DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

An exploration of preservice teacher development

Beliefs about behaviour management "I was scared...but I'm not scared now."

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An exploration of preservice teacher development: Beliefs about Behaviour Management

"*I was scared…but I'm not scared now*"

Mary Knight

Modules two to five of a Professional Doctorate

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the candidate is the author of the thesis; that, unless otherwise stated, all references cited have been consulted by the candidate; that the work of which the thesis is a record has been done by the candidate, and that it has not been previously accepted for a higher degree.

Signature of Doctoral Candidate

[redacted]

Mary Knight

Date 31/05/2019

Summary of Content (Abstract)

This thesis explores preservice teacher development in relation to beliefs about behaviour management. Three main factors were investigated; the ways in which preservice teachers appraise behaviours, the attributions they make and their perceptions of how they develop their skills and confidence. The thesis draws on psychological theories of attribution, appraisals and expertise as well as research literature which positions these theories within the teaching profession, and Scottish Government commissioned reports to establish the context nationally.

Preservice teachers, undertaking a four year undergraduate programme in a university in Scotland, were invited to take part in the study. The research explored the three main factors as stated above.

A mixed methods approach was employed. Preservice teachers took part in a longitudinal study over four years of their undergraduate study (55 in year 1, 50 in year 2, 42 in year 3, 47 in year 4). A questionnaire was administered where participants rated, and commented on their beliefs about children's misbehaviour. In the final year a small sample from the cohort were interviewed using a semi-structured interview to gain further insights into their beliefs and perceptions of children's misbehaviours, in the context of their own development.

The findings suggest that preservice teachers change their appraisals of disruptive type behaviours, perceiving these to be less challenging to deal with as they progress, but not their appraisals of confrontational or distracted type behaviours. Although attributions did not change notably, there was evidence to suggest that the preservice teachers were more reflective and critical as they progressed, and they seemed to become more aware of the influence of the teacher and issues for individual children. There was evidence that positive and negative emotions impact perceptions, and emotions become less influential as preservice teachers progress. Findings suggest that preservice teachers value practical experience over university inputs because they learn from their own and

others' practical experience, and as they develop experience they become more autonomous in their learning.

Conclusions and implications of the study are considered and suggestions for future research in relation to developing preservice teachers' awareness of their emotions, the influence of their emotions and critical analysis of classroom incidents, are intimated. Furthermore, opportunities to utilise practical experience more fully within university programmes are suggested in relation to deliberate practice.

Chapter 1 - Introduction to Thesis

The following work comprises modules two - five of a professional doctorate. Module one has previously been assessed as successful, and therefore is not part of the current work being assessed. However, it is included in appendix 18.

This thesis will explore the development of preservice teachers in relation to their beliefs about behaviour management within the context of the primary classroom. This will be specifically explored through a psychological lens in relation to the teacher's thoughts and behaviours. I will also draw on models of teacher expertise to explore the development of preservice teachers as they progress. I feel that his area of study is important because, despite much research and development in understanding children's misbehaviour, challenges for teachers continue. My interest in this topic is underpinned by my interest in psychology, my wealth of experience in mentoring preservice and newly qualified teachers in the professional field, and also in my role as tutor in initial teacher education programmes. In my observations it is evident that many preservice and fully qualified teachers find behaviour management challenging and this has implications for their overall effectiveness in the classroom. It is also apparent that the challenges may be related more to the teacher than the pupils *per se*. This is exemplified by the way in which some pupils behave differently depending on the teacher. For example, children will conform to one teacher's wishes, following the established rules and routines, but the same children, with another teacher will behave completely differently. While one teacher seems to elicit a calm conforming ethos, another cannot seem to elicit these responses (Elliot, 2009). This can be illustrated through an example of the same child responding positively to one teacher's request to complete a task quietly, but confronting another teacher when given the same request, by either ignoring the request or blatantly refusing to do what has been asked. This is often noticed by new teachers or by preservice teachers, where they

find that children do not respond to them in the same positive way as they do to their usual teacher. In many cases, apart from cases of extremely challenging pupils, one of the apparent influences on children's misbehaviour seems to be the teacher.

Research has shown that behaviour management is an important aspect of teaching for a number of reasons. Firstly, undesirable behaviour can cause disruption and is detrimental to learning (Marzano, Marzano and Pickering, 2003; Zakaria, Reupert, and Sharma, 2013). Secondly, misbehaviour can affect classroom ethos. Thirdly, in relation to teachers, when there is disruption and teachers feel unable to manage it in the class it can lead to stress and anxiety and subsequently result in teacher attrition (Spilt, Koomen and Thijs, 2011). Furthermore, it seems that this is an area which is perceived to be of major importance to preservice teachers and an aspect of teaching which they worry about most (Kokkinos, Panayiotou, and Davazoglou, 2004; Bromfield, 2006; Clunies-Ross, Little and Kienhuis, 2008; Reupert and Woodcock, 2011).

Definition of misbehaviour

Kyriacou (2009, p.121) defines misbehaviour as "any behaviour by a pupil that undermines the teacher's ability to establish and maintain effective learning experiences in the classroom." Throughout this thesis I will use the term, misbehaviour. This is used in the context of classroom behaviour and, consistent with Kyriacou's definition above, is defined as behaviours displayed by a child which are not conducive to a child's own or other's learning, as well as those that can cause disruption or can potentially cause harm or threat to others. The terms inappropriate/ unacceptable behaviour were used within the context of the participants' perceptions of what constitutes misbehaviour. Participants were asked to determine the extent to which they perceived misbehaviours to be inappropriate/unacceptable. These terms are generally used within educational settings in UK and beyond and were therefore deemed appropriate as they would be familiar to the participants.

Although indiscipline has been evident since the inception of compulsory schooling, and before, contemporary education places more emphasis on teacher-pupil relationships and the notion of teaching as a relationship driven profession (Grieve, 2009; Thijs and Koomen, 2009; Frenzel, Becker-Kurz, Pekrun, and Goetz, 2015). This perhaps has led to a difference in the way children and educational practices are understood especially in terms of discipline. Traditionally, children were viewed as essentially 'bad' (Middleton, 2008), and discipline was managed through punitive measures, for example, corporal punishment, and focused on behaviourist principles based on patriarchal authority (Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford, 1997; Middleton, 2008). In the contemporary school, there is a generally accepted view that discipline is largely managed through relationships (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; McNally, I'anson, Whewell, and Wilson 2005; Black, Chamberlain, Murray, Sewel, and Skelton 2012; Eaude, 2014).

By drawing on my previous theoretical knowledge and experience I became interested in the specific behaviours of and development of preservice teachers in terms of psychological functioning. This led me to focus on behaviour management from a psychological perspective to explore the nature of teacher behaviour management practices and how they might operate in relation to novices and experts. The expert (effective teacher), it seemed to me, operated differently in some specific areas.

- Emotions – Effective teachers did not become involved emotionally or react on an emotional level to classroom issues
- Cognitive Demand – Effective teachers knew what to do and deal with behavioural issues without disrupting lessons. They draw on experiences and repertoires and apply them to situations
- Attributions – Effective teachers seemed to make positive attributions, which are adaptive, in relation to classroom disruptions

While it is acknowledged that there is a plethora of pedagogical texts on behaviour management, it could be argued that these are limited in the extent to which they allow in-depth exploration of these issues.

