

THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS ON NOVICE TEACHERS
REGARDING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT, ACADEMIC PREPARATION, TIME
MANAGEMENT AND SELF-EFFICACY

By

Dolores Carr

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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To God Be The Glory!!!!

The dissertation is dedicated to my mother Josephine Jackson who prayed for me.

Now to my children; Seleena and Daniel Johnson, I am passing the mantle.

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the national concern regarding types of teacher preparation programs (traditional, alternative) and their effects on classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and self-efficacy of novice teachers. What are the decisions and influences that determine highly qualified teachers; can these traits be learned? Does the type of training a teacher receives determine his/her effectiveness? Who determines the standards for teacher preparation programs? What are the challenges facing teacher preparation programs? Who will be responsible for reform and improvement? A review of literature provides direction in answering these questions. The findings uncovered that the type of teacher preparation programs, traditional or alternative routes, does not play a role in the effectiveness of classroom management. The causal-comparative research design will identify the statistical significance of teacher preparation programs on classroom management, academic preparation, perception of efficacy, and time management by surveying novice teachers with one-five years of teaching experience.

Keywords: classroom management, novice teachers, highly qualified teacher, teacher education, teacher preparation programs (traditional and alternative), academic preparation, self-efficacy

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List of Abbreviations

Alternative Teacher Preparation Program - ATP

Council for the Accreditation of Education Preparation - CAEP

Council for Higher Education Accreditation ó CHEA

Education Commission of the States - ECS

Educational Testing Services - ETS

General Education Teachers - GETs

High Objective Uniform State Standard of Evaluation - HOUSSE

Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium - INTASC

Institutions of higher education - IHE

National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education & Certification - NASDTEC

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards -NBPTS

National Commission on Teaching America's Future -NCTAF

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education - NCATE,

National Council of Teacher Education - NCTE

National Teacher Survey -NTS

No Child Left Behind -NCLB

School and Staffing Survey - SASS

Special education teachers - SETs

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences - SPSS

Teacher Education Accreditation Council -TEAC

Teach for America -TFA

Teacher Follow-up Survey -TFS

Traditional Teacher Preparation Programs -TTP

U.S. Department of Education (USDOE)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Aspiring teachers in the United States (U.S.) may enter traditional teacher preparation programs or alternative routes to acquire teaching licensure. Monroe, Blackwell, and Pepper (2010) reported that those who attend traditional teacher preparation programs are offered few or no classroom management courses as part of their academic program. Teachers entering through the alternative routes may have no classroom management training as part of their preparation (Monroe et.al, 2010). Using the adaptive National New Teacher Survey, this causal comparative study will evaluate which type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) is the most effective.

Background

Darling-Hammond (2010) describes teacher education as a program that is related to the development of teacher proficiency and competence that would enable and empower the teacher to meet the requirements of the profession and face the challenges therein. National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2008) defines teacher education as a planned sequence of courses and experiences for the purpose of preparing teachers and other school professionals to work in pre-kindergarten through twelfth grade settings. Programs may lead to a degree, a recommendation for a state license, both, or neither. Good (1973) describes teacher education as all the formal and non-formal activities and experiences that help to qualify a person to assume responsibilities as a member of the educational profession or to discharge his responsibilities more effectively. National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE, 1998) has defined teacher education as a program of education, research, and training of persons to teach

from pre-primary to higher education level. The 1,200 plus teacher preparation programs throughout the United States vary extensively in program structure and quality (Ingersoll, et. al, 2007). Although the U.S. Department of Education has put procedures in place to hold U.S. teacher education programs accountable, the current certification procedure allows each state to develop its own individual certification programs. Using approval benchmarks, states decide which institutions and other organizations are suitable to educate teachers. State regulations and national accreditation give little focus to objective data on student learning, classroom teaching, or teaching perseverance. Student learning or other outcome measures to assess teacher preparation programs are not considered by states when approving certification programs. States teacher preparation programs frequently overlook the influence of recent graduates on the K-12 students they educate and give little consideration to where graduates teach or how long they stay in the profession (Crowe, 2010). While students are expected to achieve high standards in English, mathematics, science, and history, there is an inconsistency between teachers' academic preparation and the increasingly demanding classroom (Marszalek, Odom, LaNasa, & Adler, 2010).

Understanding the reasons behind this inconsistency is crucial in identifying the impact of individual teachers. Additionally, it is important to know if teacher preparation programs are providing new teachers with the knowledge and skills to help their students learn. States can already link student and teacher data in their K-12 system, but they are not yet able to connect teachers back to their preparation program. Doing so will allow states to realize which type of preparation program (traditional or alternative) is most successful in preparing teachers for the classroom (Crowe, 2010). If under prepared teachers are placed in today's classroom with

contemporary challenges that include students' family economic problems, diverse student populations, English-language learners, and high-stakes testing, all too often the end result is a revolving classroom door (Miner, 2008).

The U.S. Department of Education National Center for Educational Statistics (2008-2009) Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) indicated that just over 8% of 4,750 teachers surveyed abandoned teaching in the 2008-2009 school year because of classroom reasons. While Table 1.1 below does not list classroom management as a specific reason for leaving, "classroom factor" could reveal related issues. The sample of teachers selected included those who had left the position of a K-12 teacher within the year after the School and Staffing Survey (SASS) was administered. They were referred to as "leavers." The survey sample also included those who continued to teach students in any of grades pre-K-12 or in a comparable upgraded level including teachers who remained in the same school as in the previous year, "stayers." Those who changed schools or otherwise referred to as movers were included so that sample teachers who changed assignments from teaching students in any of grades K-12 would not be considered leavers. Table 1.1 provides a structured view of the reasons and percentages of why teachers left the profession in 2008-2009.

Table 1.1

Percentages of Teachers Abandoning Teaching in 2008 -2009 and the Reasons Why

Percentage abandoned teaching	Reason for leaving
5.3%	Contract was not renewed
42.9%	Personal life factors
1.2%	Assignment and credential factors
4.0%	Other job benefits
8.3%	Classroom factors
9.8%	School factors
3.5%	Student performance factors
17%	Other factors

Another variable in classroom management is the increase in student diversity including English Language Learners and those with disabilities. Many teachers expressed feelings of being unprepared when having to control disruptive behavior and think this lack of preparation significantly hinders their ability to confidently include students with disabilities (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Federal law mandated in the 1970s that children with disabilities be presented a "free and appropriate public education" in the "least restrictive environment" instead of being educated only in special schools or institutions (U.S. Department of Education, Sec. 612(a)(5), IDEA). Over time, support and subsequent federal laws allowed children with disabilities to be placed in traditional classrooms, with appropriate support, whenever possible. These programs, called inclusion or mainstreaming, have mostly been an academic success (Byrnes, 2009). Byrnes defines "mostly" successful when research indicates both special education and regular students benefit from studying together. In addition to the anxiety of dealing with endless loads of paperwork and various rules and regulations required by both the state and district, working

with exceptional (special needs) students may be one of the most important reasons that teachers today are exiting the classroom in larger numbers than before (Nahal, 2009).

If a classroom management skill is an essential skill-set that teachers should have, why then are education researchers not able to show how teachers can be better prepared in this area (Melnick & Meister, 2008)? Monroe, et. al (2010) examined the literature content that would best prepare novice teachers in classroom management (Wichita State University, 2009; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). The researchers disapproved of the restricted quantity of coursework, an absence of agreement on what should be in a classroom management course, and accountabilities of preparation in the broad area of classroom management. The absence of effective classroom management training will continue to produce teachers with low self-efficacy, and unless the problem is addressed, they are more likely to leave the profession (Nahal, 2009). Perraton (2010) states that teacher education generally includes four elements: improving the general educational background of the trainee teachers; increasing their knowledge and understanding of the subjects they are to teach; developing pedagogy and the understanding of children and learning; and the development of vocational practical skills and knowledge of competences. The balance between these four elements varies widely. Strong and consistent time management and organizational skills are essential in classroom management. Classroom management in full effect produces the following: an increase of time to teach, an increase in student achievement, a safe environment to learn, additional time for student engagement, assessment of students who may need remedial assistance, bell to bell instruction, reduced opportunity for inappropriate behavior, positive classroom guidelines and expectations, and finally a positive classroom

environment where students are respectful of themselves and others (Marzano, Marzano & Pickering, 2008).

There continues to be debate over the best way to prepare teachers. Some argue that lowering entry standards into teaching is necessary to attract strong candidates, whereas others argue that investing in high quality teacher preparation is the most promising approach to attracting strong candidates (Boyd, Goldhaber, Lankford & Wyckoff, 2007). Some say less time spent participating in student teaching and field experience will allow strong candidates to enter the classroom earlier. Most agree that there is a lack of clear-cut research for understanding how to prepare teachers (Boyd, et. al. 2007).

Novice teachers are challenged with balancing theory with student instruction. Since skill improves with experience, emotional competency of new teachers may not develop at the same time as intellectual competency. The transition from learning about teaching strategies to a brief teaching internship only prepares individuals to teach content, whereas teaching "expertise" and the effectiveness of good pedagogy happens several years into the teaching experience (Romano, 2008).

The federal No Child Left Behind law (NCLB, 2002) pushes for standards-based education by highlighting and stressing that highly qualified teachers have subject matter competency. The emphasis is on content knowledge. For example, special education teachers are required to both have a state certification in special education and demonstrate competence in each subject-area taught (Byrnes, 2009). What teachers understand and can teach has the greatest significant effect on what students learn (NCATE, 2010). Certifying, preparing, and maintaining good teachers are the fundamental strategies for enhancing our schools. School

improvement cannot take place unless there is a focus on developing the conditions under which teachers can teach and teach well. When teachers are not afforded the opportunity to teach in a classroom free of continuous classroom management and behavioral disruptions, they leave the profession, and a domino effect occurs (Putman, 2009). Teachers' departures bring about costs to replace them, low student achievement scores, an increase in the dropout rate, and an increase in graduates unprepared for the workforce (Ronfeldt, M., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2011). (2009) stated that important teacher quality requirements of the NCLB underline the importance of these teacher competencies. Key to NCLB's goal of closing the achievement gap by 2014 is the condition that all teachers be highly qualified by the end of the 2005-06 school year.

The U.S. Department of Education (USDOE) came close to reaching their goal to have 100% of Highly Qualified Teachers (HQT) in every classroom. USDOE reports that 96 % of core academic classes in our nation's public schools were staffed by HQTs during school year 2010-11; NCLB did not reach the stated goal.

Table 1.2

Percentage of Classes Taught by HQTs and Corresponding School Type during the 2010-2011 Academic School Year

Percentage of classes taught by HQTs	Type of School
98.0%	Elementary schools
95.0%	Secondary schools
98.0%	Low poverty elementary schools
97.0%	High poverty elementary schools
97.0%	Low poverty secondary schools
94.0%	High poverty secondary schools

The percentage of core academic classes taught by HQTs has increased since 2003-04. In 2010-11, 96% of all core academic classes were taught by an HQT— an increase of nearly 10 percentage points from 2003-04. Though the goal was not met by 2005-06, there continues to be progress made toward all teachers being highly qualified. Table 1.2 provides a structured view of the percentage of classes taught by HQTs in various types of schools. For novice teachers, this requires that they meet current state certification requirements and demonstrate mastery of the content area in which they teach, either by passing a content knowledge test or by having majored in the subject in an undergraduate or graduate program (U.S. Department of Education, 2011c).

Statement of Problem

The process that teacher preparation programs use to prepare novice teachers with pedagogy, content knowledge, and classroom management skills is a national problem, especially when paired with novice teachers' perception of efficacy (Buckner, 2011). There is concern among parents, educators, and policy makers regarding the quality of teacher preparation programs (MetLife Survey of the American Teacher, Teachers, Parent, and The Economy, 2011). The nation is experiencing a critical teacher shortage in both quantity and quality of teachers necessary to meet demands (Virginia Department of Education, 2008-2009). This teacher shortage was affected by NCLB as well as state and local policies that restricted hiring of teachers that are not HQT (Tissington, Ward & Grant, 2011; Grow, 2007). Other issues that may influence this shortage are the limited supply of pre-service teachers in teacher preparation programs, the limited availability of these preparation programs, and the execution of policies to prepare and certify high quality teachers. To keep up with demands, school districts

recruited teachers from private business and industry, bypassing traditional teacher preparation programs that academically prepare and help develop effective management skills of novice teachers (Walsh & Jacobs, 2007). Research data suggest that with no assessments, guidelines, or policies for teacher preparation programs, teacher preparedness and school-level indicators of learning achievement could be lowered (Coggshall, Rasmussen, Colton, Milton, & Jacques, 2012).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative research study is to examine academic preparation on classroom management, time management, and teachers' perception of efficacy based on the type of teacher preparation program (traditional or alternative) novice teachers received and to study the difference between the types of programs. Data for this analysis were collected through the use of survey methodology.

While university and college teacher preparation programs are not supplying sufficient teacher candidates to meet demand, the number of alternatively certified candidates seems to be growing (Walsh & Jacobs, 2007). This growth is due to an upsurge in alternative certification programs to deal with the escalating problem of teacher shortages. Proponents assert alternative routes to certifying HQT contribute in broadening the pool of teacher candidates. In particular, they offer a pathway for competent candidates who otherwise would be lost to the profession (Feistritzer, 2011). Encompassing this topic of teacher preparation is the dispute about alternative route preparation programs, efficacy, and the degree to which pedagogical skills and knowledge are necessary.

Critics argue that alternative route programs shortchange both teacher candidates and the students they teach because of their limited preparation, particularly when content pedagogy is lacking (Coggshall, Bivona, Reschly, 2012). Teachers who have pedagogical training and who have received certification turn out better student achievement scores than those who have not (Coggshall, Rasmussen, et.al, 2012). In support of traditional teacher preparation programs and pedagogical training, a study conducted by Educational Testing Services (ETS) of 270,000 Praxis II test takers suggest that graduates of NCATE accredited institutions pass ETS content examinations for teacher licensing at a higher rate (91%) than do graduates of unaccredited colleges or those without any preparation for teaching (NCATE, 2010 and Education Commission of the States (ECS), 2012). This study was designed to compare individual teachers' perception of their preparedness for classroom management with the type of preparation program from which they received their training.

