the learning climate of

the class/classroom. Other strategies included waiting until a behaviour pattern had developed, or when internal disciplinary methods had been exhausted.

In regard to the use of restraints, 72% stated that this procedure was not allowed to be used in the school, however, 49% reported that they had seen restraint being used in the school, with 68% reporting restraints being used more than once a day, 7%, 1-2 times a week and 7%, 1-2 times a month. Other teachers noted that the safety of the child and others in the classroom would determine whether they would use restraint or other disciplinary action. It was noted also that restraint was used as a last resort (i.e., when other less invasive methods were exhausted). Generally, restraints were administered by the principal, teacher, or an administrator (50%), followed by the teacher only (30%), or an administrator or principal only (7%).

Teachers in special schools reported using restraint on a daily basis and quite frequently (as a protective rather than a punitive procedure), because of the special needs of the study body (i.e., to prevent student's harming themselves if the student is a head banger or a runner, or a biter). It was noted also that teachers in special schools were trained in non-violent crisis physical intervention (CPI) as part of their professional role.

The final question (Q. 9) in this third section (Table 3) required teachers to describe the particular classroom model they used to support student compliance and reduce problem behaviour. A number of behaviour models and approaches were described, which were either classroom-based or school-wide programmes. These included, the "Steps to Success Programme," the "Learning Bee," the "KRIC programme" (Kids rich in character), "Canter's Assertive Discipline," "Behaviour Modification," the "Kounin disciplinary model," the "Bill Rogers model," "Te Aho Matua," the "CPI (Non-violent crisis intervention) approach," and the PB4L (Positive Behaviour for Learning) school-wide initiative.

Combinations of these models, or components from various models were described, such as, positive behaviour management based on the "Steps to Success" programme (i.e., the use of peer mediators, encouraging students to work in an assertive way, encouraging students to own their behaviour, offering choices and encouraging reflection); the use of "WITS," a school-wide approach (Walk away, Ignore and use 'I' statements, Tell someone and Agree to solve the problem); the use of some aspects of the "Kounin" disciplinary model, such as the ripple effect and managing smooth transitions. Other methods used included, the 'firm, fair, consistent approach,' the use of 'red light, green light,' for noise control and getting peers to spot great learners; the use of smilies and stickers.

A number of teachers reported that the range of models and strategies available, or synthesis of approaches, did help to prevent or reduce discipline problems in the classroom, and generally, had consistent school-wide application. The methods described were more preventative than reactive (corrective), or, as in Canter's assertive disciplinary approach (which is primarily a reactive model), the students strive to achieve rewards (comply) to avoid consequences, as in adhering with the rules (i.e., don't fight, don't swear, follow directions, complete your work).

Bill Rogers' management strategies are familiar to NZ teachers and are used in some form in a large number of schools. Teachers' who used this approach had either attended one of Roger's seminars or used the video presentation (DVD's). Rogers' behaviour cycle with its preventative, corrective, consequential and supportive phases is the key management framework/narrative structure incorporated into the video.

Some components of the Kounin model which were reported in a number of classroom management approaches include the use of the 'ripple effect' (correcting behaviour in one child to influence the behaviour of other students), 'withitness,' (being constantly aware of classroom dynamics), 'overlapping' (the ability to attend to two issues at

the same time), and 'movement management' (smooth transitions from one activity to the next to maintain momentum). These strategies are used to maximize on-task behaviour and minimize disruptions.

With the "Learning Bee" model, a beehive is displayed on the back wall. Children work together to move four learning bees along flowers and into the beehive. When the hive is full, the whole class is rewarded. Another model that appeared a number of times was the 'BLP' – Building Learning Power (Guy Claxton) approach, where children develop "learning muscles" (learn to learn) and take pride in working hard for their own self-worth (e.g., students ask themselves, "what learning muscles are being stretched?" This approach is incorporated with the curriculum key competencies, "Habits of Mind," "BED" (behaviour, excuses denial), and "OAR" (ownership, accountability, responsibility). In practice, the procedure entails students asking themselves a series of questions, such as, 'Am I playing above the line or below the line?' 'Am I leader of my life?' 'If so, I take ownership, accountability and responsibility' (OAR). Alternatively, 'Do I use blame, excuses, denial and act like a victim?' (BED).

The "Habits of Mind" framework helps students to deal with the challenges they face in the classroom (and beyond) using 16 different thinking strategies - habits of mind.

Students through the curriculum are shown how to behave intelligently, independently and reflectively when confronted with problems. In other words the focus is on how students behave when they don't know the answer (i.e., meta-cognition, persisting, managing impulsivity). The idea is that students form a habit that becomes a value over time.

The "KRIC", Kids Rich in Character programme or "Cracker Jack Kids" is life-skills oriented and is integrated with the MOE health and physical activity curriculum. This programme appeared in a number of combined approaches. The Kura Kaupapa Maori -"Te Aho Matua" framework" is based on Maori achieving success as Maori thinking. Maori

values and beliefs are embedded in the curriculum. Teachers are usually fluent speakers of the Maori language. Maori teachers in mainstream utilize this framework in their classrooms.

In the "Steps to Success" behaviour method, students get their names on the board for self-management – making good choices, showing respect, being responsible, showing pride, achievement, and for having and working in good relationships. This model also reflects the curriculum key competencies, and works on a points system. A class award is negotiated with the teacher at the beginning of the year (e.g., 50 = water-fight; 100 = extra hour for sports; 150 = lunch and dance; 200 = options). Teachers reported that the system was successful and that the students learnt quickly how to self-manage their learning and behaviour. Teachers who used this method also reported that they took great care to build a respectful culture in the classroom.

In regard to the various approaches reported by the teachers, descriptions ranged from minimalist to quite extensive explanations of the methods used. The majority of teachers appear to use a combination of behaviour methods from both the historical and contemporary paradigms, such as Kounin and Bill Rogers, Jones, Canter, Skinner, and Dreikur.

Table 3. Classroom behaviour models

Models Used	Linked to Key Competencies	Local models combined with Historical and Contemporary	Historical Behaviour models
Kounin		✓	✓
Assertive Discipline		✓	✓
Jones Model		✓	✓
Behaviour Modification		✓	✓
Guy Claxton	✓	✓	
Building Learning Power			✓
Cracker Jack Kids –	Health/PE	✓	
KRIC			
NVCI/CPI	School-wide	✓	✓
Peer Mediation		✓	✓
Habits of Mind	School-wide	✓	✓
PB4L MOE initiative	School-wide	✓	✓
Stickers Cards		✓	
Steps to Success	School-wide	✓	
Learning Bee		✓	
Te Aho Matua	Te Marautanga Reo - Maori	<b>√</b>	
Reinforcers – choice of		✓	✓
rewards			
Firm, fair, consistent		✓	✓
Bill Rogers		✓	✓
Point System		✓	
OAR/BED	From Habits of Mind	<b>√</b>	
Te Whare Tapa Wha	Cultural model	✓	
Logical Consequences Dreikurs		<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>

# **6.5 Perception Survey**

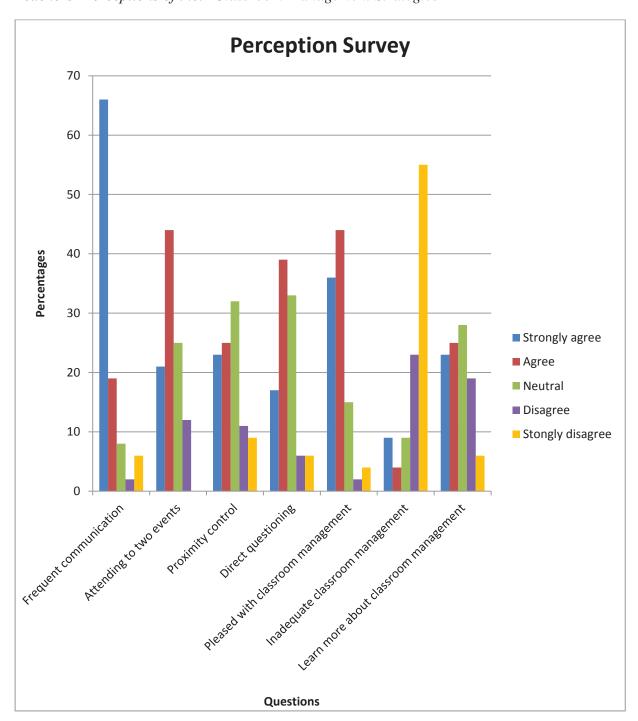
The perception questionnaire required teachers to indicate on a scale of 1-5 how each of the classroom management strategies matched their perception of their role as a teacher. Number "1" indicated that they strongly agreed and "5", that they strongly disagreed with the classroom management strategy.

As can be seen in Figure 4 - Perception Survey, in response to the use of classroom management strategies, 85% either strongly agree or agree that they communicate frequently to their students that they are aware of what they are doing in their classrooms; 64% either strongly agree or agree that they are able to attend to two events simultaneously without being diverted unduly by disruptions; 48% either strongly agree or agree that if a student was inattentive or potentially disruptive they would physically move toward that student and 56% either strongly agree or agree that they would direct questions toward a student if the student was inattentive or potentially disruptive.

As is shown in Figure 4, in response to teacher efficacy in classroom management strategies, 79% either strongly agree or agree that they are pleased with their classroom management strategies; 78% either strongly agree or agree that their classroom management techniques are adequate and 48% would like to learn more about being an effective classroom manager.