In order to find the texts within the institution which are available to preservice teachers, I searched the library resources, as discussed in the search methodology section, below. A great deal of the literature has its main focus on practical approaches and strategies, with a focus on what to do rather than what to 'be' (in respect of general disposition and/or emotional robustness for example). For example, Dunn (2005) offers practical advice for managing behaviour, but little in the way of research informed practices, (for other examples see, McLeod, Fisher and Hoover, 2003; Rogers, 2012, and Cowley, 2014) While such texts are acknowledged as leading in the field in considering appropriate actions, they do not explicitly explore the inner nature or psychological functioning of the teacher. There are exceptions to this of course. For example, Miller (2003) explores the attributions that pupils, teachers and parents make within a psychosocial context, and Docking and McGrath (2007) discuss how language can reflect the way in which misbehaviour is attributed. The authors also discuss attributions in relation to the way in which pupils attribute their behaviour and how teachers can support them to make positive attributions. A number of texts acknowledge teachers' emotions and how these can impact on their practice. Chaplain, (2016) for example, considers the relationship between teachers' thinking and pupil behaviour, and teachers' emotions in relation to stress and coping. Dixie (2007) discusses teachers' emotions in relation to building relationships, arguing that teachers need to be able to recognise and regulate their emotions, but does not offer an in-depth discussion of how this might be achieved, except in relation to practical advice. The main focus within this work is on approaches and strategies. Haydn (2007), argues in a similar way to Dixie, suggesting that teachers need to understand pupils and control their own emotions. The author also draws on work which found that head teachers, teachers and teacher educators state that trainees

make the mistake of becoming angry when dealing with disruption. However, they do not give an in-depth discussion of how this can be addressed. Campbell (2012), advises against using anger when responding to misbehaviour and also discusses teachers' mood, warning against allowing mood to influence responses to pupil misbehaviour. However, the underpinning antecedents of emotions or how to regulate them are not explicitly addressed. McPhillimy (1996) also acknowledges that pupil misbehaviour can impact on teachers' emotions, and has developed approaches based on psychology, combining behaviourism and cognition to support behaviour management. He suggests that teachers need to appear confident, proactive and reflective and this impacts positively on their emotions. In the main, however, most of the focus of the texts is on the children's behaviour rather than the teacher, and few explicitly focus on psychological theories in relation to behaviour management and the teachers' thinking and beliefs. Sousa (2009) discusses the causes of behaviour in relation to brain functioning but this is in the context of the child. McLean (2003) offers some in-depth discussions in relation to self-esteem and has a focus on pupils' emotions. While Dearden (1994) acknowledges the role of emotions in teaching, the main focus of the arguments are related to approaches for managing behaviour.

What is noteworthy is that many of the texts, while their main focus is on approaches for managing behaviour, acknowledge that teaching involves emotional investment of the teacher, and some as discussed above explore, if briefly, the importance of teachers' attributions. One noteworthy pedagogical text, (Porter, 2007) which I will initially review goes beyond the limited focus of mainstream texts, I would argue, in specifically identifying and emphasising the psychological theories which underpin the teachers' beliefs and actions in relation to behaviour management in schools. The following section will outline the search methodology and justification for the approaches taken.

1.1 - Search Methodology

In keeping with the focus of a professional doctorate, my starting point for examining the literature was based upon my own professional context From my observations as a professional, my experience within primary school and higher education settings, and my experience as a tutor and placement assessor within an Initial Teacher Education setting, as well as my interest in and knowledge of psychology, I have noted that:

- Preservice teachers are anxious about managing behaviour
- Strategies do not always work for the novice
- Pupils can behave in different ways depending on the teacher
- Cognitive factors seem to be important in influencing thoughts and behaviours
- Novices and experts seem to operate in different ways in relation to cognitive functioning
- It might be important to explore thoughts and beliefs rather than only focusing on outward behaviours
- It might be important to explore these ideas for teacher education in order to develop programmes which specifically address preservice teachers' development

My starting point was the professional literature, government documents, policies and legislation, since they provide the context for teacher education in relation to behaviour management. I already had a good working knowledge of these and where and how to access them.

I initially explored pedagogical texts in the university library to which preservice teachers and staff teaching on the programme are directed. As explained in the literature review that follows I found that most texts focused on practical advice on approaches to behaviour management, rather than having a focus on underlying psychological factors. Where texts did include psychological theory, this was related to emotions and attributions, but lacked in-depth details. Given my observations of preservice teachers, as discussed above, I decided to further explore these psychological factors which might influence their thoughts and

actions. It is acknowledged that there may be other theories which can explain teachers' perceptions of behaviour management, but in light of my observations and initial reading of pedagogical texts, along with my interest in the emotional influences of behaviour, I felt that these theories were appropriate aspects to explore.

In my role as professional tutor, and with responsibility for learning and teaching, I also wanted to explore preservice teacher development, and therefore examined psychological theories of expertise. I initially gained some further understanding of the theories, through accessing the current edition of Cognitive Psychology by Eysenck and Keane. I chose this book as I felt that it was a definitive text, the authors are acknowledged in their field and it is widely referenced in Psychology. Using this as my starting point I was able to identify some sources for my literature review for the sections on attributions, emotions and the development of expertise. I then used the references within these sources to identify further articles to develop my understanding. Following this, I searched for literature which was particularly related to emotion, attributions and expertise in the teaching profession. These articles enabled me to understand the theories within the context of education and were mainly drawn from psychology and educational journals and texts.

Having established this base from which to work, I conducted online searches for specific studies. I focused my search to include research which had been carried out in the context of behaviour management, and although my main interest lies within the primary sector I felt that it was as important to consider articles from secondary as well in order to ensure a wider enough focus. I also included research of fully qualified teachers as well as preservice teachers as I wanted to explore the breadth of literature related to psychological factors in education in general rather than limiting it to preservice years. Furthermore, I thought that it was important in relation to any differences which may be apparent as a function of sector and/or experience. In relation to these searches I did

not limit my search within a time scale but was interested to understand development in research on behaviour management.

As well as using the 'snowballing' technique (Ridley, 2008) I also searched for sources through acknowledged databases, SCOPUS and PROQUEST, to be confident that I had not missed any relevant materials. Initially I searched for articles which included psychological perspectives, and then explored this within the context of current educational research. I felt that studies which were focused on teacher education may make assumptions about the reader's knowledge of psychological theory and as a result may not explain these in depth. I felt that it was important for me to explain the theories before I went on to consider how they might relate to preservice teacher development. I also felt that it was important to demonstrate a clear understanding of the theories in order to develop sound arguments. The ensuing discussion will describe the process of searching.

Emotions

Articles which examine teacher emotions as a function of the appraisals they make in relation to behaviour management and discipline, were chosen. A literature search elicited a limited number of articles within the chosen parameters of appraisal and behaviour management. Articles which related to emotions and appraisals but not behaviour/discipline were excluded as were those which related to behaviour/discipline but not emotions or appraisals. Articles which used the key words, emotions, appraisals, behaviour/discipline in the title and/or the abstracts were selected. Given the limited number of articles, they were not time limited and the earliest article identified was from 2000 which perhaps reflects the growing interest in emotions and classroom management in the 21st century, as identified by Sutton and Wheatley (2003) and more recently by Uitto, Jokikokko, and Estola, (2015).

Articles were mainly European, with one from U.S.A. It is acknowledged that this might limit the discussion in relation to the wider international

community but seems to indicate that the research on this particular area has not been widely studied. This is also indicated by the review in in the journal '*Teaching and Teacher Education' (*TATE) carried out by Uitto *et al.,* (2005) where, in their review of 70 articles from around the world, none directly related to appraisals, emotions and behaviour management.

Attributions

In a search of the literature, the focus was on articles which used the key words attributions, behaviour management and teachers. I read the abstracts and chose studies which related explicitly to attributions and behaviour management, and those which were specifically related to Weiner's (1985) theory. Twenty two studies were identified where the title and/or the abstracts focused directly to teachers' attributions and behaviour management, and were underpinned by Weiner's attribution theory. Articles which related to attribution theory and teachers but were more directly related to achievement were excluded as the focus was on behaviour management. National and international articles were considered, for the reasons discussed above in relation to appraisals sources. Articles were drawn from China, Canada, Malaysia and Australia, as well as from Europe, thus giving a wide perspective. I also accessed articles which focused generally on attribution theory. Of these articles, the majority were based on Weiner's theory of attribution, which is acknowledged as a leading theory in explaining attributions.