Significance of the Study

Strong research studies on teacher preparation programs and their effects on classroom management that encompass both time management and academic preparation are limited in number (National Council on Teacher Quality, 2012). This scarcity is largely due to the number of teacher preparation programs that do not offer "stand alone" courses in classroom management. Teacher preparation programs that offer "stand alone" courses in classroom management are minimal (Monroe, et.al, 2010). Currently, discussions of classroom management are included in other college and university courses such as psychology, behavior management, and teaching the elementary, middle and secondary student, (Oliver & Reschly,

2007). These course descriptions often fail to communicate what specific classroom management strategies are being examined.

Research Questions

Four research questions are presented in this quantitative study to explore the difference between academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and perception of efficacy of novice teachers based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative). The independent variable is teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative), and the dependent variables are classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy. The four research questions are:

- Research Question #1 (RQ1): Is there a difference in teacher perception of classroom management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?
- Research Question #2 (RQ2): Is there is a difference in teacher perception of academic preparation of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?
- Research Question #3 (RQ3): Is there a difference in teacher perception of time management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?
- Research Question #4 (RQ4): Is there a difference in teacher perception of novice teachers' perception of self-efficacy based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Null Hypotheses

In order to answer the research questions of this study, four hypotheses were tested. The four hypotheses include:

- Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is no significant difference in teacher perception of classroom management skills (organization of physical structures, procedural systems, and behavioral guides) of novice teachers based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.
- Hypothesis 2 (H2): There is no significant difference in teacher perception between academic preparation (degree completion plan, plan of study, course work) of novice teachers based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.
- Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is no significant difference in teacher perception of time management (effectively organize and manage a variety of tasks) of novice teachers based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.
- Hypothesis 4 (H4): There is no significant difference in teacher perception of novice teachers' perception of self-efficacy (personal feeling of preparedness to be an effective teacher) based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.

Identification of Variables

This quantitative, causal comparative research study identified the potential differences in classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy of novice teachers based on the type of teacher preparation program they completed (traditional, alternative). The independent variable was teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) and the dependent variables were academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and perception of efficacy. Independent-samples *t*-tests were used to test for differences in the dependent variables.

Definitions of Terms

Eight operational terms are used within this study for better comprehension. This section addresses both technical and non-technical definitions in the subject of teacher preparation and teaching skills. The definitions also include terms that align with the survey instrument. The terms are defined as:

1. **Alternative teacher preparation program (ATP)** - a program where participants almost always have a bachelor's degree and have demonstrated their subject expertise through passing a subject-matter assessment or having a degree in a subject area. Alternative route occurs through state, district, and local education certification programs (U.S Department of Education section 201, definitions 2011c).
2. **Traditional teacher preparation programs (TTP)** - are programs where participants may major in either education with a content-area specialty or in a content area with a focus on education. Traditional programs include courses on how to teach (pedagogy) and academic content and may include courses on working with

- special populations (such as special education students or English language learners). Field experience, often called "student teaching," is an important part of traditional programs and helps students gain on-the-job experience by working in a classroom with an experienced teacher. Traditional programs often require candidates to pass assessments of their basic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics to be accepted into the program (U.S. Department of Education; section 201, definitions, 2011c).
3. **Academic preparation** - defined as areas of study that include coursework that is rigorous, coherent, and organized to provide knowledge and to teach skills at various stages of a teacher's career (Levine, 2006; Coggshall, Bivona & Reschly, 2012).
 4. **Classroom management** - the application of standards set in the classroom for positive student behavior (Orr, Thompson, & Thompson, 1999). Kaufman (2001, 2004) conceptualized classroom organization as physical structures and procedural systems rather than behavioral guides that promote ease of classroom movement and learning efficiency. The effective methods and strategies an educator uses to maintain a classroom environment are favorable to student success and learning (Kaufman 2001, 2004; Kenyon, 2007).
 5. **Efficacy** - the power or capacity to produce a desired effect; effectiveness; the quality of being successful in producing an intended result, "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Reeves, 2011, p, 36).
 6. **Highly qualified teacher (HQT)** - is a teacher who has (1) completed a traditional teacher education program and earned a bachelor's degree and is thereby eligible for

full state certification; (2) been placed in a position that matches his/her area of certification; (3) not had certification or licensure requirements waived on an emergency, temporary, or provisional basis, or (4) participated in an alternate-route-to-certification program (U.S Department of Education, 2004)

7. **Novice teachers** - teachers with 5 years or less teaching experience (Meskill, Mossop, DiAngelo, & Pasquale, 2002; U.S. Department of Education; 686.2(d) Definitions)
8. **Time Management** - the art of arranging, organizing, scheduling, and budgeting one's time for the purpose of generating more effective work and productivity. Organizing strategies include effective planning, lesson design, attention to time on task, and pacing (Freiberg, March, 2002).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

In their study, McFadden and Sheerer (2005) stated that teacher educators are resistant to change and outlined four reasons why a paradigm shift in teacher education is needed. First, the traditional model for teacher education has not created the desired results. Policy makers and other critics often have made known the deficiencies of teacher education programs and required a new and better-quality model. Second, there has been a large quantity of solid research on student learning across subjects. Third, there is no agreement on what the professional knowledge base should be. Finally, state licensure agencies cannot document with confidence that certified teachers are more proficient than non-certified teachers. The failure of teacher education programs to make this paradigm change may put both teacher education programs and schools of education at risk. Calls for increased accountability in public education have brought attention to teacher quality; this issue has held national attention with policy-makers, the public, and the education community. The preparation of high quality teachers with thorough knowledge of both content and pedagogy has also brought attention to teacher education and the preparation of teachers for the classroom. In this era of high-level standards and increasing numbers of students with diverse learning needs, it is essential that teachers are able to organize and present content in ways that are appropriate to the needs of all learners. Classroom management, academic preparation, perception of efficacy, and time management all have an effect on how the teacher performs in the classroom.

The purpose of this study is to examine the differences between classroom management academic preparation, time management, and teachers' perception of self-efficacy based on type

of teacher preparation (traditional, alternative). This review of the literature first begins with an overview of Kounin's (1977) theory of ripple effect that provides the theoretical framework for this study. With the framework established, the second phase of the chapter moves into the history of teacher preparation. The third section contains existing models for teacher education. Standards for teacher preparation, including federal and state standards in the quest to create highly qualified teachers under NCLB, are the concentration of the fourth section of the review of literature. The final section of the review focuses on classroom management, the learning of classroom management skills, and the role of teacher efficacy in executing effective classroom management techniques.

Theoretical Framework

The ripple effect theory proposed by Jacob Kounin (1977) provides the theoretical framework for this paper. Kounin's theory focused on a teacher's ability to impact student behavior through instructional management that incorporated both the instructional and disciplinary features of the classroom. Kounin noted that the modeling of a teacher can shape the student's behavior. Kounin's theory about classroom management was grounded in the belief that there was a significant relationship between classroom management and instructional effectiveness; the teacher's ability to manage and organize his/her classroom while using proactive behavior and increasing student participation was related to learner achievement. Kounin also found that possessing organization and planning skills are vital to effective classroom management in getting students highly involved and in being proactive towards student's behavior. According to Kounin, if the teacher can create little chaos between activities,

keep on task, and utilize good time management skills, they are modeling effective group management.

Other researchers acknowledge Kounin's theory in their studies on academic preparation and efficacy. Carter (1990) saw Kounin's analyses of 250 video tapes on classroom management as useful projections of what teachers know and how they comprehend actions and events. Kounin and Carter both agreed that studies of pedagogical content knowledge utilize information processing of subject matter and the structure of explanation as key features of the teacher's knowledge.

Teachers' perception of their effectiveness of classroom management will affect their view of self-efficacy (Marzano & Marzano, 2008). Dembo and Gibson (1985) stated that low-efficacy teachers were less likely to exhibit a sense of "with-it-ness" (Kounin, 1977). With-it-ness is when students perceive the teacher is aware of everything that is happening in the classroom.

Kounin (1977) proposed five main tenets to effective lesson movement. These tenets included (a) with-it-ness, (b) overlapping, (c) momentum, (d) smoothness, and (e) group focus. With-it-ness proposes that the teacher is responsible for preventing and managing poor behavior. The teacher has with-it-ness by making eye contact with all students at all times and by developing a rapport with each student on a personal basis. The teacher can apply other non-verbal methods to demonstrate to students that he/she is watchful and concerned about the well-being of all students. All rules of the classroom and expectations should be clearly articulated and displayed so everyone can be "with-it" (Kounin, 1977).

Overlapping involves the establishment of routines that will allow the teacher to present material while averting misbehavior. The concept of overlapping ties into the idea of with-it-

ness as well. Lesson movement was Kounin's term to describe the successful fusion of classroom management and instructional skill. Momentum is the movement of a lesson. A teacher must be able to "roll-with-the-punches," recognizing that things may not always go as planned and make adjustments as needed in order to proceed. Being able to stay on course is smoothness. Often, a teacher can be diverted from the topic at hand. This diversion can be difficult for students as the major components of the lesson may not be presented coherently. Smoothness can be compromised when a teacher does not have a prearranged course of action. Finally, group focus is the ability of a teacher to engage the whole class using strategies such as building suspense or asking community questions (Marzano, 2011). This framework is appropriate to this study in that teachers educated in classroom management understand that seamless transitions, bell to bell instruction, and individual and group engagement are essential for positive classroom management.

History of Teacher Education

Teacher education originated in France in 1685, led by St. John Baptist de la Salle, and was adopted throughout Europe through the efforts of August Hermann Francke and Johann Pestalozzi. Germany established the first curriculum for teacher training in the eighteenth century. By 1810, teacher training reached the United States (Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2011). In 1839, Horace Mann and Henry Barnard opened the first common school in Lexington, Massachusetts. Mann was the founder of teacher training schools. He was an early activist of recruiting and educating women as teachers. He knew one way to improve the quality of schools was to better educate prospective teachers. He gave speeches, held public meetings at teacher education institutes, and raised public awareness about the importance of

education. Supporters of the free school movement liked his efforts to raise teachers' salaries, improve school buildings, and lengthen the school year (Lusted, 2010).

In 1834, Pennsylvania was the first state to insist that upcoming teachers pass a test of reading, writing, and arithmetic. By 1867, most states required teachers to pass a district regulated test, which generally consisted of not only the fundamental skills but also U.S. History, geography, spelling, and grammar, to receive a state certificate (Ravitch, 2003).

In the first half of the nineteenth century, the requirements for admission into teaching were fairly few: new teachers had to convince a local school board of their good reputation and in some districts, pass a test of their general education (Ravitch, 2003). It was also during the nineteenth century that "teacher training" was used to describe education for both preparatory and practicing teachers (Spearman, 2009, p. 53). By the late 1930s, however, educators began to frown upon use of the word "training." Former United States Commissioner of Education George Frederick Zook (1937) was one of the first to write about the negative connotations of the word, believing that training involved tasks but education involved understanding. Agreeing with Zook was Alan Valentine (1938), who asserted that if you only train teachers, they will only train children; if you educate teachers, they will educate children. Contemporary educators see training as a deficit word, suggesting that teachers are lacking in both knowledge and skill (Tillema & Imants, 1995).

Massachusetts adopted "normal schools" for teacher training, which made available short courses in educational methods, primarily for elementary teachers. In western states, normal schools provided extended courses, both academic and professional. In rural neighborhoods, local school boards managed teacher institutes, where their teachers could review academic and

pedagogical studies. Educators' certification in the nineteenth century was irregular and varied. There was no distinct prototype, and there was no education profession as we identify it today. This transformed at the start of the twentieth century (Lusted, 2010).

The beginning of the twentieth century was a period during which small branches of pedagogical education increased in undergraduate and graduate colleges of education. Specialists and professionals wanted to establish an education profession, which had its specific preparation programs and its own identifiable technical language (Ravitch, 2003). Institutions of higher education established a variety of specializations such as school administration, educational psychology, educational sociology, and curriculum. Angus (2001) noted that the formation of graduate schools of education resulted in a separation among the leadership in the profession. The separation included classroom teachers, professors of pedagogy, liberal arts faculty, and college presidents who had undertaken a leading role in education reform throughout the nineteenth century. Ravitch (2003) stated that the new leaders of the profession seized responsibility for teacher certification, and certification came to be tied to courses in pedagogy and to passing tests of pedagogical theory. State education departments and the colleges of education agreed that extended periods of formal instruction in pedagogy were vital for future education professionals. Teacher certification ultimately came to be conferred with the completion of teacher education programs instead of the receipt of local certificates or the passing of subject-matter assessments. Not all potential educators majored in pedagogy; some continued to major in history, English, mathematics, and science and to take pedagogical courses as a minor. This model remains in place today as teachers graduate from teacher education

programs with varying certifications for grade level and content area as well as additional specialized certifications such as literacy and special education.

Models of Teacher Preparation Programs

Teacher preparation programs were created to prepare teachers to acquire certification and teach in the classroom. Traditional teacher preparation (TTP) leads to degrees from colleges and universities and entails unpaid practice teaching. Alternative teacher preparation (ATP) typically targets individuals with degrees who seek a fast-track route to full-time, paid teaching employment (Boe, E. E. Shin, S., & Cook, L. H. 2007). In the United States, individual states regulate the teaching profession through teacher preparation programs that serve as gateways into the field. Every state has its own procedures for certifying teachers, and every public school is expected to hire teachers certified by the state.

Traditional teacher preparation (TTP) is the main source of teacher supply in most states (Boyd, Goldhaber, Lankford & Wyckoff, 2007). These programs are created by a blend of state regulations, criteria of accreditation organizations, and the choices made by individual institutions. Alternative teacher preparation (ATP) typically allows teachers to enter the classroom by postponing or bypassing many of the criteria required by traditional teacher preparation programs. Some states have long used alternate routes to teacher certification (Boe, et. al, 2007). The requirements of ATP vary greatly across states according to the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education & Certification (NASDTEC, 2007).

According to The Education School Project (2005), the vast majority of school teachers are trained in programs with low admission and graduation requirements, and though there are some progressive model programs, most hold fast to an outdated image of teacher education.

Arthur Levine, president of the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation, said, "teacher education is like the Dodge City of the education world. Similar to the legendary Wild West town, it is unmanageable and unruly" (Another Debate, 2007). There is no set approach to where and how teachers should be prepared, and the continuing debate over whether teaching is a profession or a skill has distorted the undertaking of education schools. Levine is vague on whether education schools should be converted into professional schools or continue to be based in the more academic world of arts and science, (Another Debate, 2007). This highlights the need for further standardization and professionalization of teaching across teacher preparation programs.