Figure 1

Teachers' Perceptions of their Classroom Management Strategies



A series of one way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to determine if there were any differences between teacher perceptions of classroom-based management strategies and level of teaching experience. As can be seen in Table 4, when teachers were asked their perceptions on each of the questions in the survey, no significant differences were found between level of teacher experience and perceptions of classroom management in this sample.

Table 4. Teacher Perceptions of classroom management

PS1 – Frequent communication	F(3,47) = 1.732, p = .173
PS2 – Attending to two events	F(3,47) = .354, p = .786
PS3 - Proximity control	F(3,47) = .618, p = .607
PS4 - Direct questioning	F(3,47) = .742, p = .532
PS5 - Pleased with classroom management	F(3,47) = 1.896, p = .143
PS6 – Inadequate classroom management	F(3,47) = .335, p = .800
PS7 – Learn more about classroom management	F(3,47) = 1.058, p = .376

## 7 DISCUSSION

The comparative study on classroom management conducted in US and Greece was the basis for this NZ study. The findings of the US/Greek survey showed very similar outcomes, in that teachers' generally self-reported frequent use of research-based strategies in the classroom. Based on this premise, there was an 'expectation' (given the similarities of Western education/teaching systems globally) there would be some correspondence with the NZ study as well. Given this understanding, this study set out to examine two questions regarding the use of classroom management strategies:

- What do NZ teachers use?
- How do these findings compare with the results of the US/Greek study?

The necessity for this study was prefaced on the apparent lack of research in NZ on this particular kaupapa. This investigation constitutes a preliminary survey of NZ teachers' use of classroom-based management strategies. As a guide to this discussion, the results from the NZ study will be interwoven with the US/Greek study.

Some assumptions emerged early in the study which translated to the authors perceived nature of teacher research generally. Hence, it was assumed that teachers' who perceived their classroom management strategies to be adequate would be using what they believed to be best-practice strategies, or that they were managing their classrooms using a combination of traditional, tried and true methods (i.e., a 'what fits, what works,' 'catch them being good,' approach 'the eyes in the back of your head' control, and a variety of strategies dependent on the student, the behavioural situation and context) as well as teachers research-based classroom management strategies that were time efficient and practical (e.g., strategy used to promptly extinguish the problem but short-lived – a surface management 'reactive' approach to classroom management to get through the curriculum).

It was understood also that teachers would be too busy practising their craft/art to concern themselves with what researchers ('outsiders'/non-practitioners) were saying about their practice. In other words, teachers perceived themselves to be competently managing behaviour and learning in the classroom with minimal reliance on specialist support such as educational psychologists, or research-based methods (including functional behavioural assessments) and comprehensive professional development. Other assumptions pertained to teachers' knowledge of effective strategies and teachers perception of their adequacy (specialized skills) to manage student behaviour in a regular/inclusive classroom. The findings of this study are discussed with these assumptions in mind, and in consideration of the limitations of the study sample generally.

A general investigation of the US/Greek study and the NZ study show no significant differences of note. The Greek study is similar to the NZ study in that the majority (87%) of the teachers taught in regular classes and posted their rules, however, 35% of the teachers had more than 20 years' teaching experience and 13% had teacher aide (or similar) support. The study was conducted in urban Athens and there were more male participants in the study. Of particular note is the number of teachers of Greek ancestry (85%). The US study was nation-wide and there is a similar male/female balance to the NZ study. As with the Greek study there were more experienced teachers 39% (20+ years of service). The majority of the teachers were Caucasian (83% compared to 53% NZ).

## 7.1 Summary of Results

The results of the current study indicate that overall, teachers are reporting the use of empirically validated classroom management strategies (e.g., rules and expectations clear, modelled, displayed; specific contingent praise for academic and social behaviour, infractions dealt with immediately) on a regular basis (rather than ad hoc process), and that a proactive, preventative methodology directed practice, rather than a reactive, punitive approach (see

Table 1). These findings are based on self-reports as actual classroom visits were not included. In this respect the findings may be exaggerated to comply with/accommodate the particularities of the survey (i.e., perceived element of social desirability bias). In other words, the NZ study shows that teachers use a range of approaches which are theoretically sound, practical, and effective for all practitioners (e.g., Rogers' behaviour cycle -"take the children seriously," "when there is respect, learning occurs," Kounins' strategies of "withitness," and "overlapping") to optimize on-task learning behaviours. These strategies are intimately connected to and embedded in positive teacher-student relationships. This theme is prevalent in current NZ research (Carpenter, McMurcy-Pilkington, & Sutherland, 2002; Macfarlane, 2006; Sullivan, 2002) and have been shown to be particularly important (teacher-student connections) for Maori and Pasifica students (Bishop & Glynn, 2000; Hawke, 2002).

This relationship perspective is woven through the varied behavioural approaches reported, with the emphasis on clear expectations (short, specific, direct instructions, scaffolding tasks with constructive feedback) and a commitment to "listening actively to students" (Biddulph, 1997). In this respect relationships are inclusive and strategies such as 'proximity,' 'the long stare,' positive touch,' and "withitness" may be viewed in some contexts as "warm demanders" (i.e., tough-minded, no-nonsense, structured and disciplined approach) rather than culturally driven norms or sensitivities. According to Margrain (2012), on responsive pedagogy, it is important to focus on the students' strengths and competencies and the "tools that work" in different situations. Ultimately, a change in behaviour necessitates some accountability. The "warm demander" (or "talk the talk") frame of mind/strategy is a cue that teachers must have high expectations and empathy to help students become empowered learners (Gay, 2000; Margrain, 2012). Classroom management then is about opportunities to learn, not just about students' behaviour (Weinstein et al., 2006).

What can be drawn from the US/Greek study relative to this perspective? One assumption is that teachers' generally use strategies that work, fit the context and cause the least interruption to the flow of lessons. Teachers in the US/Greek study have had a long history in the classroom (20+ years) and one assumes, they have accumulated their own "bag of tricks," or "tools that work." Some strategies may be viewed as reactive/punitive but when used sparingly serve a specific purpose. Moreover, students are perceptive and if the teacher-student relationship is secure, the opportunity to learn may be greater. This understanding appears to be common-place. In addition, teachers appear to be often unaware of the actual strategies they use in terms of their theoretical foundations and empirical validity. This is referred to as 'tacit knowledge,' which is embedded in the broader culture of classroom management. Given this generalisation, the US/Greek situation is not peculiar and/or culture bound. One assumes then that is the 'norm' for teachers in most Western countries.

This leads to the next assumption that a large number of text books on classroom management come out of the United States. A survey by Scales (1994) of 175 college and universities involved in teacher preparation reported that new resources, including texts on classroom management, were "very much needed" not because few resources exist but rather that the "field on classroom management and discipline is not satiated" (Evertson et al., 2006, p. 913). This implies that much of what we know about research-based methodology on classroom management has come from texts written and disseminated from the United States, which further suggests that the framework for classroom management has extensive coverage (i.e., NZ, Greece) and has evolved over time throughout Western countries. The influence of American school psychology on the development of Greek school psychology may also have affected similar teacher education growth in both countries (Akin-Little et al., 2007).

Evidence that a classroom management framework has universal application is seen in the range of classroom management perspectives NZ teachers reported using to manage

student learning and behaviour, and the fact that models have been adapted/modified and contextualised. Most of these approaches are historical (their characteristics are exemplified in the study) and appear to provide a foundation for other behaviour interventions. Teachers appear to incorporate elements from behaviourists/humanistic paradigms and integrate/align these strategies with the curriculum standards and/or classroom-based and school-wide behaviour management plans. Other models (The Learning Bee; Red Light, Green Light; Habits of Mind) are classroom based and may be reflective of the teachers' personal theory, and philosophy of behaviour.

The implication is that teachers are using models that are effective in their particular context, and there is mix of 'order and control' as well as restorative type strategies (e.g., Assertive Discipline and co-operative/positive strategies (Rogers) and peer-mediation). Certain structures within the school can also help link school values to behaviour management and this has been reiterated in the literature. Peer mediation largely targets out-of-class behaviour and many schools have established this approach in the school-wide behaviour management plan (Chaplain, 2003; Rogers, 2006).

Current research in NZ is moving away from strictly zero-tolerance type programmes to focus on restorative and culturally responsive pedagogy (Bateman & Berryman, 2008; Howard, 2003; Carpenter, 2002). This inclusive orientation could help develop the social, emotional, and behaviour competencies of students as well as their academic learning (Hester, 2002). However, it is widely accepted that inclusion in mainstream settings may be the best option for most students, but it is clearly not the best option for all students (Foreman, 2005). This reservation is based on a paucity of teacher training with diverse groups, as well as the assessment driven curricular which competes for teacher time and energy.

Teachers have identified the use of restraints in school, and this can be an issue if teachers are not trained to support the student (s) safety. Non-violent crisis intervention was noted as an effective approach to support the student(s) and necessary for teachers who work with students who are challenged by their disability (i.e., emotionally and behaviourally disordered). Results indicate that, more often than not, student restraint is 'delegated' to the teacher aide. If this is acceptable to the parent/guardian and the teacher aide is trained alongside the teacher, this is a proactive strategy as a last resort. There are other students who are challenged by the school system so that a more comprehensive and multi-disciplinary approach to managing behaviour is necessary.