Expertise

Initially, as discussed above, I considered a general view of expertise from a psychological perspective and from this I focused on expertise in relation to teachers. In a search of the literature I used the key words expertise and preservice teachers, expertise and/in primary teaching, expertise and behaviour management. I did not time limit the search as I was also interested in changes over time in relation to how expertise is discussed in order to understand differences in respect of emotional

factors. I was particularly interested in doing this given the literature on emotions which stated that this is a fairly recent focus of research. As with the searches on emotions and attributions, research was drawn from international studies as well as work carried out in UK. This enabled me to consider ideas from a wide perspective.

General Behaviour Management Articles

In order to ensure that I had not missed any other important work I undertook a search of the literature of general behaviour management articles which focused on preservice teachers. I used the key words preservice teachers, behaviour management and development. Articles were considered where they had this specific focus within the title or the abstract. Again, articles were drawn from national as well as international perspectives. From this search a number of relevant texts were identified which explored preservice teacher development, preservice teachers' perceptions of how they develop skills and knowledge and preservice teachers' perceptions of pupil behaviour. These articles enabled me to develop arguments within the literature review relating to thoughts and beliefs of preservice teachers.

Overall, through the searches I was able to explore the topic of behaviour management in a number of ways:

- To gain an understanding of the ways in which preservice teachers develop their knowledge and skills
- To gain an understanding of the development of preservice teachers and understand how current ideologies and psychological factors may affect a teacher's ability to operate effectively
- To gain an understanding of some of the psychological processes which underpin preservice teachers' thoughts and actions
- To gain an understanding of the perspectives of preservice teachers in relation to behaviour in classrooms and their perceived ability to manage this as a function of development
- To critically analysis a variety of research methodologies

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

The following chapter considers research and theorising which has been undertaken in relation to behaviour management in the context of psychology. Firstly, the discussion will offer an overview of educational practices in relation to sociology and policy and offer a rationale for the focus on the thesis. Secondly, the discussion focuses on educational practices in relation to the beliefs about children and how these influence behaviour management practices. Then the discussion will explore current research related to behaviour management strategies and how these are used by preservice teachers, with a critique of this in relation to the first discussion. Following this, psychological theories will be presented and discussed in the context of educational research regarding behaviour management. Models of expertise will then be discussed in relation to teacher attributes and behaviours. Finally, conclusions will be drawn from research in relation to the implications for future work.

2.1 – Education and Society

Notions of education, teaching and discipline practices have changed in some fundamental ways since the inception of compulsory schooling and these are influenced by the ideologies and politics of the time. Education cannot be fully understood out-with the wider social, political and religious context, as one factor will inevitably influence and be influenced by the other, as discussed by Meighan and Siraj Blatchford, (1997), in relation to interactionist perspectives. In relation to socialisation, education may historically be viewed as a way to socialise individuals into the ideals, values traditions and practices of a particular society (Elkin, 1960). This being the case, if socialisation is about internalising the norms and values of a society and behaving in ways which are consistent with those norms and values, and this is a function of educational institutions, then

presumably the role of the teacher will change as a function of changes in societal thinking.

Shifts in thinking were evident throughout the 1950s and 1960s. Education Acts and reports such as the Primary Memorandum (1965) and the Plowden Report (1967) reflect some of these changes in thinking. There seems to be a move away from traditional practices to more progressive ideas (Middleton, 2008), where “progressivism is more about methods” than the traditional views which focused on content (Carr, 2003, p. 215). Furthermore, it seems that changes in the way authority is viewed in society has changed and developed throughout the 20th century. Although in the 1960s there was still a notion that “schools were institutions which represented adult authority in society” (Elkin, 1960, p. 56) the idea of absolute authority was perhaps questioned more openly and the notion that authority should be distributed rather than being in the hands of the few was more evident and reflected in educational philosophy and classroom practice.

The teacher was now viewed as caring, with a focus on the whole child – socially, emotionally and academically – as is exemplified in the Scottish Education’s Curriculum for Excellence principles and practices (Scottish Government, no date; Scottish Government, 2008). This way of viewing the child and the teacher is perhaps a reflection of the principles set out by the Primary Memorandum, (1965, p. 36), where “the primary school has to concern itself with the emotional and social development of its pupils”, and education “must concern itself with the whole child” (p11) in “an atmosphere if security and emotional stability” (p16), the Plowden Report (1967) and the thinking in terms of humanistic approaches, which advocate personal relationships, caring and nurturing approaches and personal contact in the classroom.

More recent Scottish policy and Scottish Government documentation has a focus on relationships within education. Guidance for Local Authority and School practices have been derived from research on behaviour in Scottish schools, and the focus is on restorative and solution focused

approaches to behaviour management (Scottish Government, 2008). The Scottish Government issued guidance with the aim of equipping teachers with the tools to manage behaviour through training in restorative and solution focused approaches in order to enhance behaviour. The most recent research on behaviour in Scottish schools (Black, Eunson, Murray, Zubairi and Bowen, 2017), has also resulted in further guidance (Scottish Governemnt, 2018) regarding whole school ethos and culture. This focus perhaps, again, reflects the changing nature of society and values, where relationships and cultural values are recognised as crucial aspects, and embedded in educational establishments, guidance and practices.

Policy and research have enabled the teaching profession to highlight the values that underpin education and also to consider how to promote positive behaviour, through relationships, democratic systems and inclusive practices. The guidance also considers what needs to be done in relation to developing teachers' skills and practices to enable these values to be realised. Much research focuses on practicing teachers but there is also an emphasis on developing preservice teachers understanding of and ability to manage behaviour (Donaldson, 2010) which recommended that "programmes of initial teacher education should address more directly areas where teachers experience greatest difficulty", behaviour management being highlighted as one of these areas" (p. 90).

It seems evident that developments in thinking about psychology, sociological developments and the steady decline of religious authority (Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford, 1997) has led to changes in thinking about education, and the role of the teacher. If the teacher's role has changed it seems plausible to assume, and is evident that, discipline practices have also changed. No longer are blind obedience, subservience and punitive practices acceptable, by either teachers or pupils. It could also be argued that this is also reflected in the wider society, not just in educational institutions.

The role of the teacher in a democratic education system is more consultative than instructional and this requires a change in the teacher's self-concept, (Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford, 1997). This may have implications not only in relation to the teacher's professional role but in relation to teachers as individual people. They invest more of themselves into the role, which by its nature assumes strong relationships with the pupils (Thijs and Koomen, 2009; Frenzel *et al.,* 2015), and is described by Carr (2003) as "characterised by the interpersonal qualities of respect, care and trust, rather than by those of impersonal direction, coercion or control" (p. 31). Consequently, when children do not behave in what is perceived to be an appropriate way, teachers may take it more personally, (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Clunies Ross, Little and Kienhuis 2008; Spilt, Koomen and Thijs, 2011) than the practitioners of the eighteenth, nineteenth and early twentieth century, who, being influenced by the thinking of the time, were perhaps more inclined to perceive indiscipline as expected, where children were believed to be essentially bad, (Middleton, 2008).

Although, as stated at the outset, educational practices cannot be detached from the values of society and culture, and that policy and guidance are focused on relationships and democratic values, there is evidence to support the view that though society and the individual may place more importance on democratic values and humanistic approaches, an individual may act in ways that are inconsistent with their beliefs. As reported by (Kyriacou, Avramidis, Hoie, Stephens, and Hultgren, 2007), even when preservice teachers espouse a humanistic view, they often behaviour in an authoritarian way. This is also evidenced in Kokkinos, Panayiotou, and Davazoglou's, (2005) research which found that stress and personality had an effect on teachers' practices, where teachers who were experiencing stress and those who were neurotic and conscientious appraised misbehaviours more negatively. Theories of appraisal also suggest that it is the perception of the onlooker when confronted with a situation and his/her perceived ability to cope, which will

affect the responses, (Lazarus, 1991). It seems then, that although an individual is influenced by the society and culture, the psychological state of the individual may also be important in understanding their responses to situations, and it is within this context that my research is founded.