Yao and Williams (2010) assessed the success of three teacher education programs in achieving selected teacher competencies. The programs included a traditional 4-year teacher certification program, an alternative certification-based master of arts in teaching program, and an alternative certification program without the master's degree option. The teachers maintained positive attitudes about the impact of the programs on their teaching proficiencies with no significant difference found among the programs or between program students and completers. The teachers' employers confidently rated their teachers. Highest scores were given to alternative certification completers (students who completed the program), and the lowest to alternative certification students (students currently enrolled in the program).

Student Achievement in Teacher Education Programs

Kukla-Acevedo (2008) noted that the quality of undergraduate training and teacher preparation programs varies across post-secondary institutions due to differences in admissions criteria, number of classes required, minimum required GPAs, expectations of faculty, and exposure to different theories of teaching and learning. Several companies publish annual ratings indices of post-secondary institutions and teacher education programs based on these and other quality indicators. It makes sense that the different knowledge and skills taught in each program will lead to differential rates of success in the classroom, yet research does not indicate that college quality, as measured by a ratings index, is linked to student achievement. Rather than use a proxy to relate quality of teacher training to student achievement, Kulka-Acevedo (2008) assessed the value of seven teacher preparation programs on student learning. The hypothesis was that the graduates of traditional preparation programs who have more math courses will have distinctly higher rates of success of the students in their classrooms when compared to the graduates of alternate route programs who received fewer math courses. All else equal, teachers who took more hours of math content and received higher levels of exposure in math education should have more knowledge in this area than their colleagues who did not attend a traditional teacher preparation program or had additional exposure to math. It follows that better prepared teachers would have higher student achievement rates.

The result indicates that teacher qualifications and content exposure can affect student achievement. Exposure is not an indication of the teachers' understanding and performance, so the study also incorporates teachers' overall math content and math education GPAs. GPA is likely to be correlated with content mastery, motivation to succeed, or a combination of the two.

For these reasons, it is expected that GPA will have a positive relationship with student learning gains (Kulka-Acevedo,2008).

Teacher Preparedness

Romano (2008) advanced the discussion about first-year teachers' successes and struggles by building on her earlier research. Understanding the concerns of first-year teachers can provide insights into how teacher efficacy can be enhanced through teacher education programs as well as through induction programs that provide support to new teachers. Beginning teachers must possess the ability to structure environments that lead to successful student learning within the unique context of a classroom. The increasing demands of student diversity, mainstreaming, and new standards for student development and learning place greater responsibilities on these teachers.

Two of Romano's earlier investigations provided the groundwork for her expanded research. In her qualitative study, a wider sample of beginning teachers was sought to incorporate various grade levels taught, school districts, and teacher education programs. Romano examined the successes and struggles of six beginning teachers who were employed during their first year of teaching in the same school district and three teachers who had graduated from the same teacher education program and accepted positions teaching third grade. The categories of first year teacher struggles from the earlier investigations were represented in this study as defined in the following list: classroom management, content and pedagogy, external policy, personal issues, parents, report card grading, student learning, special needs students, and teacher evaluation. Classroom management was the second largest category with seven of the nine participants identifying 15 classroom management struggles, followed by 14

struggles with personal issues described by six participants. All other categories had significantly fewer struggles and were discussed by only one, two, or three teachers. The categories of successes and struggles described by these beginning teachers could be introduced into teacher education programs to raise awareness of the complexities of practice that prospective teachers will face during their first year.

Darling-Hammond's (2000) study of 2,302 novice teachers explored the relationships between teachers' views of their preparedness and their efficacy in the classroom. In addition, she looked at their views of their academic preparation and strategies to remain in teaching. Teachers who felt more prepared were considerably more likely to have confidence that they could impact all of their students, manage disruptions in the classroom, teach all students to great levels, and make a difference in the lives of their students. Those who felt under-prepared were significantly more likely to feel unclear about how to teach certain students and more prone to accept as truth that students' peers and home environment influence learning more than teachers do.

The average ratings of graduates of traditional teacher education programs were significantly higher than teachers from alternative education programs (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Novice teachers who had taken other paths into teaching felt less prepared than teacher education program graduates overall. Teachers who acquired state certification through transcript evaluation, who had taken all of the required certification courses but not necessarily from a single institution had lower average scores. The area in which novice teachers felt the least prepared based on transcript evaluation was instructional planning. Teachers who entered through alternative pathways such as Peace Corps, Teach for America, or Teacher Opportunity

Corps also rated their initial preparedness significantly lower than did graduates of teacher education programs. Teachers who started teaching on emergency credentials without previous experience in classrooms rated their preparedness significantly lower than graduates of teacher education programs. The overall ratings of both alternative program completers and those with no previous experience received a rating of 3 (adequately prepared), implying that novice teachers who had no teacher preparation often felt inadequately prepared when they entered teaching. These feelings of preparedness are also significantly related to teachers' sense of efficacy and their confidence about their ability to achieve teaching goals (Darling-Hammond, 2000). This research is consistent with the findings of other research revealing that those who enter teaching with minimum professional education have significant problems in the classroom and that they have a tendency to leave teaching at higher rates than those with professional preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

Merrett and Wheldall (1993) conducted controlled interviews with 176 secondary school teachers to obtain their interpretations of their early specialized training and their consequent real-world experience, with specific attention to classroom behavior management. The results showed that most teachers believed classroom management skills were of great importance and that nearly three-quarters were disappointed with the training in this area. Many believed that their colleagues spent too much time dealing with order and control, and 38% thought they, themselves, did as well. Most teachers showed an interest in attending training courses in classroom or behavior management. Many thought that such preparation could lower stress in teachers and help to decrease disruptive behavior among their students. Teachers who have

documented positive and supportive induction programs tend to also show better skill in the classroom and are more likely to be retained (Darling-Hammond, Berry, & Thoreson, 2006).

Why Retention of Highly Qualified Teachers Matters

Teacher attrition in the early years of practice is often linked to a low sense of self-efficacy in the classroom and a lack of support in their first years on the job (Nahal, 2009). One problem with attrition is that the cost for recruiting, preparing, and inducting teachers goes up annually. A conservative national estimate of the cost of replacing public school teachers who have dropped out of the profession is \$2.2 billion a year. If the cost of replacing public school teachers who transfer schools is added, the total reaches \$4.9 billion every year. What was not included was attrition to another teaching-area/subject (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005).

According to Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, and Heilig, (2005), Futernick, (2007), Theobald (1990), and Ingersoll and Rossi, (1995), premature departure of teachers from the profession causes students to suffer with low achievement scores, increases drop-out rates and increases the number of graduates who are unprepared for the work force. With high beginning teacher attrition, there is the potential for schools to receive less-qualified teachers, especially through alternate teaching programs. There is reason to believe that teachers joining the profession through alternative teaching programs may leave in even greater numbers than their 4-year degree certified counterparts due to less preparation for handling the requirements and realities of the public schools, less official training in teaching prior to entering the classroom, and a greater possibility of being placed in teaching environments that are more challenging (Croasmun, 1997). There is also research to suggest that those teachers who are

extremely academically gifted leave in the greatest numbers for other employment opportunities that are more suitable and within their skill level (Schlechty & Vance, 1983).

Donaldson and Johnson (2011) noted that teacher retention, particularly in low-income schools where Teach for America (TFA) teachers are placed, is essential. Attrition, now high among novice teachers throughout the nation, is highest in low-income, high-minority schools (Ingersoll, 2002). In the most current data presented, 21% of teachers at high-poverty schools leave their schools annually compared to 14% of their colleagues in low-poverty settings (Planty, Hussar, Snyder, Provasnik, 2008). As teachers transfer within districts, they typically leave schools that enroll lower-income students and go into schools with higher-income students (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004). This cycle leaves schools that most need endurance and longevity continuously combing for new teachers to replace those who leave (Ingersoll, 2004).

When teachers leave their schools within a few years, those schools run into massive recruitment and replacement costs. More importantly, students tend to suffer. Students are educated by a stream of first-year teachers who are, on average, less successful than their more experienced colleagues (Murnane & Phillips, 1981; Rockoff, 2004). When gifted teachers leave, schools also lose their investment in formal and informal professional development (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 2003). Consistently high levels of teacher resignation slow down a school's effort to organize curriculum, to trace and communicate indispensable data about students as they transfer from grade to grade, and to preserve positive partnerships with parents and the local community. Given the high risk factors, knowing more about TFA teachers' occupations in low-income schools and in the profession is vital.

Standards for Teacher Education

Teacher education is regulated by federal standards, state regulations, and accrediting organizations. All of these governing bodies exist in an effort to assure PK-12 faculty are qualified and well-trained individuals who are capable of facilitating student learning. Despite the combined efforts of these groups, teacher preparation and retention remain a challenge in many districts.

Teacher Preparation Program Standards

Teacher education programs prepare teachers to meet content standards as well as the pedagogy and curriculum guidelines established by state, district, and local education agencies to support student achievement. A summit of national teaching organizations was called in 2008 to establish and develop teaching standards for teacher licensing and to advance teacher certification programs (Hoewook & Hyunjin, 2010). As a result of this summit and with the goal of improving teacher quality, three major contributors to teaching standards collaborated: the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), the Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS).

NCATE was founded in 1954 for the purpose of accreditation for teacher education programs. NCATE meets every seven years to review and revise their standards. NCATE uses their standards to examine initial teacher preparation and advance teacher programs. Institutions of higher education (IHE) that are accredited by NCATE must demonstrate how teachers are being prepared for the classroom. Many states have adopted or adapted the NCATE standards and applied them to IHE for the purpose of state approval (NCATE, 2008).

The INTASC was founded to reform the teacher preparation and licensing system. A basic premise that guided this organization was that an effective teacher must be able to integrate content knowledge with pedagogical understanding to assure that all students learn and perform at high levels. INTASC established its ten core principles for beginning teachers by outlining the knowledge, dispositions, and performances that were deemed essential to make it possible for all beginning teachers to teach in the ways required by the content standards. These standards, under four subcategories, include *The Learner and Learning*: Standard #1: Learner Development, Standard #2: Learning Differences Standard, #3: Learning Environments; *Content*: Standard #4: Content Knowledge. Standard #5: Application of Content; *Instructional Practice*: Standard #6: Assessment, Standard #7: Planning for Instruction, Standard #8: Instructional Strategies; *Professional Responsibility*: Standard #9: Professional Learning and Ethical Practice. Standard #10: Leadership and Collaboration, (INTASC, 2013)

The NBPTS was created for the advanced certification of teachers. The mission of the NBPTS is to establish high and rigorous standards for accomplished teachers to further improve their skills through five propositions. To become NBPTS certified, teachers with at least three years of teacher preparation must complete independent tasks and pass rigorous tests that focus on content knowledge (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2012). The alignment of these organizations was referred to as the three-legged stool of teacher quality; each set of standards is designed to reinforce the other.

Another national accrediting organization emerged in 1998 as an alternative to NCATE. The Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) formally began accrediting teacher education programs across the country with a slightly different format but similar high quality

standards of NCATE. On July 1, 2013, NCATE and TEAC merged under a new accrediting body for educator preparation. Sanctioned by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), the Council for the Accreditation of Education Preparation (CAEP) began providing oversight into the quality of teacher preparation. CAEP advances excellence in educator preparation through evidence-based accreditation that assures quality and supports continuous improvement to strengthen P-12 student learning (CHEA, 2013).

The success of teachers in achieving the standards set forth by these organizations hinges on quality teacher education programs. Dove (2004) stated that quality of teacher preparation is a major factor that contributes to teacher attrition. Under-prepared teachers leave the field in greater numbers; those who are well-prepared stay longer.

State Standards that Correlate with Classroom Management

A great deal of research has focused on content standards for teachers. There is comparably little research about standards related to classroom management skills. Landau (2001) found similar results in a survey of 20 universities, when only one preparation program offered a course that focused solely on classroom management.

Calls for program accreditation, credit hour restrictions in education coursework, and increased teacher testing too often fail to address the skills necessary to effectively manage the daily demands of classrooms (National Board Resource Center, 2010). Student teaching is intended to provide experience and mentorship in this area, but there remains an absence of clear competencies and standards that can help guide student development in the area of classroom management during their teacher education program.

Wilson, S. M., Floden, R. E., and Ferrini-Mundy, J. (2001) examined more than 300 published research reports about teacher preparation and identified an increasing number of programs that have explored expanding the training of teachers from a 4-year model to a 5-year model. A study of 4-year and 5-year program graduates found a sizeable difference in retention and career satisfaction among graduates of the 5-year program. The authors of the study found an abundance of research indicating a connection between teacher preparation and retention. Five-year graduates showed heightened interest in the practice of student teaching or internship instead of their teacher education coursework. The study implies that institutional policies about the configuration of teacher preparation programs can lead to enriched teacher characteristics. Other policies in use may have significant implications for teacher preparation, among them changing teacher certification and developing or mandating induction programs.

Induction programs are designed to increase retention by pairing novice teachers with experienced teachers during their first year. Also called mentor programs, induction programs can provide support to new teachers. Teachers who have documented positive and supportive induction programs tend to also show better skills in the classroom and are more likely to be retained or stay in the profession (Darling-Hammond, et al, 2006).

While enthusiasm for these policies is high, the research base is quite thin (Wilson, et al., 2001). This lack of research is due to the many different methods of teaching classroom management skills. In a study by Jenkins (2010), 42 middle school, pre-service teachers were surveyed by the researcher while they were at the halfway point of their student teaching semester. Results indicated that no particular method of teaching classroom management to pre-service teachers was more effective and/or preferable than the other (Jenkins, 2010).

Creating Highly Qualified Teachers under NCLB

In NCLB, the federal government defined a highly qualified teacher as (1) having completed a teacher education program and earned a bachelor's degree, thereby obtaining full state certification; (2) being placed in a position which matched his/her area of certification; and (3) not having had certification or licensure requirements waived on an emergency, temporary, or provisional basis (No Child Left Behind Act of 2002). In order to address the teacher shortage, in August 2005, federal policymakers revised the definition of "highly qualified" to include teachers enrolled in alternative certification programs. Under the new definition, highly qualified is defined as a teacher who holds at least a bachelor's degree, has demonstrated subject-matter competency in the core academic subjects the teacher will be teaching, and is participating in an alternate route to certification program.