Teachers identified the *Positive Behaviour for Learning approach* — a systemic, comprehensive school-wide approach to problem behaviour. The *Positive Behaviour 4 Learning* (PB4L) Action Plan was implemented by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2010. Basically, the programme is a compilation of practices and interventions, and system change strategies that have a history of empirical support. Systemic and individualized strategies are implemented through a continuum of supports based on data-based decision-making (MOE, 2010). Although evidence supports the components (e.g., positive school culture, improved interactions with whanau, less office referrals and more support for teachers), their efficacy when couched within a school-wide process has yet to emerge (Evertson et al, 2006). The MOE is not able to report on the efficacy of this programme, however, some schools have reported difficulty with the whole logistics of the programme, while other schools have reported positive incremental changes (e.g., "not fire fighting but teaching students positive habits of mind such as being organised, getting along with others, being confident, persistent and resilient") (cited in Tukutuku Korero, 2012, p. 5).

There are major assumptions in this approach about the capacity of teachers to competently manage behaviour across three interrelated systems (school-wide, classroom,

and individual) using the three tiered approach to prevention (primary, secondary, and tertiary), and with the added support of specialists. However, the programme does enable schools to highlight areas of need and provide a starting point or motivation to make changes (Andrews & Clarke, 2005). The Incredible Years Programme is another MOE initiative which provides teachers with approaches to support the learning environment for their students.

Recent research indicates that there are variable responses to positive behaviour interventions (Johansen et al., 2011). Teachers tend to see difficult classroom behaviours as coming from outside the classroom (dysfunctional whanau) and/or the students' attitude, which are intensified by inappropriate interventions and lack of management support (Procknow, 2006; Johansen et al.). Further, teachers rarely perceive their classroom management strategies as contributing to problem behaviours (Church, 2003; Procknow, 2006). Teacher efficacy can pose difficulties for the teacher and potentially hinder a students' learning progress. (Cartledge & Kourea, 2008). Conversely, teachers who use effective classroom management strategies (effective interventions) are helping all students to overcome barriers and succeed at school (Cartledge & Kourea, 2008). According to Southcombe (2010), "When we are dealing with unwanted behaviour, rather than talking about it or drawing attention to it, I consider changing the environment or changing my own behaviour in order to achieve a result" (2010, p. 59).

The findings from this study support research which indicates that positive (appropriate) behavioural interventions and supportive learning environments can bring about a change in behaviour (Jones & Jones, 2004). This preventative approach was evident in the description of classroom rules and behaviour management strategies used by the teachers. A teacher noted that she made an effort to focus on giving descriptive praise to reinforce academic as well as appropriate behaviour, however, she explained that usually the

acknowledgement was for the benefit of other children in close proximity to the target child ("ripple affect" strategy). According to Chalk and Bizo (2004), the use of direct praise was most often given to individuals for academic work (e.g., for completing a task or answering a question) and descriptive praise for behaviour. Teachers' use of positive reinforcement was conveyed in similar scenarios, with a number of teachers stating the importance of student/teacher relationships, setting limits, getting the parents on board, and focusing on the wider issues of classroom and school-wide student management. All the teachers in this study (Table 1) used verbal praise and some form of token economy as reinforcement for appropriate behaviour. However, the more recently trained teachers reported using rewards more than the experienced teachers. This may be a strategy that's perpetuated by the culture of the school or a reflection of the teachers' philosophy of discipline/behaviour.

Some teachers shared their personal beliefs and values about school policy, school climate, and the rationale/importance of rules/values school-wide. It was particularly enlightening to read about the various disciplinary methods used to manage behavioural issues in the classroom, which further emphasized the strengths-based approach employed in connecting with students 'ways of doing and knowing' (teachers 'withitness' and having a 'nose' for what's happening in the environs at all time). These 'best'practice' strategies were reiterated throughout the main body of this study.

Reference has been made to physical restraint in this discussion. Schools are reportedly experiencing an increase in physical aggression and assaultive behaviour, which may result in a student being restrained. Although 72% of participants stated that restraint was not permitted in their school, a large number of teachers indicated that they had witnessed physical restraint in the school. Of the 68% who did report the use of restraint, a number identified with a special school and expressed that this method was used as a preventative, protective procedure, rather than punishment for knowingly violating a rule

(e.g., a student with Tourette syndrome swears uncontrollably out of frustration or excitement; autistic student, hurting self and sometimes others). As previously stated, physical restraint is used when all other strategies have been exhausted. However, designated staff do need to be trained to physically restrain a student with care, welfare, safety, and security as their guiding principles.

In regard to the use of reductive measures/punishing consequences, teachers resorted to tried and true strategies (for dealing with low level type behaviours) such as warning the student, putting the students name on the board, directing a written apology; removing the student to another class for a short period, directing a visit to principal's office, and contacting a parent for an interview; with the greater emphasis being on resolving the issues in-house and as quickly as possible. Changing antecedents rather than using consequences appeared to be infiltrating the classroom process as teachers focused more on curriculum, than discipline in their written statements.

However, and as can be seen in Table 1, verbal reprimands were used more than any other strategy for dealing with infractions, however, this may be tempered with differential reinforcement of alternative behaviour, both of which, in concert could avert or reduce the frequency of the behaviour (Little et al., 2009). Anecdotal evidence and research indicates that teacher attention could have the effect of reinforcing negative behaviour (positive reinforcer for misbehaviour) if attention is understood to be the function of the behaviour. Similarly, proximity control which involves moving around the room to monitor academic and social behaviour (Colvin et al., 1997), could increase on-task behaviour or escalate off-task behaviour. By providing overt attention (standing in front of student, hands on hips) the student may 'freak out' and recruit the attention of other students. Proximity does not guarantee a reduction in behaviour (Belfiore, Basile, & Lee, 2008), and teachers need to be aware that students seek to gain attention through misbehaviour. If this is the case, proximity

control may not be the best intervention. Another observation was the use of exclusionary time out, and the prompt engagement of parents for continuous non-compliant students. This was seen to be a proactive strategy (early intervention) to avert a more serious consequence should the target student be irresponsive to a remedial plan. It is important to note that the relative experience of teachers in relation to their use of classroom management strategies showed no significant differences between the recently trained teachers and their more experienced cohorts.

The perception survey required teachers to match classroom-based management strategies with their role as a teacher. The teachers reported that their classroom-based management strategies were adequate, however, it was not clear whether teachers wanted to improve their classroom-based management strategies and/or that the question was unable to elicit this information. According to Shindler (2010) the way teachers manage behaviour is influenced by their belief systems, perspective, and attitudes (Miller, 2003; Southcombe, 2010). This means that teachers may choose an eclectic approach or focus on one approach according to the intent of the teacher – to attain self-discipline, independence, and responsibility or a well-managed task-oriented classroom.

In this study a range of perspectives were presented which suggest the influence of personal and general efficacy in relation to teachers' choice of a classroom management approach. Supporting teachers in acquiring more effective class-room-based management strategies continues to be an issue for training providers as it appears that best-practice strategies are not being put in to practice, and that practitioners are not being taught the skills required to be effective classroom managers (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Wheldall, Moltzen, & Ryba, 2000).

The role of the educational psychologist in supporting individual teachers with classroom management strategies was not examined in the survey; however, the teachers

appraised the role of the teacher aides working with individual students in mainstream classrooms.

As this was a self-report survey, the author was not able to reconcile what teachers reported and what they actually committed to in the classroom, without observations and other supporting literature. However, a study that included both perspectives (i.e., teachers' self-reported and actual use of proactive and reactive classroom management procedures) indicated that there was a strong relationship between self-report data and actual practice (Clunis-Ross, Little, & Kleinhuis, 2008), verifying the rationality of self-report measures of teacher behaviour in education research.

In response to the assumptions enumerated at the start of this discussion, the study indicated that teachers were using research-based approaches in relatively high frequencies, however, this has not addressed the scientific evidence that student problem behaviours continue to be a major cause of teacher stress and burnout, teacher confidence and efficacy, as well as student disengagement (Beaman & Wheldall, 2000, Friedman, 1995). Evers and colleagues (2000) also noted that teachers affected by emotional and physical burnout were unable to continue working and eventually resigned. In addition, teachers (i.e., schools) continue to fail public and parent scrutiny in regard to raising student achievement, providing safe environments for learning, and optimizing student engagement in acceptable academic and social behaviour, as well as desired learning outcomes.

Issues of teacher stress and burnout have been mentioned in this study and replicated with reference to *The NZ Workload Survey Report New Zealand* (2005) and the *PPTA Conference Report* (2006). The issues raised include: unmanageable workloads and lack of management support, lack of training in new curriculum documents and for collegial meetings, time-poor for preparation of teaching materials, class sizes, an assessment driven curriculum which impacts on how teachers teach, parents' ready access to teachers, and

spasmodic professional development. In appears teachers either adapt on or leave the profession.

According to Jones (2000), training in classroom management has never been a requirement of preparatory programmes to the same degree as reading instruction and other subject curricular. He also added that it was not clear how classroom management content would be taught to pre-service, future teachers. Lack of training and support in classroom management has also been identified in a sample of New Zealand teachers by Johansen and colleagues (2011). There are a number of MOE initiatives in progress to address this situation at the school level, however, it is still unclear how teacher training providers will manage this concern (Johansen et al.) and whether there will be some consistency in their approaches.

According to a survey entitled "Occupational Stress and Professional Burnout Between Primary and High School Teachers in Greece" (Antoniou, Polychroni, & Vlachakis, 2006) raised issues that include: handling students with 'difficult behaviours'; student apathy and low attainment; society's lack of respect for the profession; low pay; time constraints for preparation of materials; pressure to get students through to tertiary education (teachers' take a greater responsibility for student outcomes); student progress, and emotional exhaustion. According to this survey, younger teachers experienced higher levels of emotional exhaustion and disengagement from the profession, while older teachers experienced higher levels of stress in terms of the support they receive from government (Antoniou et al.).