While fully acknowledging the influence and importance of sociological perspective in relation to the interaction between self and society, and acknowledging that teachers are influenced by the wider sociological culture, as well as the culture of the school (Porter, 2007; Hamilton, 2015), this thesis will focus specifically on the teacher as an individual operating at a psychological level, and therefore further discussion of sociological aspects will not be the focus of the research. The focus is on the individual in relation to interactions with the pupils and specifically in terms of their beliefs and opinions regarding behavioural issues, and how this may affect their thinking about the self and the pupils, as discussed further in the literature review.

2.2 - Behaviour Management and Beliefs about Children

As discussed above, pedagogical literature mainly focuses on practical approaches to behaviour management, and the teacher's role in developing positive classroom management. It was also argued that despite the discussions within texts of some psychological theories and research informed practice which takes teachers' emotions and attributions into consideration, this is not explored in specific detail. Despite reservations regarding the potential limitations of the pedagogical literature, I have, as indicated above, chosen to examine one pedagogical text in more detail. The following review of Porter's text *Behaviour in Schools* (2007) was chosen as a foundation text as Porter is acknowledged as a leading author in this field. It was also one of the main catalysts for broadening my understanding of how teachers develop their skills in managing behaviour and contextualises different approaches to behaviour in relation to psychological theories. The discussions also resonated with my experiential understanding of the

ways in which teachers respond to behaviour management issues. Furthermore, Porter considers how different psychological perspectives can reflect philosophical ideas and practices in teaching (figure 1).

Porter asserts that beliefs about children can influence the way in which teachers respond to them in relation to the behaviour management approaches employed. She identifies two main approaches, at one end of the spectrum, authoritarian approaches and at the other egalitarian, based on philosophical perspectives (figure1). She suggests that teachers will adopt an approach based on their own personal beliefs and values, beliefs about children and their beliefs about children's behavioural errors.

Egalitarian	**Authoritarian**
When treated respectfully children will return the courtesy	By their nature children will misbehave
Behaviour is governed internally	Behaviour is controlled from the outside
The goal of discipline is considerate behaviour	The goal of discipline is order, which requires student compliances
Like academic skills, behavioural skills need practice. Errors are inevitable	Behavioural errors are inappropriate/ unacceptable,
Errors call for teaching more skilful behaviour	Errors need to be punished
Constructivist Model	Top Down Model

Figure 1 Characteristics of egalitarian and authoritarian practices (Adapted from Porter, 2007, p.187)

The assumptions reflect the discipline practices employed. Authoritarian approaches are underpinned by behaviourist ideas whereas egalitarian approaches reflect humanistic ideals. Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford, (1997) also discuss ideologies of education regarding discipline and order, teaching and the teacher's role, and power and its distribution (see also Middleton, 2008).

Porter asserts that where teachers believe that children are essentially competent, and capable of both good and bad, approaches will focus upon changing misbehaviour through learning, reflecting an egalitarian

approach. Furthermore, when teachers believe that behavioural errors are similar to, and can be addressed in a similar way to academic errors, they will employ a supportive, constructive rather than a punitive approach.

However, if they believe that children are “threats to social order” (Porter, 2007, p.14) and need to be trained to become socially adept then approaches will tend to be authoritarian, using behaviourist based correction strategies. How teachers perceive the behavioural errors, again, will influence their approach. Behaviours viewed as deliberate and/or a way of the child controlling the power in the classroom, will elicit punitive responses.

2.3 - Behaviour Management and Psychological Theories

In identifying egalitarian and authoritative approaches Porter identifies some of the theories which form a basis of teachers’ beliefs and practices (figure 2).

← **Egalitarian----------Mixed----------Authoritarian** →		
Humanism	Cognitive Behaviourism	Behaviourism
Solution-focused approaches	Neo-Adlerian theory	Assertive Discipline
		Applied Behaviour Analysis

Figure 2 Theories underpinning discipline practices (Adapted from Porter, 2007, p.19)

As discussed above, authoritarian practices are characterised by behaviourist approaches to behaviour management, the main characteristic being externally administered control. Although there are distinctions made between behaviourist and cognitive behaviourist theory they share the notion that behaviour can be modified through external control, while there is acknowledgment that thinking and reasoning form part of the modification process. Despite this, the principles are still underpinned by the belief that children’s behaviour needs to be controlled in order to become socialised.

On the other hand, egalitarian practices, based on humanistic theories, view the child as a competent, self-reliant human being who responds appropriately to appropriate social interactions. Humanistic approaches consider the whole child, and the teacher's role is to encourage and support children in developing their own understanding of the world and the self in relation to behaviour through assertive rather than authoritarian approaches. They do not focus on blame and punitive methods, but explore solutions and ways forward.

Between the egalitarian and authoritarian approaches, Porter identifies other theories underpinning teachers' behaviour management choices. The Neo-Adlerian approach posits the idea of social belonging in relation to behaviour. Porter identifies the weaknesses of this theory in relation to the lack of robust supporting evidence, but some research supports the notion of social belonging in relation to behaviour management (Frederickson and Petrides, 2012) and suggests that a feeling of belonging encourages children to identify with and become part of the group, subsequently accepting the group values. This can be related to social psychology in respect of group dynamics, social identity and group influences, as explained by Tajfel and Turner's social identity theory (1979), Reicher (1982) in relation to individuals' in-group behaviours, in relation to children's social development (Bennett and Sani, 2004). However, Porter's main argument against Neo-Adlerian theories is that it tends towards an externally controlled approach to changing behaviour, relies on subjective interpretations of behaviours and has a focus on rewards and consequences which seem more consistent with behaviourist than humanistic theories.

2.4 - Behaviour Management and Teachers' Values and Beliefs

Although Porter's analysis suggests that teachers tend to use one theoretical perspective when choosing behaviour management strategies, she suggests that they may not only use one approach, but

might be inclined towards approaches which reflect either an egalitarian or egalitarian/mixed, or mixed/authoritarian or authoritarian perspective, as a consequence of their own values and beliefs. However, research suggests that some teachers who report having egalitarian values resort to authoritarian approaches in particular circumstances. This will be dependent on how they feel at a particular moment, in relation to their emotional state (Chang, 2009) and the attributions they make (Kyriacou, *et al.,* 2007) which may result in custodial practices. This may be apparent when a teacher feels fear or a loss of control and emotional responses take over from rational responses.

In the course of this review of the literature a key theme relates to the idea that there is an additional dimension to those already discussed. This relates to the extent to which teachers feel self-confident at any given moment, as a consequence of their perceptions and emotions.

Research carried out by Rutter, within an educational context, (cited in Porter, 2007) found that schools had more incidents of disruption where authoritarian measures were fostered than those where egalitarian values were practised. In Lippitt and White's (1958) study (cited in Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford, 1997) they identified three methods of teaching, two of which, 'authoritarian' and 'democratic', can be equated with those discussed by Porter (figure 1). The research suggests that children behaved differently depending on the teaching methodology. Where an authoritarian approach was employed the pupils were more aggressive or apathetic, whereas a democratic methodology resulted in engagement and co-operation. Current research (Elliot, 2009), also indicates that the approach of the teacher is paramount in understanding the behaviour of children.