The definition continues by defining four components of an alternate route to teaching. First, the teacher receives high-quality professional development before and while teaching that is intensive and classroom-focused. Second, the teacher participates in a program of intense supervision that consists of structured guidance and regular ongoing support or enrolls in a teacher mentor program. Third, the teacher assumes responsibilities as a provisional teacher for a period not to exceed three years. Finally, the teacher demonstrates satisfactory progress toward full certification as prescribed by the state. The legislation considers new teachers highly qualified if they receive state certification and demonstrate content knowledge of the material they teach either by passing a subject-area exam or by having an undergraduate major in that subject or both (Marszalek et al., 2010).

Veteran teachers can meet NCLB's "highly qualified" teacher standard either by passing subject-area exams or through a process known as the High Objective Uniform State Standard of Evaluation (HOUSSE), which is defined separately within each state. The highly qualified requirements are not particularly stringent, but many states and districts have nevertheless struggled to meet them because of low quality teacher applicants and in-service teachers' reluctant to update their certification (Ding & Sherman, 2006). Teacher quality is a complex phenomenon, and there is little consensus on what it is or how to measure it. There is considerable debate as to whether teacher effectiveness should be judged based on teacher inputs (e.g., qualifications), the teaching process (e.g., instructional practices), the product of teaching (e.g., effects on student learning), or a composite of these elements (Stronge, Ward, & Grant, 2011).

Research on special education teachers (SETs) and general education teachers (GETs) demonstrated that extensive teacher preparation generated more proficient teachers than did lesser preparation (Boe, et al., 2007). Does how teachers report their preparedness to teach vary by length of their teacher preparation? To answer this question, it is useful to consider the following: (1) their ability to use varied pedagogical skills to teach content; (2) their ability to select curricula; (3) the time spent in teacher preparation programs; and (4) variation in the requirements for beginning SETs and beginning GETs. Beginning teachers are defined as being in their 1st through 5th years of employment, full or part-time, as either regular, itinerant, or long-term substitute teachers. Research has established that all-encompassing preparation turns out more qualified teachers than do lesser amounts of preparation. This finding applies to GETs, and SETs no matter the type of preparation (National Association of State Directors of Teacher

Education & Certification (NASDTEC), 2003; Wilson et. al., 2001). Results indicated that extensive preparation in pedagogy and practice teaching were more effective than little or no preparation in creating novice teachers who (a) had full certification, (b) obtained in-field teaching assignments, and (c) reported being well prepared to teach subject matter and well prepared with regard to pedagogical skills. These findings conflict with the USDOE viewpoint that stresses preparation in content knowledge and practice teaching.

Definitions of Classroom Management

Classroom management is a term used by teachers to describe the process of guaranteeing that classroom lessons run smoothly despite disruptive behavior by students (Kenyon, 2007). The term also implies the prevention of disruptive behavior. Classroom management is commonly referred to as the application of standards set in the classroom for positive student behavior (Orr, Thompson, & Thompson, 1999). Kaufman (2001-2004) conceptualized classroom organization as physical structures and procedural systems rather than behavioral guides that promote ease of classroom movement and learning efficiency. Good organization appears to diminish student confusion, frustration, and disruptive behavior; increase their ability to navigate the classroom independently; and promote academically productive social interaction. Jones and Jonesø(2004) definition asserted the classroom to be an environment where the teacher and the student both work together to facilitate learning and minimize disruptions. Veenmanø (1984) review of teacher concerns identified classroom discipline as the most frequently cited concern for young professionals, appearing in 85% percent of the nearly 100 articles reviewed.

Classroom management focuses on encouraging and establishing student self-control through a process of promoting positive student achievement and behavior. Thus, classroom management is influenced by academic achievement, teacher efficacy, teacher behavior, and student behavior. It integrates three major components including (a) content management, (b) conduct management, and (c) covenant management (Froyen & Iverson 1999). Froyen and Iverson (1999) stated "content management occurs when teachers manage space, materials, equipment, the movement of people, and lessons that are part of a curriculum or program of studies" (p. 128). The effective delivery of content is dependent upon the management of behavior in the classroom, which Froyen and Iverson (1999) referred to as conduct management. Froyen and Iverson (1999) stated "conduct management refers to the set of procedural skills that teachers employ in their attempt to address and resolve discipline problems in the classroom" (p. 181). The achievement of balance between content management and conduct management is linked to what Froyen and Iverson refer to as covenant management. "Covenant management focuses on the classroom group as a social system that has its own features that teachers have to take into account when managing interpersonal relationships in the classroom" (Froyen & Iverson, 1999, p. 128). Covenant management, then, is an ecological approach to classroom theory that accounts for all influences in the environment as contributors to classroom climate.

There is some limited research based on culturally responsive classroom management (Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). Theories already exist regarding classroom management strategies that can be applied in settings where students and teachers are culturally unified and who are mostly categorized by the main culture (Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley, 2004). Culturally responsive pedagogy begins to look more

closely at the connection of culture and student achievement. When teachers are sensitive to and understanding of their students' lives, they use this information to build bridges to new knowledge in ways that are engaging and motivating to the students (Willis, 2000). Culturally responsive classroom management builds on this idea of culture in the classroom. Often, cultural misunderstandings can be found at the root of supposed misbehaviors and power struggles between teachers and students. Effective classroom managers use techniques and strategies that are culturally aligned with their students' lives.

One alternative model of classroom management is what Caine and Caine (2008) described as relaxed alertness, which is creating an atmosphere where the student feels safe thus allowing the learning process to begin. By creating a safe atmosphere, student anxiety is reduced and disruptive behaviors are minimized. The aforementioned philosophers support the belief that teachers are to establish a classroom that is safe and teach content-based information, values, respect, and compassion. These models provide useful guides, but many teachers find challenges in the classroom that are not addressed by theories or strategies.

Ackerman (2007) raised the following questions: How far should a school or classroom teacher go? Is there ever a point in which nothing can be done to help a student? The author answers using the story of the prodigal son, Luke 15:11-33. The father in the story does release his child into the pains of the world with an attitude of being ready for his son's return when he is ready for the father's shelter and love. This is the manner in which educators can release these students from their care, recognizing that after making all attempts nothing can be done in their care to help the student. But when the child or adolescent is ready for their care, the educators accept them back into their fold with eagerness and celebration.

Ackerman states the first tool to assist teachers in making wise decisions concerning instructing and assisting students is prayer. Christian teachers should pray for themselves and their students. Teachers are human, and it is normal for teachers to make mistakes in how they handle challenging students. Prayer and guidance from God can help keep them on track. In prayers, the teacher can welcome the fruits of the spirit to fill his or her heart with love, joy, peace, patience, kindness, goodness, faithfulness, gentleness, and self-control in dealing with these students (Galatians 5:22-23; Ackerman, 2007, pp. 3-31).

The teacher can undergo spiritual growth by praying for these challenging students. Such students give opportunity to show patience, God's love, and grace. To help teachers apply their instructional skills to improving students' behavior, Ackerman (2007) applied the keys to successful classroom management in the Christian classroom using the acronym PRAISE:

Proactive (the P in PRAISE) behavior management is the primary key for preventing negative behaviors. Reinforcements (the R in PRAISE) must be used by the teacher to maintain discipline. To determine how to handle a behavioral challenge in a particular student, a teacher needs to Assess (the A in PRAISE) the situation in which misbehavior occurs to determine the intent and a specific behavior plan. Identifying the Intent (the I in PRAISE) of the student's misbehavior is another important key in developing an intervention plan. It is also critical in dealing with any behavioral challenges that the teacher approaches the student with all Sincerity (the S in PRAISE) by seeking what is best for that individual child. It is most important to Empower (the E in PRAISE) the student to manage his or her own behavior. The acronym PRAISE

represents the keys to any successful student behavior plan and a simple way to plan, organize, and evaluate successful behavior management (Ackerman, 2007).

Learning Classroom Management Skills

Teachers learn best by studying, doing, reflecting, collaborating with other teachers, looking closely at students and their work, and sharing what they see. The art of teaching is learned via (a) classroom instruction, (b) modeling, and (c) classroom experience (Miller & Silvernail, 1994). This kind of learning cannot occur in college classrooms detached from practice or in school classrooms detached from knowledge about how to interpret practice. Good settings for teacher learning in both colleges and schools provide lots of opportunities for research and inquiry, for trying and testing, for talking about and evaluating the results of learning and teaching. The combination of theory and practice occurs most productively when questions arise in the context of real students and work in progress and where research and disciplined inquiry are also at hand (Miller & Silvernail, 1994).

Shulman (1986) introduced the phrase "pedagogical content knowledge" concerning teachers' knowledge of their subject matter and the importance of this knowledge for successful teaching. Pedagogical content knowledge identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners. Pedagogical content knowledge is the category most likely to distinguish the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue (Shulman, 1987, p. 4).

In Shulman's theoretical framework, teachers need to master two types of knowledge: content, also known as "deep" knowledge of the subject itself, and knowledge of the curricular development. Shulman (1986, 1987, & 1992) created a model of pedagogical reasoning that comprises a cycle of several activities that a teacher should complete for good teaching: comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, reflection, and new comprehension. As Figure 2.1 shows, the cycle begins at comprehension as the point of understanding the focus of the curriculum. From there, the understanding is transformed into actual instructional practice that clearly moves through the last parts of the cycle.

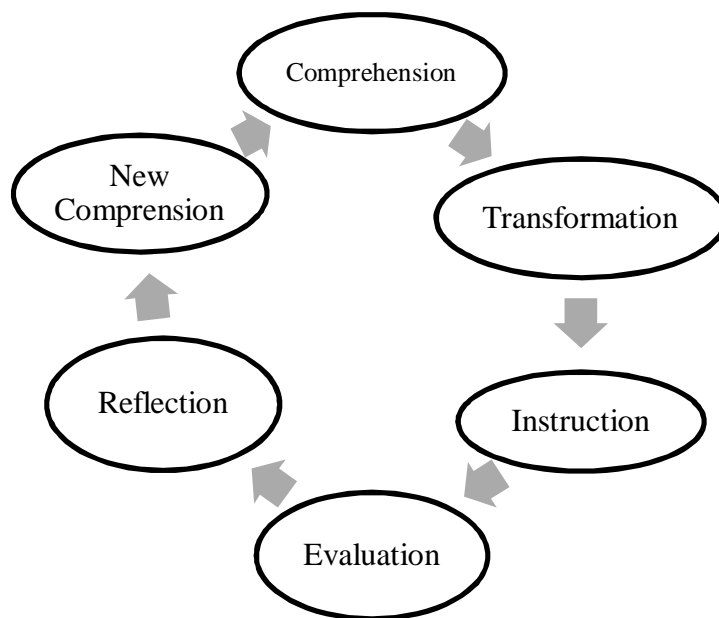


Figure 2.1. Shulman's Theoretical Framework

Effective teachers must model, teach, and demonstrate *all* behaviors they want students to emulate, including social skills. Good teachers allow students the opportunity to practice the exact behaviors they expect. Long, Frye, and Long (1989) found that effective teachers cannot prevent all discipline problems. Even effective teachers will need support as they endeavor to

establish a positive classroom environment. The potential for problems exists outside of the classroom: thus, there is a need to address the parents as part of the plan for acceptable behavior. All teachers need to be attentive to any antecedent that might lead to a negative behavior of a student (Long, Frye, & Long, 1989).

The Role of Teacher Efficacy in Classroom Management

Teachers' feelings of preparedness are also significantly related to teachers' sense of efficacy and their confidence in their ability to achieve teaching goals and manage their classroom (Darling-Hammond and Young, 2002). Teacher efficacy is defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977, p. 137). The novice teacher often focuses on the aspects of their teaching skills that are most limited and place pressure on themselves to perfect every aspect of their teaching practice. Many teachers believe that without mastery of all aspects of teaching, they cannot be effective educators, and many new teachers question their competence (Fry, 2004).

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) characterized teacher efficacy as a variable that impacts teachers' dedication, instructional behavior, student achievement, and teachers' beliefs that they can assist the most apathetic student to learn. They suggested that teacher efficacy encompasses three quantifiable components: efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. Many teachers, lacking confidence in their ability to manage classrooms, characterize classroom management as an authoritarian practice. Marks (2010) found prior to taking a course in behavior management, beginning teachers envisioned ideas of control, authority, and power where the teacher was described as the disciplinarian.

Amongst the participants, a group of novice teachers created metaphors to illustrate a friendship between teacher and student using symbols such as holding hands, shaking hands, and playing together to illustrate ideas of friendship. Mid-term analysis was conducted after 10 weeks of methods and one full day each week of field experience or about 80 hours. The themes that emerged from this wave of data collection and analysis were teacher as nurturing, as a positive influence, as community partners, and as flexible. End of term analysis was conducted after pre-service teachers had worked full-time in classrooms for five weeks. Questionnaires were sent out, and of the 25 sent to students, 10 were completed and returned to the researcher. Students who responded were overwhelmingly positive, expressing how much they utilized the social skills strategies learned in the course. Most notably, pre-service teachers used many preventative and proactive management strategies.

Mongillo (2009) posited that teacher efficacy was enhanced through teacher education courses that combined theory and practice, a finding which reinforces previous research (Darling-Hammond et al., 2006; Latham & Vogt, 2007; Ryan et al., 1979). Courses that modeled good teaching or required teachers to relate coursework to real classroom settings were mentioned as having the most influence on their teaching practices. Teachers who did not feel competent in their practice cited courses that were ñwere not linked to student teachingö or any other real-world experiences (Mongillo, 2009). This research indicates that self-efficacy begins in a classroom that is cognizant of the challenges teachers are likely to encounter in their daily teaching practice and built around instruction about those challenges. These kind of learning experiences give pre-service teachers the chance to have the hands-on experience and the

opportunity to put theory into practice; this is what makes the student teaching experience an essential part of the teacher training program.

Mentoring was also found to have an influence on self-efficacy. Mongillo (2009) found that teachers had mixed relationships with their mentors and that they shared their student teaching as the "best part of the training." They enjoyed the hands-on experiences of being in a classroom and also the occasion to observe many other teachers in real settings. Additionally, the novice teachers in this survey put importance on the preparation and thinking practices obtained during their teacher preparation programs. Two of the teachers shared that they experienced success when their classes are well-thought-out not only for a day but also equally for a single lesson and within the curriculum framework for the entire year. A third teacher extended this by stating that "knowing how an individual lesson relates to the state standards helps remind me of what is important about my teaching." Also, the teachers who feel successful view the reflection techniques taught in their preparation programs as being "key" to feeling successful.