Similar concerns are echoed by teachers in United States, in particular the increasing emphasis on standardized testing and public judgement, as well as safe schools and effective classroom management (Lowell & Gallup, 2002; cited in Akin-Little et al., 2007). As with the NZ study, teachers perceive they already give their best effort and more often under challenging circumstances. However, a US survey of elementary (primary) teachers on

classroom management showed that over 90% of the teachers in the survey reported they needed more training (Jones & Jones, 2004).

The anecdotal evidence for the increase in physical assaults, cyber harassment/bullying (particularly boys, but including girls) has been apparent in many school staff rooms nationwide and in the media globally. Moreover, the classroom management approach has been an area of significant intervention, with the rhetoric of what effective teachers should do to make a difference to the learning outcomes of their students.

In response to the teacher/researcher 'conflict', empirical research on classroom management and related issues by researchers outside the classroom and schools, provide partial knowledge about how teachers manage their teaching. Current trends advocate for insider and outsider research in classroom management practices to adequately capture the real work of teachers and the significant interconnections between classroom management, curriculum and teacher/student relationships (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006). The teachers who participated in this study perceived that overall their classroom management strategies were adequate. Future studies in more specific aspects of classroom strategies are warranted.

#### 8 LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER STUDIES

A number of limitations may have influenced the integrity and validity of the study outcomes. A major limitation of the study was the small and geographically narrow sample size (53 teachers from predominantly urban/suburban metropolitan Auckland) which affected/limited the generalizability of the results in relation to the question "Is this an accurate reflection of current teacher practices?" (within Auckland and New Zealand generally, and with classroom management research globally). The sample size was not sufficiently large or broad enough to determine this (with integrity).

In addition the survey was a self-report questionnaire so there was no way of checking whether teachers actually practiced what they espoused. Future studies could include actual teacher and classroom observations. However there are also caveats in the use of this methodology. Further studies could also canvas a broader geographic and include schools outside the Auckland domain (rural) and nation-wide.

The questionnaires were distributed (hand delivered) to the schools with the principal or his/her delegate informing the teachers that they were available. They were further indirectly informed that if there were any questions relating to the survey, they would contact the author or her supervisor at Massey University. Despite the enthusiasm principals conveyed via the telephone in accepting the surveys, there were long delays in teacher responses, with the author needing to contact the schools on a number of occasions to source the surveys, and indirectly, offering a gentle reminder to the teachers to return the questionnaires. Further studies could be more personable, with the researcher meeting with the teachers and establishing a relationship around the actual research agenda (kaupapa) and their participation in the process,

From a practitioner/insider perspective, this may have been a more favourable approach (i.e., 'kanohi ki te kanohi', 'face to face'). From an ethical position it was

considered a conflict of interest given the researchers current role within the Ministry of Education. More preparation in terms of a full ethical submission would favour this approach in the future. Moreover, the timing of the survey (Term 3 of the academic year), on reflection, clashed with a number of important other priorities for schools, such as the preparation and marking of examinations/tests, school reports and parent conferences, as well as Education Review Office preparations (ERO) and/or in school visits. A number of schools indicated ERO visitations during this time. Further studies would take account of these factors.

Another limitation was the survey questionnaire, in particular, the framing of some of questions, the language used and the perceived ambiguity therein, which may have affected the responses. For instance, Section 4, Teacher Perception of their role as a teacher – could refer to teachers' role as generalist teacher only; teachers' perception of classroom management; teachers' role and classroom management; classroom management strategies and what teachers perceive their role to be in managing disruptive behaviour in the classroom. In addition, the survey also required teachers to rate their level of efficacy (three questions) in the use of classroom management strategies. In future surveys this section could be extended to include other options available for accessing professional development in classroom management. The questions could also be framed more positively, although, the self-report aspect of this survey may have compensated for this particular anomaly.

Teachers were required to give an ethnic breakdown of their classrooms by percentages which were translated indifferently (e.g., actual number of students was given rather than percentages, or percentages didn't add up, or a mix of other variables). The question could have been more direct as in 'How many children in the class are.....? Other discrepancies were identified in the teacher responses, which were more indicative of the author's appraisal of the questionnaire survey than the survey tool in question. Further study

could require the development of a questionnaire that would be culturally responsive and contextually appropriate for the New Zealand teacher/teaching climate.

This study constitutes a preliminary examination of teachers' use of school-wide classroom management strategies, and the results have been reported at that level of analysis. Further research could examine other dimensions of teacher practice, such as the differences in classroom management practices in high and low decile schools; urban and rural schools; Kura kaupapa, total immersion and mainstream schools; primary and secondary schools; experienced teachers and less experienced or beginning teachers; qualified, practising teachers and non-qualified, trained professionals; gender differences in classroom management; classes with psychologist support and with teacher aides only. More specifically, 'where are teachers' choosing to work?' (e.g., are there more or less experienced teachers in low/high decile schools, are there more qualified teachers/less qualified teachers in high/low decile schools). Classroom management techniques are affected by a wide variety of variables, consequently, a broader perspective could permit generalization to other educational settings.

# 9 **CONCLUSION**

Raising student achievement and managing behaviour were the two major issues that underlie this study. The study set out to examine New Zealand teachers' use of classroom management strategies, and to make some comparisons with the US/Greek study which provided the framework for this replication. The study found that NZ teachers reported using a wide range of research-based behaviour management strategies from historical, contemporary, and contextual behaviour models to optimize student achievement and minimize disruptions to the learning environment. A positive, responsive classroom climate was elicited from the narratives.

The majority of teachers' perceived that their classroom management strategies were adequate and no significant differences were found between recently trained teachers and more experienced teachers in their use of empirically validated strategies in the classroom. An attempt was made to account for the similarities between the US/Greek study and the NZ study suggesting that teaching in western countries is a universal language/culture and that classroom management has evolved through empirical research, much of which has come out of research and textbooks from the United States. It is suggested also that the influence of American school psychology on the development of school psychology in Greece may have led to similar developments in teacher education in both countries (Akin-Little et al., 2007). It may have also had a similar influence in New Zealand.

Concern over the behaviour of disruptive students has been a NZ and world-wide issue for at least 30 years. To this point it appears that not enough has happened to address the needs of teachers required to manage students with learning and challenging behaviours both inside and outside the classroom.

This study further highlights perceived teacher efficacy in relation to classroom management, namely, the difficulty of sustaining an optimal learning climate without

organizational leadership, social/moral enhancement, constructive feedback, and organizational support. Teachers perceive they have the capabilities needed to confidently and competently manage a learning environment using effective research-based classroom management strategies, and that they will be supported to meet the goal of raising student achievement and managing student behaviour. At a professional level teachers want to be the 'best teachers they can be 'for their students and their teaching vocation.

In conclusion, classroom management is a collaborative effort and in order to raise student achievement and manage student behaviour teachers need an enhanced, accumulative skill-set that will move them from 'best practice to next practice' in accord with the changing nature of student learning and behaviour (Rogers, 2006; Chaplain, 2003). Building a culture of on-going professional learning in the school ensures that teachers can continue to do better than they are doing using effective classroom-based management strategies to raise student achievement and minimize disruptions.

The support of trained educational psychologists in schools to assist school leaders to institute school wide approaches to managing bullying and other behaviours that make schools unsafe or disrupt the learning of other students, is an area that needs to be encouraged and explored further.

## REFERENCES

- Agne, K. J., Greenwood, G. E., & Miller, L. D. (1994). Relationships between teacher belief systems and teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 27, 141 152.
- Akin-Little, K, A., Little, S. G., & Laniti, M. (2007). Teachers' use of classroom management strategies in the United States and Greece: A cross-cultural comparison. School Psychology International, 28, 53 – 62.
- Akin-Little, A., Little, S.G., Bray, M.A., and Kehle, T.J. (2009). *Behavioural Interventions in Schools. Evidence-Based Positive Strategies*. American Psychological Association: Washington.
- Alberto, P. A., & Troutman, A., C. (2009). *Applied behaviour analysis for teachers* (8th ed.), Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Educational International.
- Aloni, N. (2002). Enhancing Humanity: The philosophical foundations of humanistic education. Dordretcht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Anderson, D. (1992). Student discipline and the aims of education in government schools. Forum of Education, 48, 94 – 118.
- Andrews, D., & Clark, T. (2005). Foundations for behaviour management: A systems approach. *Kairaranga*, 6 (1), 35 38.
- Antoniou, A. S., Polychroni, F. & Vlachakis, A. N. (2005). Gender and age differences in occupational stress and professional burnout between primary and high school teachers in Greece, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 21 (7), 682 690.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change.

  \*Psychological Review, 84, 191-215.
- Bateman, S., & Berryman, M. (2008). He hui whakatika: Culturally responsive, self-determining interventions for restoring harmony. *Kairaranga*, 9(1), 6-12.

- Beaman, R. (2006). *Behavioural interactions in the secondary school between teachers and students: What they say, what they do.* Unpublished dissertation, Macquarrie University, Sydney, Australia.
- Beaman, R., & Wheldall, K. (2000). Teachers' use of approval and disapproval in the classroom. *Educational Psychology*, 20, 431 446.
- Bear, G. (2005). Positive Psychology and School Discipline: Positive is not simply the opposite of punitive. *NASP Communique*, Vol. 1, 39, 5, (2011).
- Belfiore, P. J., Basile, S. P., & Lee, D. L. (2008). Using a high probability command sequence to increase class and compliance: The role of behaviour momentum. *Journal of Behaviour Education*. 17 (2), 160 – 170).
- Bennett, T. (2010). *The Behaviour Guru. Behaviour management solutions for teachers*.