Although, theoretically, teachers seem to be influenced by their values and beliefs and consequently make choices related to different theoretical perspectives which are then translated into practice, this is not as straightforward as it may seem. The aforementioned issues, in relation to emotional responses and subsequent discipline practices, are other

factors which may affect teachers' practice. In addition, Porter (2007) argues that the political climate, local authorities' beliefs and practices and the school's ethos and values will also influence teaching practices. A recent study carried out in Scotland, (Hamilton, 2015), found that in many secondary schools preservice teachers identified that authoritarian practices were evident in dealing with disruptive behaviours and in some cases preservice teachers were conforming and subscribing to these approaches. The study indicated that the practices which preservice teachers observed were more consistent with authoritarian models despite the Scottish Government's commitment to, and support for, humanistic initiatives and approaches. This is consistent with Porter's argument that the extent to which values can be/are realised is not only within the individual but must be understood within the context of the establishment.

2.5 - The Challenges of Egalitarian Models

If an authoritarian model of teaching can be understood in relation to authority, the egalitarian model shows the other end of the spectrum. This model seems to underpin educational values in a society, where the distinction between the authority of the teacher and the pupil is blurred. The idea of relationships is more evident and the way in which disputes or disruptions are perceived and responded to will be of a different nature to the authoritarian model. It is based on humanistic principles and ideas of equality and equity, where discussion and reasoning are employed to resolve issues and where relationships are paramount.

However, where there is no established relationship, there may be conflict. This conflict may put the teacher in a position where he/she feels personally threatened (even in the most general of ways) (McNally *et al.,* 2005), which may cause anxiety and subsequent emotional responses. The teacher may, in these situations, interpret the event and make decisions based on these interpretations which may influence and be influenced by emotions (Hammond-Stoughton, 2007). Furthermore, it

could be argued that the teacher-pupil relationship is unequal in that the teacher has ultimate responsibility for the child's behaviour and academic achievements. This implies that the teacher has a certain responsibility for the children and consequently authority over them. Perhaps this adds to the complexity of the relationship and may in some ways account for the emotional reactions of teachers when dealing with disruptive behaviours.

While acknowledging the contribution Porter's work has made in terms of analysing behaviour management strategies in terms of beliefs, it is limited in some important respects. Research suggests that even when teachers report that their views and beliefs are consistent with humanistic principles they may and often do resort to authoritarian practices when faced with disruptive behaviour (Kyriacou *et al.,* 2007). This is an interesting contradiction. It seems then, that it is not as simple as suggesting that individuals differ due to the general nature of their values and beliefs about children, but other factors influence responses as a function of the immediate situation and the way in which it is perceived.

2.6 - Behaviour Management Strategies

A number of studies have investigated the ways in which preservice teachers think about and manage behaviour by exploring the specific strategies they use, how confident they are in using them and the extent to which they feel strategies are effective. These studies have identified that in most cases preservice teachers will report using corrective strategies, associated with behaviourist approaches, rather than proactive or restorative practices which are associated with humanistic approaches. This relates to the discussion above regarding the complexity of the practices which preservice teachers draw upon rather than their general position in terms of egalitarianism and authoritarianism. Recent research has reported that preservice teachers worry more about aggressive and anti-social types of behaviours than low level disruptive behaviours (Kokkinos, *et al*., 2004; Peters, 2012) and this perhaps

reflects their confidence in managing different behaviours rather than their underpinning beliefs about children. Findings also report that preservice teachers claim that they learn more in placements than in university (McNally *et al*., 2005; Bromfield, 2006; Atici, 2007; Peters, 2012) and this may result in more behaviourist type strategies being implemented, if these are the dominant practices in schools (Hamilton, 2015; Reupert and Woodcock, 2011).

Reupert and Woodcock (2010) developed a Survey of Behaviour Management Practices (SOBMP). Behaviour management strategies were drawn from an extensive search of the literature, textbooks and theoretical perspectives to create a list of the most frequently cited strategies reported. The authors used this to create the SOBMP, and to study preservice teachers' use, confidence and perceived effectiveness of these. Strategies were categorised into different groups of practices, ranging from preventative strategies such as establishing routines and giving positive praise; rewards, such as stickers and points; initial corrective strategies, such as warnings, body language, proximity; later corrective strategies, such as timeout, behaviour contracts, and management interventions. They explored the extent to which preservice teachers used different approaches as they developed. Participants were drawn from preservice teachers at the beginning and the end of their programme, using a comparative design.

In relation to frequency, the results of the study found that the participants reported using initial corrective strategies, significantly more frequently than preventative, or later corrective strategies. They also found that reward type strategies were in the lowest half of all strategies employed and later corrective strategies were the least used. However, they did find that preservice teachers at the end of the programme used preventative strategies significantly more frequently than those at the beginning.

In relation to confidence, the findings indicated that the preservice teachers were more confident in using initial corrective strategies and prevention strategies than rewards and later correction strategies, and

there was no significant change in confidence levels between the beginning and the end of the programme.

In relation to effectiveness, preventative strategies were reported as most successful with initial corrective strategies being also reported as successful and both these strategies were reported as significantly more successful than rewards and later corrective strategies. Preventative strategies were also reported as significantly more effective by those at the end of the programme than by those at the beginning.

It is notable that although the participants reported using preventative and rewards strategies less frequently than initial corrective strategies, preventative strategies were reported as equally as successful as initial corrective strategies. The participants were least confident in using later corrective strategies. Although these were used infrequently, participants reported that when they did use them they found them to be successful strategies.

In 2011, Reupert and Woodcock explored the same strategies, in a comparative study of preservice teachers from Australia and Canada at the end of their programme of study. In this study they identified an additional strategy, '*differentiated*', which is defined by the authors as, meeting the needs of individuals through curriculum. Frequency, success and confidence were the variables studied.

The authors reported that there is a concern that preservice teachers tend to use corrective rather than preventative strategies even when they find preventative strategies to be more successful. They suggest that this may be due to the control oriented nature of schools. Thus, there may be an argument that preservice teachers' behaviour management approaches reflect the characteristics of the school's philosophy, rather than their own views. This concern is consistent with Hammond-Stoughton (2007) who suggest that it is important that preservice teachers continually reflect and critique their practices to prevent them seeing "behaviour methodologies with which they initially disagreed as the way things are, as they become inculcated into dominant practices" (p.1036) (see also Hamilton, 2015).

Cultural differences were evident, where results showed that Canadian preservice teachers used more preventative strategies than the Australian cohort, who used rewards more frequently. The authors suggest that the use of reward type strategies reflects an underpinning belief that pupils need to be controlled and is typical of a teacher centred classroom. The study also showed that the Canadian participants used differentiated strategies more often and were more confident in using these than their Australian counterparts, and the authors suggest that this approach reflects a more student-centred classroom.

If practices reflect different underpinning ideals about the way in which the classroom is controlled, and if research indicates that preservice teachers suggest that they learn all they need to know in the classroom (McNally *et al*., 2005; Bromfield, 2006; Atici, 2007; Peters, 2012), then on one hand, it is not surprising that the way they report on the use of strategies will reflect what they see in the classroom, whether this be preventative type strategies or reward, control type strategies. On the other hand, if they are encouraged to be continually reflective, as Hammond-Stoughton, (2007) and McNally *et al.,* (2005) suggest, then, it could be argued that they do not simply imitate what they see, but critically evaluate this and make decisions related to their reflections.

In a further study in 2013, Woodcock and Reupert employed a cross-sectional design to study development and although they found that the use of preventative strategies increased, most preservice teachers continued to apply initial corrective strategies. They also explored the effects of training in relation to frequency, confidence and effectiveness of using different behaviour management strategies. This was a comparative study of final year undergraduates on a four year programme and PGDE preservice teachers on a one year programme. In this study the category of differentiated strategies was not measured.

Consistent with their previous work they found that initial corrective strategies were most frequently used and significantly more than preventative or later corrective strategies. They also found that

participants reported being significantly more confident in using initial corrective and reward type strategies than preventative and later corrective strategies. However, in relation to effectiveness, the results showed that rewards and preventative strategies were reported as most effective and significantly more effective than corrective strategies.