Summary

The findings of this review of literature are consistent with the position that comprehensive teacher preparation in content and pedagogy along with student teaching are more effective and produce more qualified and confident teachers. Student teachers desired "more on the job training" (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2005). Student teachers from both TTP and ATP perceived they were prepared and appropriately trained for the classroom. They believed the proven research-based methods, policies, and training for being effective in all aspects of teaching, including course management and assessment, made being in the classroom

more manageable. The investigation on new teachers' perceptions on their preparedness in classroom management allowed for examination between their perceptions and their job satisfaction as well as their commitment to the teaching profession. Finally, the extent to which student teachers felt well prepared when they entered teaching was significantly correlated with their sense of teaching efficacy, their sense of responsibility for student learning.

However, measures to improve teacher education programs will do little to improve teacher quality if states allow schools to hire teachers without preparation, as more than 30 currently do. States that refuse to hire unprepared teachers have developed successful strategies for boosting the supply of qualified teachers. These strategies include increasing and equalizing teacher salaries, subsidizing candidates' teacher education costs with service scholarships, providing incentives for teachers to enter high-need fields and locations, and ensuring mentoring for beginners to reduce attrition (National Commission on Teaching America's Future (NCTAF), 1997). Some evidence suggests that, in the long run, the greater entry and retention rates of well-prepared teachers may actually save money over the costs of hiring, inducting, and replacing under-prepared recruits who leave at high rates (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

These strategies require states and districts to make investments to improve teachers' access to preparation and provide incentives for becoming well-prepared. Until these investments are made, many students will continue to be taught by teachers who are inadequately prepared to help them learn. If our society really expects all students to learn to high levels, as current rhetoric suggests, a more deliberate set of strategies for ensuring that their teachers gain access to knowledge will be needed.

Oliver and Reschly (2007) suggested teacher preparation programs place importance on preparing both special and general educators to be proficient and knowledgeable at managing classrooms with diverse learners. They propose the following recommendations for refining teacher preparation in the classroom: provide candidates with instructional approaches for classroom management through coursework and guided feedback and address the challenges facing beginning teachers in creating a positive classroom.

Teacher preparation programs should consider the need for a stand-alone classroom management course as a requirement. Most programs discuss classroom management within other courses, offer it as elective, or offer no classroom management classes at all. New teachers are stating loud and clear that the practice they receive in the classroom with peers who concede to their every request or with professors who have no classroom management expertise teaching classroom management is not preparing them for the reality of the classroom. Teacher education programs must provide professional development on classroom management that connects to school-wide behavior and support. Teacher preparation programs should provide beginning teachers with coursework, student teaching, and feedback on instructional approaches to classroom management. The data indicates that school staffing problems are primarily due to excessive demand resulting from a "revolving door" where large numbers of qualified teachers depart their jobs for reasons other than retirement and their positions are filled with unprepared and unqualified teachers. It will take the combined efforts of teachers and policymakers and stakeholders to ensure teachers can acquire the knowledge and skills to manage classrooms effectively. Research is needed on the effects of policy tools now being employed as well as on other tools being considered. Currently, there is little sound empirical research backing the

adoption of policies aimed to advance the quality of teacher preparation. The need is pressing for research that looks at the conditions under which a selection of policy strategies helps improve teacher preparation. Those strategies include, but are not limited to, accountability programs, revised certification systems (e.g., multi-tiered, performance-based certification), collaborative partnerships between colleges and K-12 schools, school district incentives for teachers to give more attention to teacher preparation, state approval mechanisms, and national accreditation. Future research must be conducted to compare the relative impact of these strategies as well as different kinds of policies in each of these areas (Wilson, et al., 2001).

In life, some people are naturally gifted in areas of music, sports, drama, culinary skills, etc. while others work hard to develop their gifts. The same can be said for teaching. For some, teaching is their gift, and for others, it is a work in progress. The need for ongoing professional development for classroom and behavior management should be provided to novice teachers or struggling teachers. This type professional development must be intense and more than one day in duration. Novice teachers must feel confident that requesting additional training or assistance in classroom and behavior management will not be seen as a sign of incompetence. To the contrary, this request needs to be viewed as a teacher's desire to become an effective and competent employee who wishes to establish a positive learning environment for effective instruction. The goal of teacher preparation programs and education institutions is to produce teachers that believe and feel confident that their education and field experience has properly prepared them for the classroom. A confident novice teacher is an effective "teacher" assured of their skills in managing a classroom with minimal disruptions and providing a safe environment for learning.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not there is a significant difference in teacher preparation programs, traditional (degree from a 4-year college or university) and alternative teacher preparation programs (individual states' fast-track teaching certification) that affect classroom management skills, academic preparation, time management, and self-efficacy of novice teachers. This study examined novice teachers' perception of their classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and efficacy. The research questions and hypotheses, research design, description of participants, instrument used, and procedure for the study are discussed in this chapter.

Research Design

The purpose of this quantitative study was to identify teacher preparation programs (traditional, alternative) and their effect on classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy. The four hypotheses were analyzed using a causal-comparative research design. A causal comparative research design implies that the dependent variables may vary as a result of the independent variable. Quantitative research provides numerical descriptions of trends or attitudes of an isolated portion of a population and attempts to generalize results to a larger sample of the same population (Creswell, 2009). It differs from qualitative research because it seeks to accept or reject a particular hypothesis through research. Quantitative research is more appropriate for answering questions about relationships or differences between specific variables (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative research is best suited for this study because there is an effort to analyze data using descriptive statistics to summarize and compare the data among dependent and independent variables. An independent t-test was used

to evaluate the research questions. The independent t-test technique provides a method for the researcher to compare means across two or more independent groups to determine if they differ significantly.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the literature, four research questions were used to guide this study. In the four research questions, the independent variable is teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) and the dependent variables are classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy. The research questions are as follows:

Research Question #1: Is there a difference in classroom management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative)?

H1_{Null}: There is no significant difference in classroom management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative).

Research Question #2: Is there a difference in academic preparation of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative)?

H2_{Null}: There is no significant difference in academic preparation of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative).

Research Question #3: Is there a difference in time management of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative)?

H3_{Null}: There is no significant difference in time management of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative).

Research Question #4: Is there a difference in perception of efficacy of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative)?

H4_{Null}: There is no significant difference in perception of efficacy of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative).

Table 3.1 provides a structured view of the four research questions and related methodological components including an independent variable, four dependent variables, and the statistical technique used to test each question. Although these methodological components are presented here in brief, they will be discussed in depth later in this chapter.

Table 3.1

Hypotheses with Related Methodological Components

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable(s)	Statistical Technique
H1	Teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative)	Classroom management skills	Independent T-test
H2		Academic preparation	Independent T-test
H3		Time management	Independent T-test
H4		Perception of efficacy	Independent T-test

Operational Model

Through survey research, the study examined the differences between the dependent variables, (a) classroom management skills, (b) academic preparation, (c) time management, and (d) perception of efficacy based on the independent variable, teacher preparation program (traditional and alternative). A single independent variable and four dependent variables are specified in Figure 3.1. It shows that this model applies to both traditional and alternative programs.

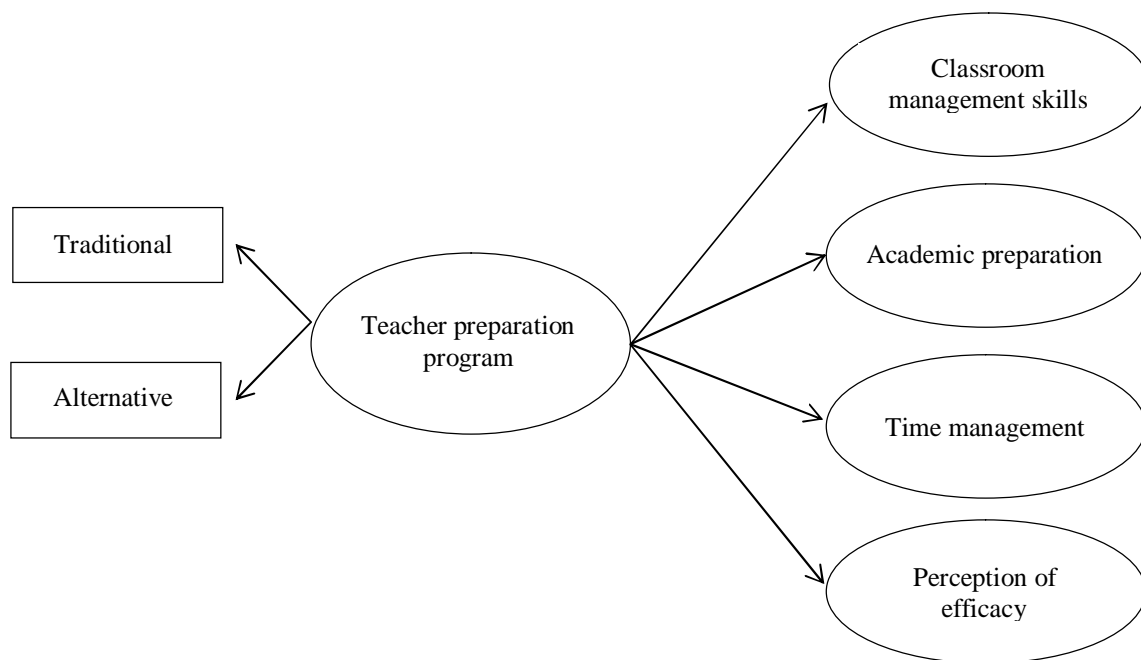


Figure 3.1. *Operational Model*

Participants

Population.

The population under study was 28 K-12 novice teachers with one-five years of teaching experience. The demographics for the population are three males and 25 female teachers of various ethnicities who hold a graduate degree.

Sample.

The sample was comprised of K-12 novice teachers from Albemarle County School District in the state of Virginia. The demographic characteristic of teachers will duplicate the population. Participants have one-five years of teaching experience and have been trained in one

of the two curriculums, traditional or alternative teacher preparation programs. Further, only teachers with a graduate degree were included in the study. Men, women, all subject areas, and all teaching grade levels (elementary, middle, and high school) were represented.

Sampling Procedure.

A convenience or purposeful sampling technique was used to extract the sample from the population. There are several different types of purposeful sampling to include typical, unique, maximum variation, convenience, snowball, chain, and network. Convenience sampling encompasses the person that is readily available to be researched. Specifically, Merriam (1998) asserts that this type of sampling technique is used due to restrictions of time, money, location, and availability of sites or respondents (p. 63).

Convenience sampling is regularly used in exploratory research to collect data that is generally representative of the population being studied. This method is often used during preliminary research efforts to get a gross estimate of results, without incurring the cost or time required to select a random sample (StatPac, 2007, p.1). This sampling method enables the researcher to act within a certain period and under conditions that facilitate data collection. By its nature, convenience sampling sacrifices generalizability and, therefore, may not provide sufficient representation of the target population. Thus, those selected for the study may only partially represent the population being investigated. As such, replication may be necessary to fully validate study results (Keppel & Zedeck, 2001).

Despite its deficiencies, convenience sampling is the best method of obtaining a sample population when time and conditions prohibit random sampling (Neuman, 2003). Convenience

sampling enables the researcher to seek an approximation of the truth when obtaining the truth (i.e. via random sampling) is conditionally prohibitive.

All participants were given a consent form to read and sign. Participants were contacted via email by the district research administrator to complete survey.

Operationalization of Variables

Four research questions were presented in this quantitative study to explore the difference between classroom management, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy of novice teachers based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative). The independent variable is teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) while the dependent variables are academic preparation, classroom management, perception of efficacy, and time management.

Classroom Management.

Classroom management is the dependent variable used in Research Question #1. Classroom management is defined as the physical structures and procedural systems rather than behavioral guides that promote ease of classroom movement and learning efficiency (Kenyon, 2007). Data for this variable was collected via the use of nine items in the National New Teacher survey. The questionnaire has nine questions that measured this variable. Questions 11, 13, 18, 19, 20, 22, 26, 28, and 30 on the National New Teacher survey were used to assess classroom management. This variable was measured at the interval level where a five-point Likert scale ranges from low to high, with 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *undecided*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. As evidenced by the scale, no escape option was available.

Academic Preparation.

Academic preparation is the dependent variable used in Research Question #2. Academic preparation is defined as pertaining to areas of studies that are liberal or classical; variety of skills ranging from time management to computer literacy to research to writing and presentation skills. Academic preparation was measured at the interval level. The questionnaire has six questions that measured this variable. Questions 1, 5, 8, 16, 23, and 31 on the National New Teacher survey were used to assess academic preparation. This variable was measured at the interval level where a five-point Likert scale ranges from low to high, with 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *undecided*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. As evidenced by the scale, no escape option was available.

Time Management.

Time management is the dependent variable used in Research Question #3. Time management is defined as managing various roles, activities, and responsibilities in a way that results in harmony between personal and professional lives (McGraw-Hill, 2008). Data for the variable was collected via the use of the National New Teacher survey. The questionnaire has ten questions that measured this variable. Questions 2, 4, 9, 10, 12, 21, 24, 25, 27, and 29 on the National New Teacher survey were used to assess questions on time management. Time management was scaled at the interval level where a five-point Likert-type scale ranges from low to high, with 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *undecided*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. As evidenced by the scale, no escape option was available

Perception of Efficacy.

Perception of efficacy is the dependent variable used in Research Question #4.

Perception of efficacy is defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Reeves, 2011). Data for the variable were collected via the use of the National New Teacher survey. The questionnaire has six items that measured this variable. Questions 3, 6, 7, 14, 15, and 17 on the National New Teacher survey were used to assess perception of efficacy. Perception of efficacy was scaled at the interval level where a five-point Likert-type scale ranges from low to high, with 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *undecided*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. As evidenced by the scale, no escape option was available.

Teacher Preparation Programs.

A teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) is the independent variable used in this research study. Teacher preparation is defined as purposely created to prepare teachers to acquire certification and teach in the classroom. Data for the variable is collected via the use of the National New Teacher survey. Question 19 in the demographic section of the National New Teacher survey was used to assess teacher preparation programs. Teacher preparation programs was scaled at the nominal 1 = *traditional* and 2 = *alternative*. As evidenced by the scale, no escape option was available.