  Continuum International.
- Bezzina, M., & Butcher J. (Eds.) (1990). Teacher efficacy and classroom management beliefs. In 'The changing face of professional education': Collected papers of the Australian Association for Research in Education annual conference (pp. 91 98).

  North Ryde, NSW: Australian Association for Research in Education.
- Bibou-Nakou, I., Kiosseoglou, G., & Stogiannidou, A. (2000). Elementary teachers' perceptions regarding school behaviour problems: Implications for school psychological services. *Psychology in the Schools*, 37, 123 134.
- Biddulp, S. (1997). Raising boys. Why boys are different and how to help them become happy and well-balanced men. Sydney: Finch Publishing.
- Billingsley, B. S. (1993). Teacher retention and attrition in special and general education: A critical review of the literature. *The Journal of Special Education*, 27, 137 174.
- Bishop, R., & Berryman, M. (2006). *Culture speaks: Cultural relationships and classroom learning*. Wellington, New Zealand. Huia Publishers.

- Bishop, R., & Glyn, T. (2000). Kaupapa Maori messages for the mainstream. SET, 4 8.
- Brophy, J. (2006). History of research in classroom management. In C. Evertson & C. Weistein (Eds). *Handbook of Classroom management: Research, practice and contemporary issues.* (pp. 17 43). Mahweh, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. *Review of Education Research*, *51*, 5 32.
- Brophy, J. (1988). Educating teachers about managing classrooms and students. *Teaching* and *Teacher Education*, 4, 1-8.
- Brophy, J., & McCaslin, M. (1992). Teachers reports of how they perceive and cope with problem behaviours. *Elementary School Journal*, 93, 3 68.
- Brophy, J. (1999). Perspectives of classroom management: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. In H. J. Freiberg (Ed.), *Beyond behaviourism: Changing the classroom management paradigm* (pp. 43 56). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brown, E. (1952). *Managing the classroom: The teacher's part in school administration.*New York: Ronald Press.
- Buchanan, R., Gueldner, B. A., Tran, O. K., & Merrell, K. W., (2009). Social and emotional learning in classrooms: A survey of teachers' knowledge, perceptions, and practices. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, 25, (187 203).
- Burden, P. (2006). Classroom Management: Creating a Successful K-12 Learning

  Community in todays' classroom. Wiley: Jossey Bass Education.

  Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- Carpenter, V., McMurcy-Pilkington, C., & Sutherland, S. (2002). Kaaiaka Toa: Highly successful teachers in low decile schools. *SET*, 4 8.

- Cartledge, G. (2005). Behaviour rehearsal. In M. Hersen, G. Sugai, & R. Horner (Eds.).

  Encyclopaedia of behaviour modification and cognitive behaviour therapy. Vol. 3

  (pp. 1198 1200). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Cartledge, G., & Kourea, L. (2008). Culturally responsive classrooms for culturally diverse students with and at risk for disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 74, (pp. 351 371).
- Castillo, H., & Bishop, R. (2003). *Culture Counts: Changing Power Relations in Education*.

  Zed Books Ltd.
- Chalk, K., & Bizo, L. A. (2004). Specific praise improves on-task behaviour and numeracy enjoyment: A study of Year 4 pupils engaged in the numeracy hour. *Educational Psychology in Practice*. 20, (pp. 335 351).
- Chaplain, R. (2003). *Teaching without disruption: A model for managing pupil behaviour in the primary school.* Routledge Falmer.
- Charles, C. M. (2008). *Building classroom discipline* (9<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Charles. C. M. (2002). Essential elements of effective discipline. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Charles. C. M. (2000). Looking in classrooms (8th Ed.). New York Longman.
- Church, J. (2003). Church Report: The definition, diagnosis and treatment of children and youth with severe behaviour difficulties. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- Cowley, S. (2001). *Getting the Buggers to Behave*. Continuum: London.
- Clunies-Ross, P., Little, E. & Kienhuis, G. (2008). Self-reported and actual use of proactive and reactive classroom management strategies and their relationship with teacher stress and student behaviour. *Educational Psychology*, 28, 693 710.

- Colvin, G., Sugai, G., & Patching, D. (1993). Precorrection: an instructional approach for managing predictable problem behaviours. *Intervention in the School and Clinic*, 28, 143 150.
- Colvin, G., Kame'enui, E. J., & Sugai, G. (1993). Reconceptualizing behaviour management and school-wide discipline in general education. *Education and Treatment of Children, 16*, 361-381.
- Colvin, G., Sugai, G., Good, R., & Lee, Y. (1997). Using active supervision and precorrection to improve transition behaviours in an elementary school. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 12, 344 363.
- Craig, S. (2008). Cognitive Behaviour Therapy for Psychosis: Current evidence and future directions. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, Vol. 36 (6), 705 712.
- Crosby, S., Jolievette, K., & Patterson, D. (2006). Using precorrection to manage inappropriate academic and social behaviours. *Beyond Behaviour*, 16, 14 17.
- Darling Hammond, L. (1999). Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence. University of Washington Center for the study of Teaching and Policy.
- DfE (1994). *Code of Practice. Department for Education and Training*. Melbourne: Author. Donovan, M. S., & Cross, C. T. (2002). Miniority students in special and gifted education. Washington DC: National Academy Press. Elmore, R. (2000). Building a new structure for leadership. Washington DC: The Albert Shanker Institute.
- Doyle, W. (1986, 2006). Classroom organization and management. In M. C. Wittrock (Eds), Handbook of research on teaching (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., pp. 392 – 431). New York: Macmillan.
- Dreikurs, R., Gunwald, B.B., & Pepper, F. C. (1982). *Maintaining sanity in the classroom: Illustrating teaching techniques.* New York: Harper Collins.

- Durie, M. (1998, 2007). *Whaiora: Maori Health Development*. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.), Auckland: Oxford University Press, 1998.
- Durie, M. (2003). Launching Maori Futures. Huia Publishers: Wellington.
- Dunlap, G., Foster-Johnson, L., Clarke, S., Kern, L., & Childs, K. E. (1995). Modifying activities to produce functional outcomes: Effects on the disruptive behaviours of students with disabilities. *Journal of the Association of for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 20, 248 258.
- Edwards, C. H. (2000). Classroom Discipline and Management. Wiley: New York.
- Ellis, S., & Tod, J. (2009). *Behaviour for Learning. Proactive approaches to behaviour management.* New York: Routledge.
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist*, *36*, 103 112.
- Evers, W. J. G., Gerrichhauzen, J., & Tomic, W. (2000). The revention and ending of burnout among secondary school teachers. Technical report. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No ED 439091.
- Evertson, C. M., & Weinstein, C. S. (Eds.) (2006). *Handbook of Classroom management:*\*Research, Practice, and Contemporary Issues. Mahweh, N. J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Evertson, C. M., & Neal, K. W. (2005). *Looking into learner-centred classrooms: Implications for classroom management*. NEA Benchmarks for Best Practices

  Working Paper Series). Washington DC: NEA Research Division.
- Farrell, P. (2005). Teachers, parents and classroom behaviour: A psycho-social approach. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, (pp. 336 -338).

- Fetso, T., & McClure, J. (2005). Educational psychology: An integrated approach to classroom decisions. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Foreman, P. (2005), Inclusion in Action. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Victoria: Nelson Australia, Pty, Ltd.
- Fraser, D., Moltzen, R., & Ryba, K. (Eds.) (2000). *Learners with special needs in Aotearoa*New Zealand (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Gable, R., Hester, P., Rock, M., & Hughs, K. (2009). Back to basics: Rules Praise, Ignoring and reprimands revisited. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 44, 195 205.
- Gable, R. A., Hendrickson, J. M., Tonelson, S. M., & Van Acker, R. (2002). Integrating academic and non-academic instruction for students with emotional/behavioural disorders. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 25, 66 73.
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally Responsive Teaching: Theory, Research and Practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gersham, F. M., Watson, T. S., & Skinner, C. H. (2001). Functional behavioural assessment: Strategies, strategies, and future directions. *School Psychology Review*, *30*, 156-172.
- Gettinger, M., & Kohler, K. M. (2006). Process outcome approaches to classroom management and effective teaching. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice and contemporary issues* (pp. 73 – 96). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Glasser, W. (1997). A new look at school failure and school success. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 78, (8), (pp. 597 602).
- Glasser, W. (1969). Schools without failure. New York: Harper & Row.
- Glynn, T., & Berryman, M. (2005). Understanding and responding to students behaviour difficulties. In D. Fraser, R Motzen & K. Ryba (Eds). *Learners with special needs in Aotearoa New Zealand*, (pp. 294 315. South Bank Victoria. Thomson, Dunmore Press.