Comparisons between the two groups showed that there were no significant differences in relation to frequency, confidence and effectiveness, for rewards, initial correction or later correction strategies. However, there were significant differences for the preventative strategies. The undergraduate group reported using preventative strategies significantly more often and were significantly more confident in using them than the PGDE group even though both groups reported these types of strategies to be effective. It seems then that the length of training may be a factor in developing preservice teachers' confidence in using strategies which prevent inappropriate behaviours.

Peters (2012), who suggests that preservice teachers seem to forget what they have learned in programmes and attribute their knowledge and skills to what they learn in the classroom (see also McNally *et al*., 2005; Atici, 2007), devised a study to explore preservice teachers' perceptions about their own learning in relation to behaviour management. The participants were final year students undertaking a four year teacher education programme. Comparisons were made related to their confidence before and after placement. The results found that preservice teachers were more confident following placement.

Three main themes were identified and the author reports that:

- overall around 2/3 of the preservice teachers were concerned about managing behaviour before undertaking the placement
- Around 92% reported that they had learned from placement and were more confident following placement, although around 1/3 still reported being worried about challenging behaviour
- Overall, they felt they still needed to develop skills in behaviour management

The study identified that most of the management techniques used were more in line with behaviourist than humanistic principles. This is consistent with the work of Woodcock and Reupert as discussed above as well as others, for example McNally *et al*., (2005), Bromfield, (2006) and Kyriacou, *et al.,* (2007), and Bromfield (2006) suggests that there is a need for preservice teachers to move away from these behaviourist principles. She suggests that the confidence may be a result of "the short-term success of a range of behaviourist strategies" (p.38) rather than an in depth understanding and ability to respond to the "complex challenges" (p.38) which are a consequence of a number of social, emotional and behavioural factors (see also McNally *et al.,* 2005). This may be linked to why preservice teachers tend to want recipe like approaches (Bromfield, 2006), They may lack an understanding of the complex nature of the pupils they are working with, even though research has shown that they realise "there is no ready-made response" (p.174) when dealing with challenging behaviour (McNally *et al.,* 2005).

O'Neill and Stephenson (2012) also carried out a study to explore the significance of training courses on the confidence and ability of preservice teachers. Their study explored how prepared and confident preservice teachers were in managing behaviour following mandatory behaviour management units. The participants were in their final year of a four year undergraduate programme. Approximately 66% had completed their final placement, 16% were in the process of undertaking the placement, and 17% had not yet begun the placement. Some limitations were evident in this study, in relation to the participant groups. Some of the participants had experience of practice while some had not undertaken their placement. It could be argued that this might affect the findings as some participants would be reflecting on experiences while others would be anticipating their level of confidence. Despite the limitations, the study has given insight into the potential benefits of course inputs. The results showed that for managing disruptive behaviour there was a significant relationship between the number of units completed and the levels of

perceived preparedness. However, even those who had completed the units felt ‘less than somewhat prepared’. For managing disorganisation, those who had completed the units felt more prepared than those who had not completed the units. In relation to behaviour management strategies, those who had completed the units were statistically more familiar with a range of strategies and more confident in using a range of strategies than those who had not.

The study also found that preservice teachers did not view all behaviours equally, with the more challenging being reported as more difficult to manage. Consequently, the authors suggest that there may be a relationship between the perceptions of preparedness and the perceived seriousness of the behaviour. They found that even those who had completed the units ‘felt less than somewhat prepared’ to deal with aggressive and anti-social type behaviours.

In relation to confidence, participants reported being most confident in using praise and encouragement and rewards, and these were some of the models taught in the units.

This study seems to suggest that preservice teachers do gain from training within their courses, although they themselves may not acknowledge or recognise this, as Peters (2012) study has shown. McNally *et al.,* (2005) also suggest that the difference in culture, in relation to different contexts allows some behaviours to be acceptable in one social context but not in another, such as the classroom. This may make it more difficult for the preservice teachers to deal with, and this may cause them to “attribute this to inadequate preparation by tutors and courses” (p.174). The authors suggest that learning to effectively deal with behaviour issues is a developmental process and reflection is important in developing an understanding of the complex nature of individuals and behaviour, and in learning to “make sense of events and learn from their own decisions” (p.180).

The preceding discussion has identified some of the factors which may contribute to the approaches employed by preservice teachers and has

highlighted some contradictions in relation to what preservice teachers report as their own values and how they act in dealing with behaviour issues. The evidence has also indicated that preservice teachers do not always use strategies which they perceive to be most effective, but are generally reliant on corrective strategies in managing behaviour. Furthermore, current studies have found that the development of effective strategies might be influenced by individual reflection and critical analysis and an understanding of the complex nature of behaviours.

Some authors, discussed above, have indicated that there is a relationship between emotions and the strategies used and have also suggested that attributions play a part in how preservice teachers report on the adequacy of their training, although the research discussed has not highlighted the way in which attributions for behaviour can influence the strategies used.

It seems that drawing on psychology may be a useful way of trying to explain the processes which are apparent when dealing with pupil disruption. The following sections will consider this from three psychological perspectives, from an emotional perspective, from an attributional perspective and from a developmental perspective.

2.7 - Cognition and Emotion

Cognitive-emotional research explains the relationship between cognition and emotion and has found that emotions play a significant part in the teaching profession (Eaude, 2014). It is also argued that teaching has important emotional aspects as a result of the human relationships involved, (McNally *et al*., 2005; Spalding, Klecka, Lin, Wang, and Odell, 2011). The interpersonal nature of teaching and learning assumes a certain level of emotional involvement on both the part of the teacher and the pupil (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Eaude, 2014) and this may cause teachers stress (see Giallo and Little, 2003) when undesirable pupil behaviour occurs, resulting in emotional rather than rational explanations and responses. Sutton and Wheatley (2003, p.344) suggest “the teacher

focuses on discipline problems because the emotions triggered by non-compliance of pupils are negative". Additionally, where negative emotions, such as anger or frustration, are experienced, teachers may become defensive or feel helpless (McNally *et al*., 2005; Koutrouba, 2013), and respond negatively (Elliot, Stemler, Grigorenko, Sternberg, and Hoffman 2011).

2.8 - Psychology and Emotions

In order to understand how emotions operate in the context of managing classroom behaviour it is important to explore the general psychological and physical aspects which influence emotional reactions and responses. Emotion plays a crucial role in human behaviour (Izard, 1993, 2009; Hyun-Kyoung, Dong-Chul and Kozub 2010), and has enabled humans to survive within, adapt to, and develop environments. Furthermore, emotions in relation to cognitive processing have enabled humans to regulate affective responses in order to adapt to stimuli appropriately. (Ochsner and Gross, 2005; Koole, 2009). Thus, emotions are intrinsic in human functioning (Duncan and Barrett, 2007).

Emotions are the feeling of positive or negative affect which is subjective and related to physical changes in the body as a result of physiological activity within the autonomic and central nervous system (Levenson, 1998; Hagemann, Waldstein and Thayer, 2003, Kreibig, 2010). Although physiological activity is the same across humans experiencing similar emotions (Power and Dalgleish, 2008), there are differences in the activity depending on the emotions felt. For example, the feeling of fear is linked to particular physiological activity which is similar for every individual experiencing that emotion, and the feeling of joy, which would be linked to different physiological activity, would be the same for every individual experiencing that emotion. However, there are individual differences in the way external stimuli are perceived. Where one person may respond to an event with fear, another may perceive the stimulus to be non-threatening and will therefore respond differently (Lazarus, 1982, 1991).