Data Collection

Data was collected from 28 K-12 novice teachers with one-five years teaching experience from Albemarle County School District in Virginia.

Data was collected electronically with the permission of Albemarle County School Superintendent. The National New Teachers survey and consent form were uploaded to SurveyMonkey and disseminated via email. SurveyMonkey is a private American company that enables users to create their own Web-based surveys and upload already published surveys. It allows users to design surveys, collect responses, and analyze the responses of their surveys. Prior to completing the survey, each participant must sign an informed consent letter (Appendix A). Upon signing the consent letter, participants were able to complete the National New Teachers Survey.

The purpose of the study and what the participant's involvement will consist of were included in the informed consent letter. Additionally, participants were assured that no identifying information was used or collected at any point during the process and all results would remain anonymous. If a participant refused to sign the informed consent letter, they were automatically removed from the study. Upon signing the informed consent letter, each participant received and completed the National New Teachers Survey, which also includes a demographics section.

Support data and email addresses were obtained from Albemarle County Human Resources and local and state government on the number of certified novice teachers with traditional teacher preparation and one-five years teaching experience. All data was collected and recorded using Microsoft Excel. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program was used to analyze the data collection.

Setting

The survey was disseminated in a Virginia school district. The survey was disseminated via email to 50 novice teachers with one-five years teaching experience participating in the district's induction program.

Instrumentation

Melnick and Meister of Penn State (2008) created the National New Teacher Survey, which was used and adapted with permission for this study. A 5-point Likert scale 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Undecided, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree was used to analysis questions .The survey includes demographic, academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and self-efficacy questions that were prepared for internet data collection.

Novice teacher survey.

This study focused on four issues novice teachers face: (1) classroom management, (2) academic preparation, (3) time management, and (4) perception of efficacy. In order to assess these four issues, a survey instrument was developed following the instrument development guidelines described by Gable and Wolf (1993) for the creation of affective scales to measure attitudes and values in corporate and school settings. Melnick and Meister of Penn State (2008) created the National New Teacher Survey, which was used and adapted with permission for this study. The survey contains a demographics portion with 31 additional items that were scaled at the interval level. A 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *undecided*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*) was used to answer questions on classroom management skills, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy.

Validity and Reliability

Data integrity, validity, and reliability of the instruments used to collect data are assumed. That is, the design is appropriate for the study, the sample is assumed to be representative of the population, the sample methodology does not contain biases, and the statistical procedure is applicable for what is being analyzed. Data collection was appropriate and the instruments are assumed to accurately measure what is supposed to measure. Table 3.2 provides a structured view of the reliability of each construct.

Table 3.2

<i>Reliability and Corresponding Construct</i>		
Construct	Number of items	Reliability
Academic Preparation	8	0.72
Parent Interactions Classroom Management	7	0.78
Classroom Management	9	0.86
Time Management	4	0.70

Data Analysis Procedures

Four independent-samples t -tests were used to test the four hypotheses. An independent-samples t -test is used to compare means across two independent groups to determine if they differ significantly. The t -statistic was introduced in 1908 by William Gosset, whose pseudonym was Student (Box, 1987) and is often referred to as Student's t -test.

Summary

This causal-comparative study was designed to explore differences between classroom management skills, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy based on teacher preparation program. This chapter described the research methodology that was used to

accomplish this purpose. Additionally, this chapter also described the sample, data collection procedures, and data interpretation/analysis.

Chapter Four will include a description of the data collected, the data analysis procedures, and the results of the study as they pertain to the hypotheses and research questions. Chapter Five will discuss an overview of the study, interpretation of the findings, implications of the findings, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Hearing the words “academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and self-efficacy” conjures up endless visions of pedagogical techniques, teaching strategies, technology, differentiation, assessments, classroom procedures, activities, recommendations, and solutions on how to achieve the ideal classroom for engaged, bell to bell, meaningful learning for all students. Void of a blueprint for classroom management on how learning will occur, it is almost guaranteed classroom disruptions are inevitable.

The National New Teacher Survey instrument (Melnick and Meister, 2008) was adapted and used for this study. The original questionnaire covers several areas of classroom management. However, for this study, classroom management focuses on four areas only: teacher preparation programs, academic preparation, time management, and self-efficacy.

The data collection process took place online over a two week period, May through June in Albemarle School District, Charlottesville, Virginia. Only K-12 novice teachers with one-five years teaching experience with permanent or temporary teaching contracts were included in the study. From the school district, 50 novice teachers were potential research participants for this study. Out of the 50 potential research participants, 28 (56 %) participated in the study.

Data Analysis

Inferential statistics were used to draw conclusions from the sample tested. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to code and tabulate scores collected from the survey and provide summarized values where applicable including the median, mean, central tendency, variance, and standard deviation. Demographic statistics were provided including

count and percent statistics. Independent-samples t-tests were used to assess the four research questions. The research questions were:

Research Question #1 (RQ1): Is there a difference in classroom management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Research Question #2 (RQ2): Is there a difference in academic preparation of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Research Question #3 (RQ3): Is there a difference in time management of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Research Question #4 (RQ4): Is there a difference in perception efficacy of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Table 4.1

Study Variables and Statistical Test Used to Evaluate Four Research Questions

Research Questions	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Test
1	Classroom Management	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test
2	Academic Preparation	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test
3	Time Management	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test
4	Efficacy	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test

Prior to analyzing the four research questions, data hygiene and data screening were undertaken to ensure the variables of interest met appropriate statistical assumptions. Thus, the following analyses will use a similar analytical strategy in that the variables will be first evaluated for univariate and multivariate outliers, normality, and homogeneity of variance.

Subsequently, independent-samples t-tests were run to determine if any relationships existed between variables of interest.

Demographics

The population under study included 28 K-12 novice teachers from Virginia (and one from New Jersey) with one-five years of teaching experience. Of the 31 participants who began the survey, there were 25 female teachers and three male teachers that completed the survey. Additionally, all participants ($n = 28$) reported they were certified in the subject area(s) they were teaching. Furthermore, 67.9% ($n = 19$) indicated that their current position was their first teaching position (see Table 4.13 for summary details).

Table 4.2

Frequency Statistics for Participants' Gender, Location, Current Career, and Certification

Variable	<i>N</i>	%
Male	3	10.7
Female	25	89.3

Current Teaching Career is First Career	Yes	No	Yes	No
	19	9	67.9	32.1

State Certified	28	100%
Virginia	27	96.4
New Jersey	1	3.6

Of the 28 participants eligible for the survey, 10 attended a rural school, 17 attended a suburban school, and one attended an urban school. Of these participants, 19 attended a traditional teacher preparation program, nine attended an alternative teacher preparation program, 20 attended a state school, 7 attended a liberal arts college, and one attended another college. Currently, 24 hold elementary teaching positions, one holds a middle school position, and three hold high school positions. See Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Frequency Statistics of Where Participants' Went to School and Where They Teach Now

Variable		<i>n</i>	%
District Type	Rural	10	35.7
	Suburban	17	60.7
	Urban	1	3.6
Teacher Preparation	Traditional	19	67.9
	Alternative	9	32.1
School Teaching At	Elementary School	24	85.7
	Middle School	1	3.6
	Senior High School/High School	3	10.7
Undergraduate School Attended	State School	20	71.4
	Liberal Arts College	7	25.0
	Other	1	3.6

Of the 28 participants eligible for the survey, two began teaching between the ages of 18-21, 17 between the ages of 22-25, four between the ages of 26-30, two between the ages of 31-35, one between the ages of 36-40 and two at age 41 or older.

Participants' primary teaching grade levels varied: six taught first grade, six second grade, three third grade, five fourth grade, two fifth grade, four sixth grade, one eleventh grade, and one twelfth grade. See Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Frequency Statistics of the Age Participants' Began Teaching and the Grade Level They Primarily Teach

Variable		<i>n</i>	%
Age Starting Teaching	18-21	2	7.1
	22-25	17	60.7
	26-30	4	14.3
	31-35	2	7.1
	36-40	1	3.6
	41 and older	2	7.1
	<hr/>		
Grade Level Taught	1	6	21.4
	2	6	21.4
	3	2	7.1
	4	5	17.9
	5	2	7.1
	6	4	14.3
	11	1	3.6
	12	1	3.6

Note: In Table 4.4, there are only 27 listed responses for Grade Level Taught because one participant (Case #2610398279) responded that they taught 13th grade. Thus, since this may have been a typo, the case was considered as a missing response. Another possible reason that the

numbers do not add up is the categories the participants could choose overlap. They could possibly have selected more than one category based on the possible answers to select from.

Of the 28 participants eligible for the survey, 15 substituted less than one year, eight between one and two years, and four between two and three years. The results for the number of years before participants received permanent status are as follows: 14 had less than a year before receiving permanent status, seven one-two years, one two-three years, two three-four years, one four-five years, two five or more years. See Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Frequency Statistics of Participants' Number of Years as a Substitute Teacher and Number of Years until Permanent Status

Variable		<i>n</i>	%
Years as Substitute	Less than 1 year	15	53.6
	1-2 years	8	28.6
	2-3 years	4	14.3
Years until Permanent Status	Less than 1 year	14	50.0
	1-2 years	7	25.0
	2-3 years	1	3.6
	3-4 years	2	7.1
	4-5 years	1	3.6
	5 years or more	2	7.1

Note: In Table 4.5, there was one missing score for each of the two variables: Years as Substitute (Case # 2653516616) and Years until Permanent Status (Case # 2646075632). A possible reason that the numbers do not add up is that the categories the participants could choose overlap. They could have possibly selected more than one category based on the possible answers.

Of the 28 participants eligible for the survey, the number of years in their current position varied: one less than one year, eight one-two years, five two-three years, seven three-four years, four four-five years, three five or more years. Of these participants, the number of years they plan to teach are as follows: three unknown, two one-five years, three six-ten years, one 11-15 years, three 16-20 years, six 20+ years, and six until retirement. See Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Frequency Statistics of the Number of Years Participants Have Been in Their Current Position and the Number of Years They Plan to Teach

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Years in Position	Less than 1 year	1 3.6
	1-2 years	8 28.6
	2-3 years	5 17.9
	3-4 years	7 25.0
	4-5 years	4 14.3
	5 years or more	3 10.7
Years Plan to Teach	Unknown	3 10.7
	one-five years	2 7.1
	6-10 years	3 10.7
	11-15 years	1 3.6
	16-20 years	3 10.7
	20+ years	6 21.4
	Until Retirement	6 21.4

Note: In Table 4.6, there were four missing scores for Years Plan to Teach (Case #2674455386, #2661727390, #2653183581, and # 2646289795). A possible reason that the numbers do not add up is that the categories the participants could choose overlap. They could possibly have selected more than one category based on the possible answers.

Of the 28 participants eligible for the survey, 26 participated in a field experience, and two did not participate in field experience; the results are the same for student teaching. Of the

28 eligible participants, 19 participated in professional development school, and nine did not participate in professional development school. Of this same group of participants, 26 received a mentor during their first year of teaching and two did not receive a mentor during their first year of teaching. See Table 4. 7.

Table 4.7

Participants' Frequency Statistics of Participation in Field Experience, Student Teaching, Student Teaching, Profession Development School, and/or Mentorship.

Variable		<i>n</i>	%
Field Experience	Yes	26	92.9
	No	2	7.1
Student Teaching Experience	Yes	26	92.9
	No	2	7.1
Variable			
Professional Development School	Yes	19	67.9
	No	9	32.1
First Year Mentor	Yes	26	92.9
	No	2	7.1

Research Question #1-4

Research Questions #1-4 were analyzed using independent-samples t-tests to statistically test if significant differences in novice teachers existed between traditional and alternative teacher preparation. Specifically, the dependent variable for Research Question #1 was teachers' classroom management skills; the dependent variable for Research Question #2 was teachers' academic preparation; the dependent variable for Research Question #3 was teachers' time management; and the dependent variable for Research Question #4 was teachers' perception of

efficacy. The dependent variables were measured by the 31-item *National Teacher Survey* (NTS) on a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Undecided*, 4 = *Agree*, and 5 = *Strongly Agree*. Composite scores were calculated for each of the four dependent variables by averaging participant scores across each of the variable constructs. Composite scores were used as the dependent variables for Research Questions #1-4. The independent variable was teachers' preparation (traditional and alternative). Traditional preparation included teachers who attended a four year teacher preparation college/university after high school or who attended a Master of Education program, and alternative preparation included teachers who entered teaching through an alternative preparation program (e.g. state certification program).

Data Screening

Before the hypotheses were assessed, the data were screened for missing data and univariate outliers. The data were screened for univariate outliers by transforming raw scores to z-scores and comparing z-scores to a critical value of ± 3.29 , $p < .001$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Z-scores that exceed this critical value were more than three standard deviations away from the mean and, thus, represented outliers. The distributions were evaluated, and no cases with univariate outliers were found. Missing data were investigated using frequency counts, and three cases existed within the all distributions and were removed from the analyses. Additionally, one participant declined the consent form and was removed from analyses. Thus, 32 responses from participants were collected, and 28 were entered into the independent t-test models. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variables by teacher preparation are given below in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables by Teacher Preparation

Dependent Variable	Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max
Classroom Management Skills	Traditional	4.03	0.427	0.516	0.022	3.40	5.00
	Alternative	4.06	0.453	0.891	-0.102	3.60	4.90
Academic Preparation	Traditional	3.89	0.627	-0.687	0.644	2.33	4.83
	Alternative	3.56	0.416	-2.475	6.670	2.50	3.83
Time Management	Traditional	3.87	0.398	-0.476	-0.207	3.00	4.43
	Alternative	3.84	0.273	0.497	-1.343	3.57	4.29
Perception of Efficacy	Traditional	4.18	0.428	-0.789	2.329	3.00	5.00
	Alternative	4.20	0.499	-0.606	-0.679	3.33	4.83

Note. Traditional $n = 19$, Alternative $n = 9$

Normality

Before Research Questions #1-4 were analyzed, basic parametric assumptions were assessed including normality and homogeneity of variance. To test if the distributions were significantly skewed, the skew coefficients were divided by the skew standard error, resulting in a z-skew coefficient. This technique was recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Specifically, z-skew coefficients exceeding the critical value of ± 3.29 ($p < .001$) may indicate non-normality. Thus, based on the evaluation of the z-skew coefficients, academic preparation scores for alternative teacher preparation participants exceeded the critical value ($skew = -2.475$, $z-skew = -3.452$). Kurtosis was evaluated using the same method, and the aforementioned distribution (academic preparation for alternative teacher preparation) was also found to be significantly kurtotic (see Table 4.9 for details). Although the distribution was found to be significantly skewed and kurtotic, results from the t-test did not differ when using transformed scores; thus, the variable was conditionally assumed to be normally distributed and used to

assess the four research questions. The scores for Academic Preparation were significantly skewed and kurtotic and were transformed using a square root transformation to normalize the distribution. An independent-sample t-test was then conducted using the transformed scores to see if the results differed from the untransformed data. Results from both sets of data indicated that there was no significant difference in academic preparation between traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs. That is, the same results were obtained using both sets of data. Thus, since results were the same and because it is difficult to interpret standardized scores (transformed scores) in relation to the constructs scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*), the untransformed scores were chosen to be used in the analysis of Hypothesis 2.