- Good, L. T., & Brophy, J. E. (2002). Looking in classrooms. (6<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York: Longman.
- Good, L. T. (1982). Classroom Research. What we know and what we need to know. Report No 9018. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No ED 251 436)
- Greene, R. W. (2008). Lost at school. Why our kids with behavioural challenges are falling through the cracks and how we can help them. New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc.
- Grossman, H. (2004). *Classroom behaviour management for diverse and inclusive schools* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). New York: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Guerra, N. G., Boxer, P., & Kim, T. E. (2005). A cognitive-ecological approach to serving students with emotional and behavioural disorders: Application to aggressive behaviour. Behaviour Disorders, 30, (3), 227-288.
- Gunter, P., Jack, S., DePaepe, P., Reed, T., & Harrison, J. (1994). An analysis of the relationship of teachers' reported use of classroom management strategies on types of classroom interactions. *Journal of Behavioural Education*, 6, (pp. 67 87).
- Hall, D., & Langton, B. (2006). Perceptions of the status of teachers. NZ Teachers' Council:Ministry of Education.
- Harker, R., & Chapman, J. (2006). Teacher numbers in New Zealand.: Attrition and Replacement. *New Zealand Journal of teachers' Work*, Volume 3, Issue 1, 42 55.
- Hastings, R. P., & Bham, M. S. (2003). The relationship between student behaviour patterns and teacher burnout. *School Psychology International*, 24, 115 127.
- Hattie, J. (2003). *New Zealand education snapshot: With reference to the years* 1 13. Presentation to Knowledge Wave, 2003 Leadership Forum. Auckland, New Zealand: University of Auckland.
- Hawke, K. (2002, 2008). School Decline: Predictors, Process and Intervention. Learning Media: Ministry of Education.

- Hawke, K., Tumana Cowley, E., Hill, J., & Sutherland, S. (2002). The importance of the teacher-student relationship for Maori and Pasifika student *SET*, 44 29.
- Henley, M. (2006). *Classroom management: a proactive approach*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hester, P. (2002). What teachers can do to prevent behaviour problems in schools. *Preventing School Behaviour*, 47, 33-38.
- Higgins, J., Williams, R., & McLaughlin, T. F. (2001). The effects of a token economy employing instructional consequences for a third-grade student with learning disabilities: A data-based case study. *Education and Treatment of Children, 24*, (pp. 99 106).
- Howard, T. C. (2003). Culturally relevant pedagogy: Ingredients for critical teacher reflection. *Theory into Practice*, 42, (pp. 195 202).
- Hoy, A., Hoy, W. & Kunz, N. (2008). The positioning of newly qualified secondary teachers' images of their best teaching. JET: Routledge, New York.
- Infantino, J., & Little, E. (2005). Students' perceptions of classroom behaviour problems and the effectiveness of different disciplinary methods. *Educational Psychology*, 25, 491.
- Ingersoll, R. M., & Smith, T. M. (2003). The wrong solution to the teacher shortage. *Education Leadership*, 60 (8), 30 – 33.
- Jennings, P. A. (2007). *Cultivating emotional balance in the classroom*. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, San Fransisco.
- Johansen, A., Little, S. G. & Akin-Little, A. (2011). An examination of New Zealand teachers' attributions and perceptions of behaviour, classroom management and the level of formal teacher training received in behaviour management. *Kairaranga*, 12 (2), 3 12.
- Jones, F. (1987). Positive classroom instruction. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Jones, F., & Jones, L.S. (2001). *Comprehensive Classroom management*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Jones, F. (2007). Tools for teaching. CA: Frederic H. Jones & Associates Inc.
- Jones, V., & Jones, L. (2004). *Comprehensive classroom management: creating communities* of support and solving problems, (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Kauffman, J. M. (2005). *Characteristics of emotional and behavioural disorders of children* and youth (8<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Kauffman, J. M., Mostert, M. P., Trent., S C. & Pullen, P. L. (2006). *Managing classroom behaviour: A reflective case-based approach* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Kazdin, A. E. (2001). *Behaviour modification in applied settings*. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA:Wadsworth.
- Kelly, M. L., & Stokes, T. F. (1984). Student-teacher contracting with goal setting for maintenance. *Behaviour Modification*, 8, 223 224.
- Kerr, M. M., & Nelson, C. M. (2006). *Strategies for addressing behaviour problems in the classroom* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Kern, L., & Clemens, N. H. (2007). Antecedent strategies to promote appropriate classroom behaviour. *Psychology in the Schools*, *44*, 65-75.
- Kohn, A. (1993). Punished by rewards: The trouble with gold stars, incentive plans, A's, praise and other bribes. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Kodak, T., Northup, J., & Kelley, M. (2007). An evaluation of the types of attention that maintain problem behaviour. *Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis*, 40, 167 171.
- Kounin, J. (1970, 1977). Discipline and group management in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

- Lane, K. L., Menzies, H. M., Bruhn, A. L. & Crnobori, M. (2011). What Works for Special-Needs Learners. In K. R. Harris & S. Graham (Eds.). *Managing Challenging Behaviors in Schools. Research-Based Strategies That Work.* New York: Guilford Press.
- Lane, K. L., Kalberg, J. R., & Menzies, H. M. (2009). *Developing school-wide programs to prevent and manage problem behaviours –A step by step approach*. Guilford Press:

  New York.
- Lewis, R. (2009). *Understanding Pupil Behaviour: Classroom management techniques for teachers*. Routledge, New York.
- Lewis, R. (2001). The discipline dilemma. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Melbourne: ACER Press.
- Lewis, T. (2004). In L.M. Bullock, R. A. Gable, & K. L. Melloy (Eds.). Classroom level supports for children with learning and behaviour problems. Effective interventions for classrooms, schools and communities Making a difference in the lives of students with learning and behaviour problems (pp. 15 18). Reston, VA: Council for Children with Behaviour Disorders.
- Lewis, R., Romi, S., Qui, X., & Katz, Y. J. (2003). *A comparison of teachers classroom discipline in Australia, China and Israel*. Unpublished manuscript, La Trobe University, Bundoora, Australia.
- Lewis, R., Colvin, G., & Sugai, G. (2000). The effects of precorrection and active supervision on the recess behaviour of elementary students. *Education and treatment of Children*, 23, 109 121.
- Little, E. (2003). *Kids behaving badly: Teacher strategies for classroom behaviour*. Frenchs Forest Australia, Australia: Pearson Education.

- Little, S. G., & Akin-Little, K. A. (2003). Classroom management. In W. T. O'Donohue & J. Fisher (Eds.). General Strategies and Empirically Supported Techniques of Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (pp. 173 178). Hoboken, NJ:Wiley.
- Little, S. G., & Akin-Little, K. A. (2008). Psychology's contribution to classroom management. *Psychology in the Schools*, 45, 227-234.
- Little, S.G., Akin-Little, K. A., & Cook, C. R.. (2009). Classroom application of reductive strategies. In A. Akin-Little, S.G., Little, M.A. Bray, & T. J. Kehle (Eds.), *Behavioral interventions in schools: Evidence-based positive strategies* (pp. 171-188).

  Washington, DC: APA Books.
- Little, E., & Hudson, A. (1998). Conduct problems and treatment across home and school: A review of the literature. *Behaviour Change*, 15, 213 227.
- Little, E., Hudson, A., & Wilks, R. (2002). Conduct problems across home and school.

  \*Behaviour Change, 17, 1 9.
- Luisella, J. K. (Ed.). (2006). Antecedent assessment and intervention: Supporting children and adults, with developmental disabilities in community settings. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.
- Maag, J. W. (2004). *Behaviour management: From theoretical implications to practical applications*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
- Maag, J. K. (2001). Rewarded by punishment: Reflections on the disuse of positive reinforcement in the schools. *Exceptional Children*, 67, 173 186.
- Madsen, C. H., Jr., Becker, W. C., & Thomas, D. R. (1986). Rules, Praise, And Ignoring: Elements Of Elementary Classroom Control. *Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis*, 25, 369-377.
- Malone, J. C. (2003). Advances in behaviourism: It's not what it used to be. *Journal of Behavioural Education*, 12, 85-89.

- Margolis, J., & Nagel, L. (2006). Education reform and the role of administrators in mediating teacher stress: A case study of the lived experience of school development. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 33 (4), 143 – 159).
- Margrain, V., & Macfarlane, A. H. (2012). Responsive Pedagogy: Engaging Restoratively with Challenging Behaviour. NZCER Press
- Martin, M., & Norwich, B. (1991). The integration of research findings on classroom management into a programme for use in teacher education. *British Educational Research Journal*, 17, 333 351
- Marzano, R. J., Marzano, J. S., & Pickering, D. J. (2003). *Classroom management that works*. Alexandra, VA: ASCD.
- Maslow, A. H. (1968). *Toward a Psychology of Being* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- McAtee, J. K., Carr, E. G., Schulte, C. (2004). A contextual assessment inventory for problem behaviour: Initial development. *Journal of Positive Behaviour Interventions*, 6, 148 165.
- McCormack, A. (1994). The implementation of a classroom management system by preservice physical education teachers: The effect of the practicum. Masters thesis, The University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia.
- Macfarlane, A. H. (2003). *Culturally inclusive pedagogy for Maori students experiencing*learning and behaviour difficulties. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.
- Macfarlane, A. H. (2000). Listening to culture: Maori principles and practices applied to support classroom management. *Set*, 2, 23 28.

- Macfarlane, A. H. (2006). Inclusion and Maori ecologies: An educultural approach. In D. Fraser, R. Moltzen & K. Ryba (Eds), *Learners with special needs in Aotearoa New Zealand* (pp. 99 116). Victoria Austaralia: Thomson Dunmore Press.
- Macfarlane, A., & Procknow, J. E. (2008). *Classroom management: Tailoring teaching for the needs of diverse learners*. Paper presented at the NZARE Conference (2008). Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- McKee, W. T., & Witt, J. C. (1990). Effective teaching: A review of instructional and environmental variables. In T. B. Gutkin & C. R. Reynolds (Eds). *The handbook of school psychology* (pp. 823 847). New York: Wiley.
- Merrett , F., & Wheldall, K. (1986). Observing Pupils and teachers in classrooms (OPTIC):

  A behavioural observation schedule for use in schools. *Educational Psychology*, 6, 57 70.
- Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1993). How do teachers learn to manage classroom behaviour?