It is the subjective perception rather than the objective stimuli which affects the responses on an emotional level (Lazarus, 1982, 1991; Roseman and Evdokas, 2004; Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007), and this will affect the physiological responses. This is important for the ensuing discussion of teachers' responses to disruption and will be further discussed throughout the review.

While an understanding of physiological activity can enable an understanding of the physical and biological aspects of emotion (Le Doux, 1998), and explain the body's readiness to respond appropriately, for example, fight/flight, it cannot adequately explain the subjective aspects of emotional responses, or explain responses from a cognitive perspective. It does not explain why the same stimuli can elicit different individual responses (Levenson, 1998). Lazarus (1982, 1991) suggests that this is due to cognitive appraisal, which is related to perceptions as a result of societal and cultural factors and related to motivational factors, rather than the reality of the situation. (See also Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007; Roseman and Evdokas 2004).

It is important, however, to understand what is happening physically, when faced with an external stimulus which is causing an emotional response in order to understand the responses one may have to different situations. Therefore, the physiological basis of emotions will be discussed briefly.

Although there is no complete agreement on the number of emotions, research identifies emotions in relation to positive and negative affect. Power and Dalgleish (2008) identify five basic emotions; fear, anger, disgust, sadness and happiness, where Kreibig (2010) identifies seven emotions and the physiological responses related to each. He considers the physiological responses in relation to physical activity with the autonomic and central nervous systems. Positive emotions were identified as, contentment, happiness and relief and negative emotions as, anger, anxiety, embarrassment and fear.

While studies have found that autonomic physiological activity is similar for positive and negative emotions there are some differences. Heart rate increased for both, but there are marked differences. The negative emotions are related to faster breathing and increased cardiac activity. For example, in an anger state the heart rate is elevated even when already in an activated state not just when at rest, and this can last long after exposure to an event (Levenson, 1988). Positive emotions, on the other hand, are related to decreased cardio and decreased respiratory activity. These differences prepare the body for the appropriate response (Stemmler, 2004). However, Levenson (1988) suggests that this is not necessarily sufficient for an emotional response. He claims that, while autonomic nervous system (ANS) activity is a contributor, other systems are crucial as well. He suggests that, while some basic responses may be primarily a function of ANS activity, in contemporary societies the threats are not necessarily related to survival but to the “social and psychological context” (p.40).

Although it could be argued that some responses are non-cognitive (Zajonc, 1980; Izard, 1993, 2009) in the sense that they are simply a physical response to external stimuli, devoid of thought processes, there are arguments to suggest that some form of cognitive processing is crucial for interpreting external stimuli, which in turn affects the physiological processes (Lazarus, 1991, 1993; Forgas, 2002; Roseman and Evdokas, 2004).

Izard (1993) proposes a hierarchical model based on four aspects of emotional responses, neural, sensorimotor, motivational and cognitive, where cognition is at the top of the hierarchy and neural at the bottom. He distinguishes between basic emotions, related to ‘old brain’ functioning and dynamic emotions related to cognitive processing. These dynamic emotions are a function of the interaction between “perceptual and cognitive processes to influence mind and behaviour” (Izard, 2009, p.8).

Izard’s (1993) model is useful in explaining the non-cognitive processes of emotion in relation to evolution, adaptation and preparedness. It also

draws on theories of attachment to demonstrate how non-cognitive emotional responses are adaptive (Izard, 2009) and enable social and emotional bonds. However, emotional responses can also be detrimental to decision making and subsequent action (Forgas 2002; Eysenck and Keane, 2010), or cause dysfunction where cognitive functioning is intact but affective functioning is not (Phelps and Le Doux, 2005; Duncan and Barrett, 2007).

Izard (1993; 2009) explains the biological and innate emotional processes in relation to neural and motor processes which, he suggests, are distinct from cognitive processes. However, it is acknowledged that non-cognitive and cognitive processes interact continually to enable emotional functioning and that it would be reductive to perceive these as completely separate systems (Izard, 1993, 2009; Gross, 2002). While Izard (1993, 2009) suggests that non-cognitive processes of emotion are important in relation to survival and adaptation, he acknowledges that the complexity of human functioning also requires significant cognitive functioning and this influences and is influenced by emotion, (Izard 1993).

While some research indicates that cognition and emotion are separate processes, (Zajonc, 1980), Lazarus (1991) argues that this is not the case. This is consistent with the work of Duncan and Barrett (2007), who claim that there is no evidence to suggest that cognitive and affective elements are separate in the brain, and that affect is distributed throughout the brain (See also Le Doux, 1998). They identify “core affect” as a primitive state, and although they argue that this is based on the dimensions of, pleasure/displeasure and arousal-activation/sleep, they suggest that this is not separate from thought and memory, and is necessary for all cognitive processing (Duncan and Barrett, 2007). This is consistent with Kreibig’s (2010) arguments which suggest that models of psychological meaning and assessment emphasise the interaction between emotion (physiological aspects) and appraisal (psychological aspects) as a function of neural responses.

Izard (1993) identifies the main characteristics of cognitive functioning in relation to emotion, based on established and acknowledged views. These are:

- Appraisal and Evaluation
- Comparison, Categorisation, Inference and Judgment/Decisions
- Attribution and Belief
- Memory and Anticipation

They interact and are related to learning and knowledge. In drawing upon memory, for example, an individual may relate the present situation to similar past events and make similar appraisals. This may affect the appraisal of the situation as well as the attributions which are made and lead to judgements and decisions about the situation. However, it is not assumed that the direction is always one-way, from the cognitive to the emotional. The causal element may be bi-directional, where emotion may also influence thoughts and behaviours. (Lazarus, 1991; Hyun-Kyoung,Dong-Chul and Kozub 2010). Furthermore, it could be argued that although emotions do not cause appraisals they can influence them (Roseman and Evdokas, 2004) especially when “the situation is personally or socially significant” Izard (2009, p. 2; see also Ochsner and Gross, 2005).

It seems that emotional responses may be underpinned by cognitive processes as well as emotion schemas (Scherer, 1999; Izard, 2009) which are related to memory of past events. It is acknowledged, however, that individual differences such as personality also affect the responses, as well as prior experience and emotional experiences which are related to an event (Izard, 2009). The four characteristics, above, identified by Izard are useful in exploring how, when faced with external stimuli, an individual may act or respond in relation to affect.

Two of these, appraisal and evaluation, and attribution and belief will be explored in more depth within the context of Appraisal Theories and Attribution Theories and the others will be discussed in relation to developing expertise.

2.9 - Appraisal Theory

There are a number of cognitive theories of emotion, including Categorical and Dimensional theories, which focus on categorising emotions within groups and exploring the dimensional nature of emotions (Power and Dalgleish, 2008). Other theories which are based on associations, such as Networks theories suggest that memories become attached through linear and network pathways. Semantic network theory, for example, suggests that propositional networks are a function of emotional experiences and responses. The third are Appraisal theories, which suggest that emotions are a function of cognitive interpretation.

One of the most influential proponents of Appraisal theory is Lazarus (1982), who claims, unlike Izard (1993, 2009, p.1019), that “thought is a necessary condition of emotion”. Izard (1993, 2009), argues that although cognition is related to emotion it is but one aspect of emotion, where Lazarus suggests that appraisal is the “cognitive process whereby emotion is generated”, (1991, p.357).

The idea, that emotion and cognition are linked is not new and is by no means completely attributed to Lazarus. In Classical times Aristotle recognised the relationship, suggesting that fear is based on subjective interpretation (cited in Eysenck and Keane, 2010; see also Power and Dalgleish, 2008). For Lazarus (1982, 1991), it is the construction of meaning and the significance and relevance of this meaning in relation to wellbeing which causes emotion, not the situation itself. Where stimuli are neutral, in relation to wellbeing, emotional responses are not apparent (Lazarus, 1991). Smith and Lazarus (1993) also found that when participants watched an anxiety evoking film from an objective or intellectual perspective, anxiety emotions were reduced. This is consistent with the findings of Ochsner and Gross, (2005), whose results showed that an upsetting situation which was viewed from an analytical and detached perspective caused a reduction in subjective and physiological responses. Lazarus has argued that cognitive appraisals influence emotional responses, and emotion cannot be experienced

without cognitive evaluation (1982, 1991), and although his theory has been adapted and developed, the main ideas remain.