Table 4.9

Skewness and Kurtosis Statistics of the Dependent Variables by Teacher Preparation

Variable	Group	Skewness	Std. Error of Skew	z-Skew	Kurtosis	Std. Error of Kurtosis	z-Kurtosis
Classroom Management Skills	Traditional	0.516	0.524	0.985	0.022	1.014	0.022
	Alternative	0.891	0.717	1.243	-0.102	1.400	-0.073
Academic Preparation	Traditional	-0.687	0.524	-1.311	0.644	1.014	0.635
	Alternative	-2.475	0.717	-3.452	6.670	1.400	4.764
Time Management	Traditional	-0.476	0.524	-0.908	-0.207	1.014	-0.204
	Alternative	0.497	0.717	0.693	-1.343	1.400	-0.959
Perception of Efficacy	Traditional	-0.789	0.524	-1.506	2.329	1.014	2.297
	Alternative	-0.606	0.717	-0.845	-0.679	1.400	-0.485

Homogeneity of Variance

Homogeneity of variance was evaluated using Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance to determine if the error variance of the dependent variables were equal across groups (traditional and alternative). Results from the test indicated that the distribution of the dependent variables did meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance. These results suggest that variances were equally distributed. See Table 4.10 for details of Levene's Test on the dependent variables used in Research Questions #1-4.

Table 4.10

Summary of Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance

Dependent Variable	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Classroom Management Skills	0.038	1	26	.847
Academic Preparation	2.219	1	26	.148
Time Management	0.888	1	26	.355
Perception of Efficacy	0.708	1	26	.408

Results for Research Questions #1-4

Null Hypothesis 1 (H₀₁): There is no significant difference in classroom management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H₀₂): There is no significant difference in academic preparation of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H₀₃): There is no significant difference in time management of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.

Null Hypothesis 4 (H₀₄): There is no significant difference in perception of efficacy of novice teachers based on teacher preparation program (traditional, alternative) as shown by the statistical analysis of the National New Teacher Survey.

Results from the t-tests revealed that no significant differences in teachers' classroom management skills, academic preparation, time management, and perception of efficacy existed between traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs. Thus, the null hypotheses for Research Questions #1-4 were retained. See Table 4.11 for a summary of the independent-samples t-tests. Displayed in Figures 1-4 in Appendix A are means plots of the dependent variables.

Table 4.11

Summary of Independent-samples t-tests for Research Questions 1-4

Dependent Variable	T	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference
Classroom Management Skills	-0.166	26	.869	0.029
Academic Preparation	1.467	26	.154	0.339
Time Management	0.218	26	.829	0.032
Perception of Efficacy	-0.151	26	.881	0.028

Summary

The national concern of teacher preparation programs supplying enough highly qualified teachers in both content knowledge and pedagogy content knowledge continues today. This study examined the difference between academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and teachers' perception of self-efficacy based on type of teacher preparation program. The results are as follows. Results for Research Question #1 indicated that a significant difference in classroom management skills did not exist between teachers in the traditional preparation program and teachers in the alternative preparation program ($p = .869$). Results for Research Question #2 indicated that a significant difference in academic preparation did not exist between teachers in the traditional preparation program and teachers in the

alternative preparation program ($p = .154$). Results for Research Question #3 indicated that a significant difference in time management did not exist between teachers in the traditional preparation program and teachers in the alternative preparation program ($p = .829$). Results for Research Question #4 indicated that a significant difference in efficacy did not exist between teachers in the traditional preparation program and teachers in the alternative preparation program ($p = .881$).

Table 4.12

Summary of Results for Research Questions 1-4

Research Questions	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Test	Sig.
1	Classroom Management Skills	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test	.869
2	Academic Preparation	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test	.154
3	Time Management	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test	.829
4	Efficacy	Teacher Preparation	Independent t-test	.881

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, & RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Research studies consistently point out that novice teachers feel unqualified when it comes to academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and self-efficacy and that they are unqualified to successfully manage today's classrooms with respect to student diversity, curriculum, mainstreaming, managing administrative tasks, and behavior problems (Allen, 2010). Teachers in the U.S. desiring to acquire teaching licensure or certification are required to complete one of two preparation programs, traditional or alternative. Teacher candidates who attend traditional teacher preparation programs generally are undergraduate students at a college or university seeking a bachelor's degree. These students typically have no prior teaching or work experience. Those who choose the alternative teacher preparation program, on the other hand, are primarily teacher candidates with a minimum of a bachelor's degree that are teachers of record in a classroom while participating in a state alternative route to teaching licensure or certification (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

The review of the literature indicated that the quality of undergraduate training and teacher preparation programs varies across post-secondary institutions due to differential admissions criteria, quantity of classes required, minimum required GPAs, expectations of faculty, and exposure to different theories of teaching and learning (Kukla-Acevedo, 2008). Previous research has found that classroom management was the second largest category of struggle for novice teachers (Romano, 2008). Marks (2010) found that prior to taking a course in behavior management, students commencing their teacher training envisioned control, authority, and power when hearing a teacher being described as the disciplinarian.

Other studies suggest there are relationships between teachers' views of their preparedness and their perception of efficacy, a variable that is linked with teacher effectiveness as well as with their views of their academic preparation and their strategies to remain in teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Teachers who felt more prepared were considerably more likely to have confidence that they could impact all of their students, manage disruptions in the classroom, teach all students to grade levels, and make a difference in the lives of their students. Those who felt underprepared were significantly more likely to feel unclear about how to teach certain students and more prone to accept as truth that students' peers and home environment influence learning more than teachers do (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Mongillo (2009) established that for general education teachers and special education teachers all-encompassing preparation turns out more qualified teachers than do lesser amounts of preparation in spite of the type of preparation. Teachers who did not feel competent in their practice cited courses that were not linked to student teaching or any other real-world experiences.

The aim of the present study was to identify whether type of teacher preparation program (traditional or alternative) affects academic preparation, classroom management skills, time management, and self-efficacy of novice teachers. More specifically, statistical analysis was undertaken to determine whether differences exist in these four aspects of teaching among novice teachers based on whether they received traditional or alternative teacher preparation. Understanding possible differences on these key teaching characteristics may be useful in determining whether there is the need for a stand-alone classroom management class as a requirement of teacher preparation programs.

The research questions that framed this study were:

Research Question #1 (RQ1): Is there a difference in classroom management skills of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Research Question #2 (RQ2): Is there a difference in academic preparation of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Research Question #3 (RQ3): Is there a difference in time management of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Research Question #4 (RQ4): Is there a difference in perception efficacy of novice teachers based on teacher preparation (traditional, alternative)?

Data for this study were collected electronically using an adapted version of the National New Teacher Survey. The research questions were answered through quantitative analysis of data collected measuring participants' academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and self-efficacy. The sample included 28 K-12 novice teachers, primarily from Virginia. Nineteen of these teachers had taken part in a traditional teacher preparation program while the other nine took an alternative route to obtaining licensure.

Summary of Findings

SPSS 20.0 was used to analyze data for the four research questions. Each research question was answered by running an independent-samples *t*-test. Full details of these analyses were presented in Chapter 4 with key findings summarized in this section.

Results from the analyses indicate no significant difference in any of the four dependent variables based on teacher preparation program. That is, whether teachers took part in a traditional or alternative teacher preparation program did not affect their classroom management

skills ($p = .869$), academic preparation ($p = .154$), time management ($p = .829$), or perception of efficacy ($p = .881$). As such, all four null hypotheses were retained.

Conclusions and Implications

The U.S. Department of Education, (2011a) stated:

Too many future teachers graduate from prep programs unprepared for success in the classroom. We have to give teachers the support they need to ensure that children get the high quality education they deserve. Our goal is to develop a system that recognizes and rewards good programs, and encourages all of them to improve (p.1).

While this quote does not specify one type of teaching program as better preparing future teachers over another, it does highlight the fact that regardless of teacher program chosen the program must be rigorous and include adequate training regarding not only content but also the effective delivery of content within the classroom setting.

The results of this study indicate that the type of teacher preparation program a teacher candidate selects, whether traditional or alternative, does not have an effect on classroom management, academic preparation, time management, or perception of efficacy. This result is contrary to previous research studies that show inadequate academic preparation due to alternative teacher preparation program produces unqualified teachers (Duck, 2007; Quigney, 2010; Rochkind, Ott, Immerwahr, Doble, & Johnson, 2007). Other studies indicated classroom management and time management were issues of concern for novice teachers (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2006; Jones, 2006; Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2006; Savage & Savage, 2009; Nahal, 2009). Additional studies found novice teachers' perceptions of self-

efficacy to be a factor of unpreparedness (Choy, Chong, Wong, & Wong, 2011; Melnick & Meister, 2008).

Not all past research is in contrast to the results of the present study. Research completed by Ritter Research studies by Ritter and Hancock, (2007) and Sass, (2011) align with this study showing that the type of teacher preparation program, traditional or alternative, did not have an impact on classroom management. The Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) from 2008-2009 indicated that of 1,260 teachers that left the profession the previous year, only 1.8% specified classroom factors, such as classroom management, as the most important factor in their decision to leave (Keigher, 2010).

There is a need for unification of teacher preparation programs. There is the expectation that unification among teacher education institutions will continue to certify and preserve curriculum development that keeps pace with current trends (National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2008). Monroe, Blackwell, and Pepper (2010) examined the literature data that would best prepare novice teachers in classroom management and stated dissatisfaction with the regulated quantity of coursework, a lack of agreement on what should be in a behavior management course, and accountabilities in preparation in the area of management.

Research data suggest that with no assessments, guidelines, or policy for teacher preparation programs teacher preparedness is lower and school-level indicators of learning achievement will be lower (Coggshall, et al., 2012). With the recent revamping of the Institute of Higher Education Association (IHEA) evaluation reporting system (2011), the quality and uniformity of standard are being elevated. The annual reporting requirements mandated in HEA Title II represent the first step in systematizing data collection, using common definitions, and

making information public. In all, states must report 440 data elements each year (Duncan, 2011). Furthermore, HEA requires that the states implement procedures for identifying and assisting low-performing teacher preparation programs (Duncan, 2011).

Teacher preparation programs that generate the ability to measure teachers' success in academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and self-efficacy will then have the task of determining how teachers get these results. This is critical data for recognizing the impact of individual teachers in addition to the importance for finding out if teacher preparation programs are generating new teachers with the knowledge and skills to assist student learning. States currently can link student and teacher data in their K-12 system, but they are unable to link practicing teachers back to their preparation program and will need to work this out (Crowe, 2010).

The result indicating no difference in abilities between teachers trained in traditional or alternative teacher preparation programs may be a by-product of the HEA revised accountability evaluation system. When teacher preparation programs are held accountable for teachers they place in our schools, as is the case with the new revisions, it is likely that a high quality teacher preparation program, whether traditional or alternative, will produce teachers confident in their academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and self-efficacy. While there may have been differences in these abilities based on teacher preparation programs in the past, the demand for highly qualified teachers may be leveling the playing field and resulting in more equivalent levels between teachers trained traditionally or alternatively.

Recommendations for Further Research

As was highlighted in the review of literature, teacher candidates attending a traditional teacher preparation program and participating in student teaching and/or field experience feel more prepared for the classroom than those participating in an alternative teacher preparation program. If this is indeed the case, the non-significant findings in the present study raise the question of why this reported effect was not observed. One potential reason for this discrepancy is study sample size. The initial number of potential participants was 50 with 32 participants entering the survey and a final count of 28 participants found to be eligible for the survey; this is a relatively small number. Future researchers should, therefore, strive to obtain a larger sample size when conducting similar quantitative research to ensure sufficient statistical power.

Researchers should also consider investigating the topic qualitatively. A qualitative study would allow participants to explain their definitions of academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and perception of self-efficacy as well as relate how their specific teacher training programs did or did not prepare them for the challenges of teaching.

With most states requiring end-of-course testing for students, it is essential that teacher preparation programs prepare comprehensive programs of study to ensure student achievement. With student achievement being linked to the success of a teacher, further research on what characteristics and skills demonstrated by teachers lead to student achievement is suggested. Once this information has been established, it may be possible for preparation programs to attempt to cultivate these specific skills in their trainees.

Previous studies have consistently shown that classroom disruptions and inappropriate behaviors are the number one cause for the reduction of student learning in the classroom. Given

this information, it is pertinent that researchers evaluate the effects of requiring all teacher candidates to take a stand-alone classroom management course. Currently, \$7 billion a year is spent by districts and states to recruit, hire, and try to retain new teachers (NEA, 2008). Further research should be conducted to determine the cost and profitability of providing a stand-alone classroom management course to future hires.

Implications

The decision as to which university, college, or technical college to attend is a difficult one for many seeking higher education. The federal government requires that all teachers be "highly qualified" before entering the classroom. This requirement entails teachers being proficient in both content and pedagogy knowledge. In order for teacher candidates to ensure they are appropriately prepared to meet the challenges of the classroom, they must research which teacher education programs, traditional or alternate, provide them the best opportunity and hold a history of quality preparation of teacher candidates for both success and the reality of the classroom.

Discussion of the dissimilarities between alternate and traditional teacher preparation programs is often not effective in policy debate because of the vast diversity of programs within each group and the overlap of features between programs of different types (Boyd, et al., 2008; Humphrey, Wechsler, & Hough, 2008). Some teacher preparation programs may emerge as stronger not because they offer better opportunities for students to learn to teach but because they are able to attract better teacher candidates. This ability to draw strong candidates is a program characteristic and to evaluate the effectiveness of various programs includes evaluating the ability to acquire talent as one of its features (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Teacher preparation

programs, both traditional and alternative, will need to strive to produce teacher candidates of high quality to compete for employment during this time of teacher shortage.