  A study of teachers' opinions about their initial training with special reference to classroom behaviour in intermediate classrooms. *Educational Studies*, 19, 91 106.
- Metge, J. (2001). Korero tahi. Auckland: Auckland University Press.
- Miller, M. (2003). *Theories of developmental psychology* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York, Worth. Ministry of Education. (2010). *Positive Behaviour for learning: Action plan 2010* 2014. Wellington: Author.
- Ministry of Education. Ka Hikita Managing for Success: The Maori Education Strategy (2008 2012).
- Nash, R. (2002). Numbers and narratives and further reflections in the sociology of education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, Vol. 23 (3), 397 412. Routledge.

- Nash, R. (1998, 2003). Inequality/difference in New Zealand education. Social reproduction and the cognitive habitus. *BJS*, *Sociology of Education*, Vol. 13 (2), 171 194.
- Parsonson, B. S., Baer, D. M., & Baer, A., M. (1974). The application of generalized correct contingencies: An evaluation of a training programme. *Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis*, 7, 427 437.
- Pere, R. (2002). Cultural diversity is weaving the strands together. Reading Forum. NZ (1), 32-35.
- Petty, G. (2006). Evidence Based Teaching. A Practical Approach. Nelson Thornes Ltd.

  Delta Place. Cheltenham
- Porter, L. (, 2000, 2007). *Student behaviour: Theory and practice for teachers* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Crows Nest, New South Wales, Australia: Allen and Unwin.
- Prochnow, J. E. (1997). Functional behaviour assessment of children. *Psychological Society Bulletin*, 90, 18-21.
- Prochnow, J. E., & Bourke, R. (2001). What are we doing for difficult kids and is it helping?

  New Zealand Principal, 16, 4-7.
- Prochnow, J. E. (2008). *Understanding learners with behaviour difficulties: Study guide*.

  Palmerston North: Massey University.
- Procknow, J. E. (2006). Barriers towards including students with difficult behaviour in regular classrooms. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 41, 329 347.
- Poskitt, J. (2001). Schools doing it for themselves. Successful professional development, SET (1), 2001, 4-7.
- Poulou, M., & Norwich, B. (2000). Teachers causal attributions, cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses to students with emotional and behavioural difficulties.

  \*British Journal of Educational Psychology. 70, 559 582.

- Randolph, C. H., & Evertson, C. M. (1994). Images of management for learner-centred classrooms. *Action in Teacher Education*. *XVI* (1), 55 63.
- Reed, D. F., (1991). Effective classroom managers in the middle school. *Middle School Journal*, 23, 16 21.
- Rhode, G., Jensen, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993) *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CA: Sopris West.
- Rice, J. K. (2003). Teacher quality: *Understanding the effectiveness of teacher attributes*. Washington, DC: The Economic Policy Institute.
- Rogers, B. (2000). Classroom Behaviour. A practical guide to effective teaching and behaviour. London: Books Education.
- Rogers, B. (2006). Management beyond the classroom: Behaviour consequences. *In classroom behaviour: A practical guide to effective teaching, behaviour management, and colleague support* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Paul Chapman.
- Rogers, B. (2011). *Classroom Behaviour: A practical guide to effective teaching, behaviour management and colleague support* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.), Sage Publications.
- Ross, J. A., (1994). Beliefs that make a difference: The origins and impacts of teacher efficacy. (ERIC Document Reproduction. Service No. ED 379 216).
- Safran, S., & Oswald, K. (2003). Positive behaviour supports: can schools reshape disciplinary practices? *Council for Exceptional Children*, 69, 361 373.
- Scully, A. (1996). Teaching students about classroom management: The importance of active engagement, modelling and reflection. *Nature of the Learner Forum:*Proceedings of a Forum Conducted by the Board of Studies (pp. 45 47). North Sydney, NSW, New South Wales Board of Studies.
- Shindler, J. (2010). Transformative classroom management positive strategies to engage all students and promote a psychology of success. San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

- Solomon, R. W., & Wahler R. G. (1973). Peer reinforcement control of classroom problem behaviour. *Journal of Applied Behaviour Analysis*, 6, 49 56.
- Soodak, L. C., & Podell, D, M. (1994). Teachers' thinking about difficult-to-teach-students. *Journal of Educational Research*, 88, 44 51.
- Southcombe, K. (2010). Talking matters: Often biting your tongue leads to less pain.

  \*Teachers Matter\*, 14, 58 59. Spectrum Education: Christchurch.
- Stage, S., & Quiroz, D. (1997). A meta-analysis of interventions to decrease disruptive behaviour in the public education setting. *School Psychology Review*, 26, 333 368.
- Stevenson, J., Linfoot, K., & Martin, A. J. (2000). Behaviours of concern to teachers in the early years of school. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 47, 225 235.
- Stoll, L., & Fink, D. (1996). Changing our schools: Linking school effectiveness and school improvement. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.
- Stoll, L., Fink, D. & Earle, L. (2002). Its about learning and its about time. London:

  Routledge Falmer Press.
- Sullivan, K. (2002). Initial encounters in the classroom. SET(2), 29 34.
- Sutherland, K. M., Alder, N., & Gunter, P. (2003). The effects of varying rates of opportunities to respond to academic requests on the classroom behaviour of students with EBD. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioural Disorders*, 11, 239 248.
- Sutherland, K. M., & Wehby, J., & Copeland, S. (2000). Effect of varying rates of behaviour specific praise on the on-task behaviour of students with EBD. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioural Disorders*, 8, 2 8
- Sutherland, K. M., & Wehby, J. (2001). The effects of self-evaluation on teacher behaviours in classrooms for students with emotional and behavioural disorders. *Journal of Special Education* 35, 161 171.

- Swinson, J., & Harrop, A. (2005). An examination of the effects of a short story course aimed at enabling teachers in infant, junior and secondary schools to alter the verbal feedback given to their pupils. *Educational Studies*, *31*, 115-129.
- Tauber, R. T. (2007). Classroom Management Sound Theory and Effective Practice.

  Praeger:London
- Tomlinson, C.A. & Imbeau, M.B. (2010). *Leading and Managing a differentiated Classroom*. ASCD. Alexandria, Virginia USA.
- Van der Kley, M. (1997). Disruptive Children and how to manage their behaviour- a life line for teachers. Linwood Guidance Center. Purse Willis & Aiken Ltd: Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Walker, H. M. (1995). *The acting-out child: coping with classroom disruption* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.
- Walker, H. M., Colvin, G., & Ramsey, E. (1999). *Antisocial behaviour in schools: strategies* and best practices (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brookes/Cole.
- Walker, H. M., Ramsey, E., & Gresham, F. M. (2004). *Antisocial behaviour in school:*Strategies and best practices (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D. & Walberg, H. J. (1993, 1994). What helps students learn? Alexandria, VA, Vol. 51 (4), 74 79.
- Watson, M. & Ecken, L. (2003). Learning to trust: Transforming difficult elementary classrooms through developmental disciple. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wilson, J., & Fehring, H., (1995). Keying into assessment: Strategies, case studies, classroom management. Melbourne: Oxford University Press

- Wehby, J, H., & Lane, K. L. (2009). Proactive instructional strategies for classroom management. In A. Akin-Little, S.G., Little, M.A. Bray, & T. J. Kehle (Eds.), *Behavioral interventions in schools: Evidence-based positive strategies* (pp. 141-156). Washington, DC: APA Books.
- Weinstein, C. S., Tomlinson-Clarke, S. & Curran, M. (2004). Toward a conception of culturally responsive classroom management techniques. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 55, (pp. 25 38).
- Weinstein, C. S. (1999). Reflections on best practices and promising programs, In Frieberg (Ed.) *Beyond Behaviourism: Changing the classroom management paradigm* (pp. 145-163). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Weinstein, C. S. (2004). Transformational leadership and the resource development professional. Wiley: New York.
- Weinstein, C. S. (2002). *Reaching higher: The power of expectations in schooling*.

  Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wheldall, K. (1991). Managing troublesome classroom behaviour in regular schools: A positive teaching perspective. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 38, (pp. 99 116).
- Wolfgang, C. (2005). Solving school discipline and classroom management problems:

  Methods and models for today's teachers. New York: Wiley.
- Wright-Gallo, G., Higbee, T., Reagon, K., & Davey, B. (2006). Classroom-based functional analysis and intervention for students with emotional/behavioural disorders.

  \*Education for Treatment of Children, 29, 421 436.
- Wragg, C., M. (1995). Classroom management: The perspectives of teachers, pupils and researcher. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 384 578.

- Zins, J. E., Weissberg, R. P., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (2004) . *Building academic success on social and emotional learning*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Zins, J. E., Peyton, J., Weissberg, R. P., & Unte O'Brien, M. (2007). Social and emotional learning for successful school performance. In G. Matthews, M. Z eidner, & R. D. Roberts (Eds), *Emotional development and intelligence: Knowns and unknowns* (pp. 376 395). New York: Oxford University Press.

# Appendix A



**Educational Psychology** 

School of Education at Albany, Massey University

#### PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

10 August 2011

Project Title: Teachers' Use of Classroom management Practices

#### Tena koe

My name is Charlotte Nasey and I am conducting student research for a Masters in Educational Psychology.

#### **Project Description and Invitation**

The purpose of this study is to examine teachers' self-reported use of classroom management practices to manage student behaviour and increase instructional learning.

A growing body of best evidence research on Classroom management indicates that behaviour management issues take up a considerable amount of teacher time and leads to significant teacher stress and burnout (Little, Hudson, & Wilks, 2000).

This study will give some indication of what current teacher practice looks like and how this compares with international research on this kaupapa.

A range of Primary Schools within the Auckland metropolitan area will be invited to participate in this project. If you are a registered teacher you are invited to participate in this study. Your participation is voluntary. No identifiable data is required.

### What happens in the study?

You will be asked to complete a survey questionnaire in your own time and to return the completed questionnaire in a reply paid envelope. The questionnaire will take approximately 10 - 15 minutes to complete.

#### What are the benefits?

The benefit of your participation is the opportunity to present your perspective on this important kaupapa. The benefit to the researcher is the completion of the Masters in Education Psychology.

# **Participant's Rights**

Completion and return of the survey questionnaire implies consent. You have the right to:

- Decline to answer any particular question
- Ask any questions about the study at any time during participation
- Be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded

## **Participant Concerns**

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor.

#### **Researcher Contact Details**

	Charlotte Nasey			
Email:	nasey@xtra.co.nz			
Telephone:	09 410 6294 (Home)			
	09 487 1123 (Work)			
Project Supervisor Contact details				
	Dr Steven Little			
Email:	s.little@massey.ac.nz			
Telephone:	09 414 0800 ext 41595			

#### **Low Risk Notification**

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researchers named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you may wish to raise with someone other than the researchers, please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director, Research Ethics, telephone (06) 3505249 email <a href="mailto:humanethics@massey.ac.nz">humanethics@massey.ac.nz</a>

# Appendix B

# **Assessment of Classroom-Wide Management Practices**

**Directions**: The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate classroom-wide child management systems used by primary school teachers in the field. We know that your time is limited and valuable so we greatly appreciate your support of this project. Please answer the following questions regarding your classroom management system. Do not include your name. Your answers will be kept in confidence.

<u>I. I</u>	<u>Demographics</u>
	Your gender: Female Male Your ethnic background (check one):
	Maori New Zealand European Pacifica Asian
	Other (please specify)
3.	Your educational background:
	Bachelor's Master's Diploma PG. Diploma Doctorate
4.	Number of years you have been teaching:
	0-5 6-10 11-20 over 20
5.	Total school enrollment:
6.	School decile:
7.	Level (s) you teach
8.	Please indicate what sort of classroom you teach:
	Regular education classroom Special education classroom
	Bi-Lingual/ESL classroom Alternative classroom -inclusion classroom
9.	Racial/Ethnic breakdown of classroom by percentage:
	% Caucasian % Maori % Pacifica
	% Asian % Other
10.	Type of district (please check which applies):
	Urban Suburban Other (please specify)
11.	Do you have a teacher's aide or assistant? YesNo

# II. Classroom Rules

1.	Are you required to follow a school-wide discipline plan for inappropriate behavior?  Yes No
2.	Do you employ a separate set of rules for your classroom? Yes No
	(if no, skip to Section 111, Classroom ChildManagement System, page 4)
3.	When are the rules introduced to the class? The first day of school
	The first week of school
	Other (please explain):
1.	Who is involved in the development of class rules? (check all who apply)  Students Parent(s) Administrator(s) Other
5.	If you teach younger children (K-3), are pictures or icons employed for each rule? Yes No
5.	How many rules do you normally use in your classroom?
7.	Where are the classroom rules posted? (check all that apply) Front of classroom Back of classroom
	Side of classroom Not posted
	Other (please explain):
3.	How are the rules introduced to students?  Taught in lesson format, like other curriculum material
	Read by teacher and students copy Other
€.	How are parents made aware of the rules? (check all that apply) Letter sent through the mail
	Letter sent home by way of students
	Discussed during parent/teacher conference
	Other
10.	Please list below your rules in rank order of importance in your classroom:

# III. Classroom Child-Management System

J	of action or do you <u>normally</u> engage? (check all that apply)  Verbally reprimand child
	The "long stare" noting disapproval with behavior
	Move closer to child
	Name on the blackboard or put on list
	Ignore improper behavior
	Ignore improper behavior and recognize positive behavior in another child
	Other (please explain)
1	b. Of the item(s) <b>you checked</b> in the previous question, rank order them with "1" being the most effective ( <i>PLEASE RANK ONLY THOSE ITEM(S) YOU CHECKED IN THE PREVIOUS QUESTION</i> )  Verbally reprimand child
	The "long stare" noting disapproval with behavior
	Move closer to child
	Name on the blackboard or put on list
	Ignore improper behavior
	Ignore improper behavior and recognize positive behavior in another child
	Other (please explain)
2	2. For the <u>continuous non-compliant offender</u> , what is your normal course of action or combination of actions (check all that apply)  Privileges revoked (i.e. no breaktime or no PE time)
	Extra work (class or homeworkthis would include making students write lines)
	Loss of reward (i.e. stickers)
	Assignment to detention
	Removal from classroom into the hallway
	Sent to the principal's office
	Note sent home to parents
	Corporal punishment
	Other (please explain):

2b	Of the item(s) <u>you checked</u> in the previous question, rank order them with "1" being the most effective ( <i>PLEASE RANK ONLY THOSE ITEM(S) YOU CHECKED IN THE PREVIOUS QUESTION</i> )
	Privileges revoked (i.e. no breaktime or no PE time)
	Extra work (class or homeworkthis would include making students write lines)
	Loss of reward (i.e. stickers)
	Assignment to detention
	Removal from classroom into the hallway
	Sent to the principal's office
	Note sent home to parents
	Corporal punishment
	Other (please explain):
3.	When are parents notified of a child's inability or unwillingness to follow the rules in the classroom? Following the first infraction
	When misbehavior has continued for 1 day
	When misbehavior has continued for 1 week
	Other (please explain):
4.	Is restraint allowed in your school district? Yes No
5.	If yes, who administers restraints? Teachers only
	Always principal
	Principal or other administrator
	Principal/other administrator/teacher
6.	Regardless of whether or not restraint is allowed, have you seen restraint used in your school?  Yes No
7.	If restraint is an option, on average, how often is it used by you as an intervention?  More than once a day 1-2 times a week 1 time a day
	1 -2 times a month Other (please explain):

8.	How do your respond to appropriate behavior? (please check as many as apply)  Verbal praise (i.e. "good job" or "I like the way Johnny is")
	Positive touching (i.e. a pat on the back)
	Positive feedback (i.e. a smile or nod of recognition)
	Stickers or other token
	Positive note home to parents
	Privileges (i.e. extra computer time, leader of the line, less homework, extra PE time)
	Other (please explain:
8b.	Of the item(s) <u>you checked</u> in the previous question, rank order them with "1" being the most effective ( <i>PLEASE RANK ONLY THOSE ITEM(S) YOU CHECKED IN THE PREVIOUS QUESTION</i> )
	Verbal praise (i.e. "good job" or "I like the way Johnny is")
	Positive touching (i.e. a pat on the back)
	Positive feedback (i.e. a smile or nod of recognition)
	Stickers or other token
	Positive note home to parents
	Privileges (i.e. extra computer time, leader of the line, less homework, extra PE time)
	Other (please explain:
9.	If you use a particular classroom-management model, would you please name and briefly described it here. (i.e. "Red Light, Green Light", "Sticker Cards", "Clothespins", Canter's "Assertive Discipline".)

**COMMENTS:** 

# PERCEPTION SURVEY

PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION BY CIRCLING THE NUMBER THAT MATCHES YOUR PERCEPTION OF YOUR ROLE AS A TEACHER. Note that "1" means that your strongly agree and "5" means that your strongly disagree

I communicate to my students frequently that I am aware of what they are doing in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to attend to two events simultaneously in the classroom without being diverted unduly by disruptions	1	2	3	4	5
If a student is inattentive or potentially disruptive, I will physically move toward that student	1	2	3	4	5
If a student is inattentive or potentially disruptive, I will direct questions toward that student	1	2	3	4	5
I am pleased with my classroom management techniques	1	2	3	4	5
I feel my classroom management techniques are inadequate	1	2	3	4	5
I would like to learn more about being an effective classroom manager	1	2	3	4	5

# Appendix C





15 July 2011

Charlotte Nasey 28 Richards Avenue Forrest Hill AUCKLAND 0620

Dear Charlotte

Teachers' Use of School-wide Classroom Management Procedures

Thank you for your Low Risk Notification which was received on 11 July 2011.

Your project has been recorded on the Low Risk Database which is reported in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committees.

The low risk notification for this project is valid for a maximum of three years.

Please notify me if situations subsequently occur which cause you to reconsider your initial ethical analysis that it is safe to proceed without approval by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

A reminder to include the following statement on all public documents:

"This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director (Research Ethics), telephone 06 350 5249, e-mail humanethics@massey.ac.nz".

Please note that if a sponsoring organisation, funding authority or a journal in which you wish to publish requires evidence of committee approval (with an approval number), you will have to provide a full application to one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. You should also note that such an approval can only be provided prior to the commencement of the research.

Yours sincerely

J. D' Vell

John G O'Neill (Professor) Chair, Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and

Director (Research Ethics)

Assoc Prof Steven Little School of Education Albany

Mrs Roseanne MacGillivray Graduate School of Education PN900

Assoc Prof Helen Southwood, HoS School of Education Albany

Massey University Human Ethics Committee Accredited by the Health Research Council

Te Kunenga ki Pürehuroa

Research Ethics Office, Massey University, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand T −64.6.350.5573 −64.6.350.5575 F +64.6.350.5622 E humanethics@massey.ac.nz animalethics@massey.ac.nz gtc@messey.ac.nz

www.massey.ac.nz