Limitations

The results of this study were limited by the sample size. Although Albemarle County administrators stated 50 employees in the county induction program would be participating in the study, it proved difficult to get the 32 participants' participation. With the exception of one participant, all were from the same geographical region, so the findings are not a general reflection of the entire U.S. Also, the survey was administered a month before the school year ended. Teachers were preparing for end-of-the-course testing and check-out for the summer, which may have compounded the difficulty in obtaining responses or affected participants' focus on survey questions.

Summary

Academic preparation, classroom management skills, time management, and self-efficacy are essential skill-sets that teachers should have. Knowing the importance of these skill-sets leads to the question of why education researchers are not able to show how teachers can be best prepared in this area (Melnick & Meister, 2008). There is national concern about how teacher preparation programs prepare novice teachers with pedagogy, content knowledge, classroom management skills, and novice teachers' perception of efficacy (Buckner, 2011). The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine potential differences in academic preparation, classroom management, time management, and teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy based on type of teacher preparation program (traditional or alternative). Data for this study were

collected through the use of survey methodology. Four hypotheses were analyzed using a causal comparative research design.

Findings from the analyses show type of teacher preparation program a teacher candidate attends has no effect on academic achievement, classroom management, time management, or perception of self-efficacy. These results are contrary to what would be expected based on the majority of previous studies on this subject. While heightened accountability requirements for teacher preparation programs, regardless of type, may be the reason that no significant differences being found, it may also be the case that a low sample size limited the statistical power of the tests conducted. It is recommended that additional research be conducted on the subject, both quantitative and qualitative. Specifically, investigation into the inclusion of classroom management coursework as part of any program of study should be undertaken.

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APPENDIX A

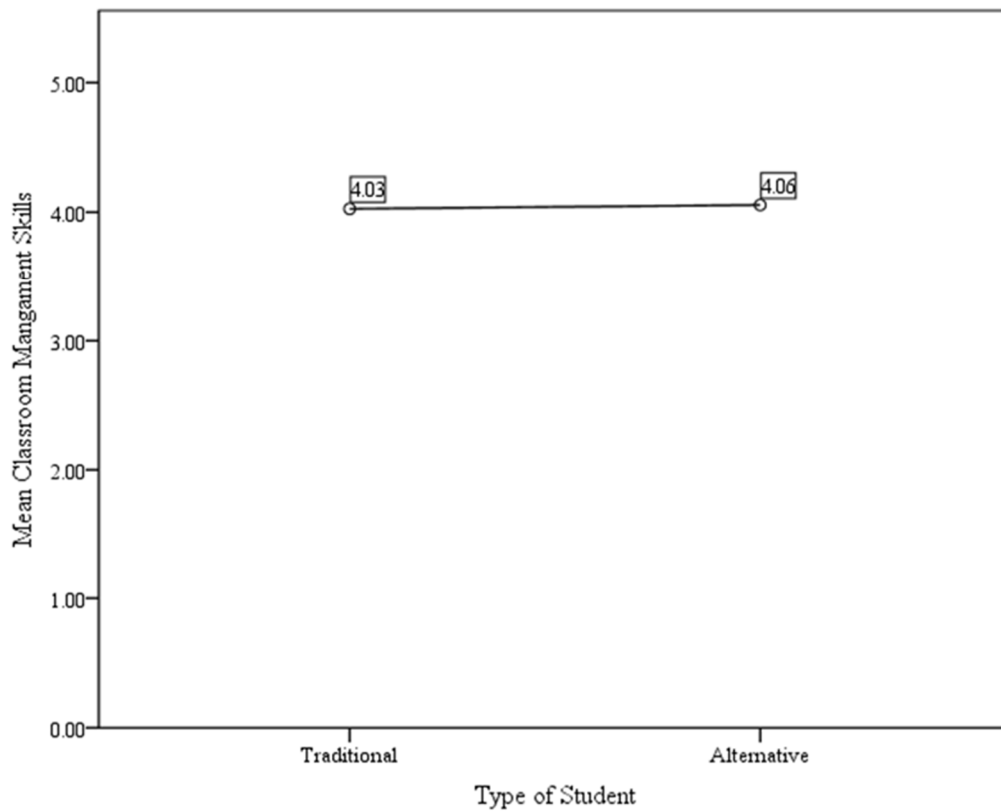


Figure 1. Means plot of classroom management skills by student type

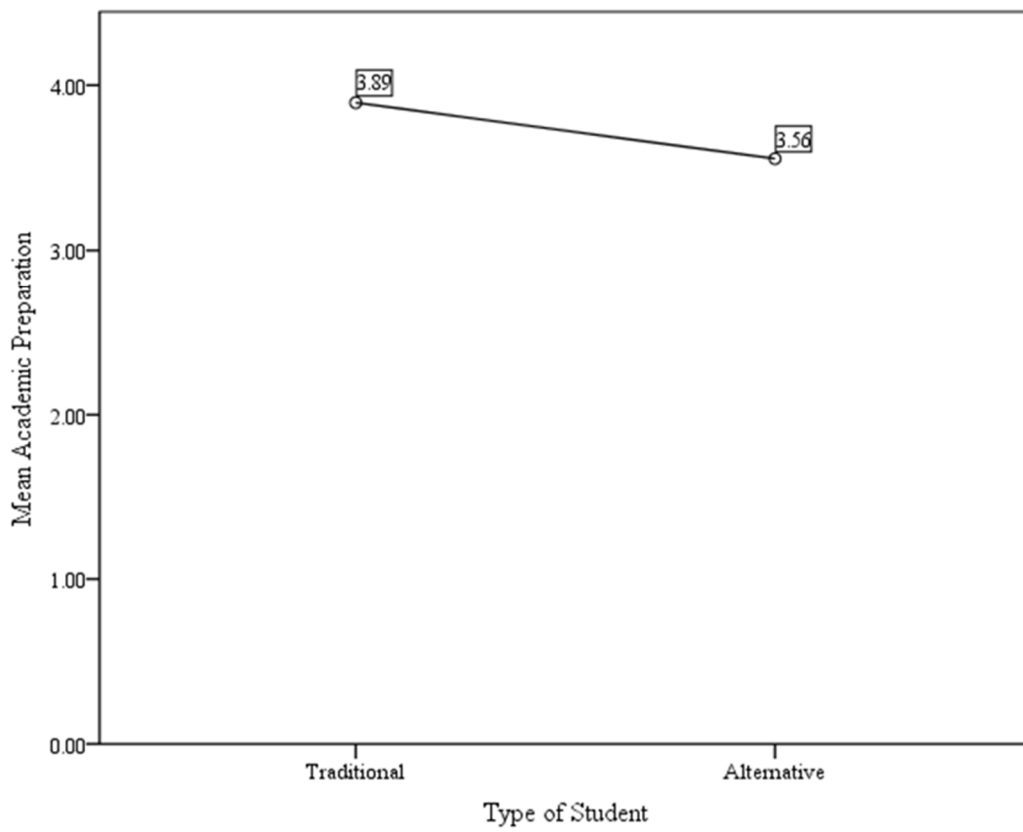


Figure 2. Means plot of academic preparation by student type

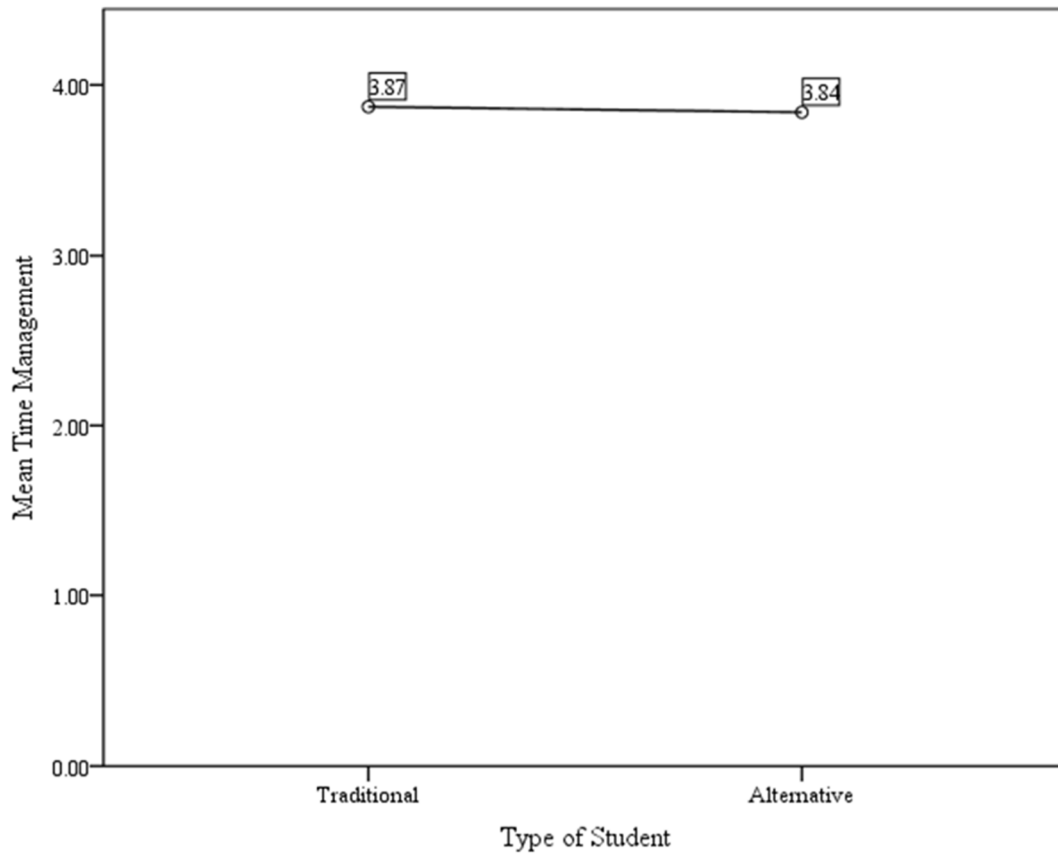


Figure 3. Means plot of time management by student type

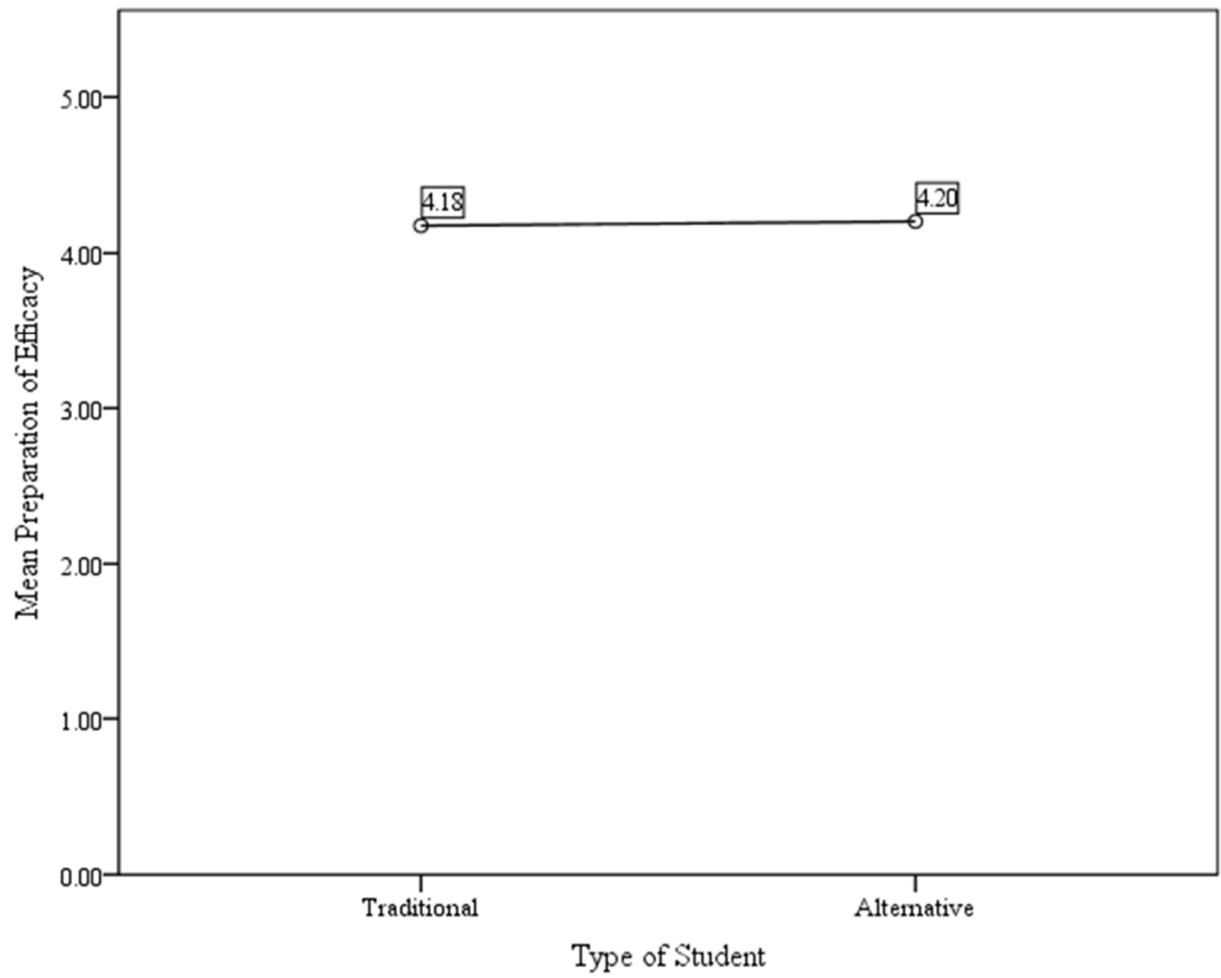


Figure 4. Means plot of perception of efficacy by student type

APPENDIX B

Dear Dolores,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and that no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101 (b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:

- (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
 - (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and
 - (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and that any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption, or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

Fernando Garzon, Psy.D.
Professor, IRB Chair
Counseling

(434) 592-4054

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