The main arguments, then, claim that external stimuli do not cause the emotion, but the interpretation of the latter is causal in generating the emotional response. As a result of this “the cognitive appraisals that shape our emotional reactions can distort reality as well as reflect it realistically” (Lazarus, 1982, p.1022). These ideas have been widely studied empirically since Lazarus proposed them and are acknowledged in current thinking within the field of psychology (Smith and Lazarus, 1993; Scherer, 1999; Duncan and Barrett, 2007; Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007).

2.9.1 - Characteristics of Appraisal Theory

Lazarus (1982) argues that appraisal is a necessary function for wellbeing, entails complex cognitive functioning, precedes emotional responses and has a causal effect on emotion. This is consistent with more recent research, which found a causal connection between appraisal and emotion, where appraisal causes emotional responses, rather than just a correlational effect between the two (Roseman and Evdokas, 2004).

It is argued that emotional responses are a result of cognitive processing which is based upon “personal factors, such as beliefs, expectations and motives.” (Lazarus, 1982, p.1020; see also Roseman and Evdokas, 2004; Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007). However, Lazarus does acknowledge that the emotional responses will also have an effect on subsequent appraisals, so although the direction seems to be from cognition to emotion, it is also suggested that the relationship may be the opposite direction, where appraisal follows, rather than precedes emotion, (Bernsden and Manstead, 2007) and/or bi directional (Hyun-Kyoung, Dong-Chul and Kozub 2010), and interacts continually (Izard, 2009; Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007).

Although Lazarus (1982) argues that emotion cannot occur without cognition he does acknowledge that some reactions, such as reflexes, are non-cognitive. He also claims that primitive creatures will react in relation to “built in responses” whereas humans will engage in cognitive processing when responding to stimuli, and this is a function of appraisal (see also Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007). Forgas, (2002) also argues that, in relation to interpersonal behaviours, there is a significant degree of information processing which may influence affective factors.

Knowledge alone is not enough to cause an emotional response, according to Lazarus (1991). It is the “evaluation of the significance of knowledge…for our personal wellbeing” (p.354), which is described as primary appraisal, and the extent to which the individual feels able to cope with the situation, described as secondary appraisal, which elicits emotions and subsequent action. This is consistent with Duncan and Barrett’s (2007) arguments, (see also Smith and Lazarus, 1993; Izard 2009). Emotional responses and/or experiences are a result of the individual’s appraisal of the personal ‘stake’. Where the stakes are high, such as threat to self, then, anger will be experienced (Kuppens and Van Mechelen, 2007). The distinction between knowledge and appraisal is an important one for Lazarus (1991) in explaining individual differences in emotional responses to the same stimuli and this has been viewed as a strength of his work (Scherer, 1999).

Power and Dalgleish (2008) have suggested that there are different levels of evaluation, (see also Kuppens and Van Mechelen, 2007). They have identified one of these, which occurs at a conscious level, as the ‘schematic level’, where an internal representation of a current situation will have a causal effect on the emotional response as a result of the degree of threat in relation to the individual’s current goals. They also, however, identify another level which is below consciousness (see also Izard, 1993, 2009) which relies on processing at an ‘associative level’ and is related to instinct. The third level is identified as an ‘emotion free’ level, called the ‘propositional level’, where there is no perception of threat and

therefore no emotional response to the stimulus. At this level the situation does not involve emotional processing. This is similar to Izard's arguments (1993; 2009), in relation to cognitive and non-cognitive processing, and differs in this sense from Lazarus' views.

It is acknowledged, then, that some emotional reactions are based on rapid processing which bypass cognitive processing, such as very dangerous situations which threaten survival (Phelps and Le Doux, 2005). This is explained by Le Doux (1998) in terms of biological functioning. He suggests that there are two circuits which operate differently depending on the level of threat. In relation to survival, the processing is very rapid, whereas in other situations, which may be threatening but not to the extent of threatening survival, analysis of the situation is more detailed, takes more time and processing is therefore slower (Le Doux 1998).

To summarise, most theories and research do suggest that emotional responses are related to cognitive processing at least in some, and often in many, situations (Izard, 1993; Duncan and Barrett, 2004; Izard, 2009). Research in the area of emotions, (Lazarus, 1982; Lazarus. 1993; Power and Dalgleish, 2008) identifies the important interaction between cognition and emotion. Where some argue that both cognitive and non-cognitive processing occur as a result of the specific types of stimuli, others claim that emotions cannot be understood or explained without recognising the cognitive elements.

Appraisal theory has been and continues to be influential in explaining the cognitive basis of emotion and the interaction between cognition and emotion. It has gained much support in the field of psychology (Smith and Lazarus, 1993; Scherer, 1999; Duncan and Barrett, 2007; Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007). Appraisal theory has been applied in recent years to teaching and this will be discussed in the next section.

2.10 - Emotions and Teaching

Understanding the nature and influence of emotions within the teaching profession is important in relation to teacher-pupil relationships (Thijs and Koomen, 2009, Becker, Keller, Goetz, and Frenzel, 2015), teacher and pupil well-being (Frenzel, Goetz, T., Stephens, E., and Jacob, 2009), pupil achievement and attainment (Becker *et al*., 2015), teacher burnout (Chang, 2009; Split, Koomen and Thijs, 2011) and teaching practices in relation to humanistic and authoritarian approaches (Frenzel *et al*., 2009). All of these aspects have been linked to emotions and the emotional responses of teachers and have significant implications for the future of education and educational practices.

In a review of the literature in 2003, Sutton and Wheatley suggested, that in educational research the empirical literature regarding teachers' emotions was limited, despite the growth in emotion research in cognitive psychology. In the ten years or so following this review there has been growing interest in the study of the emotional factors which contribute to teaching (Uitto *et al.,* 2015). Perhaps this has been partly due to the nature of teaching as identified as a relationship driven profession (Thijs and Koomen, 2009; Frenzel *et al.,* 2015) which involves human and emotional interactions (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Spalding *et al*., 2011).

Further research has focused on teachers' emotions and perceptions, not only with regard to relationships, but also teachers' ability to cope and manage stress. Emotions then can not only influence relationships with pupils (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Thijs and Koomen, 2009) but can also have a detrimental effect on the teacher (Chang, 2009) and contribute to teacher attrition rates (Split, Koomen and Thijs, 2011; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003). As discussed above, most research agrees that it is not the situation in itself which elicits an emotion but the appraisal of the situation (Lazarus, 1982; 1991; Roseman and Evdokas, 2004; Siemer, Gross and Mauss, 2007; Frenzel *et al.*, 2009; Becker *et al*, 2015; Frenzel *et al.,* 2015).

The following discussion will consider current research which has explored appraisal theories in relation to education. Details of how these were chosen are discussed in the search methodology section above.

The following discussion will consider the main themes of the articles which were chosen for the literature review, exploring the central findings and strengths and limitations. It will then consider three of these articles in more detail.

As a whole the articles all identify the importance of emotions in teaching, drawing on theoretical frameworks to support the arguments that appraisals and emotions are linked and that they influence behaviour. Furthermore, all of the articles agree that appraisals are subjective and not necessarily related to reality but the perception of the onlooker. They also make links among appraisals, emotions and behaviour management, suggesting that pupil behaviour has a major influence on emotional experience, and this influenced the nature of the interpersonal relationships (Hagenauer, Hascher, and Volet, 2015).

Although the themes are common in the sense that they all focus on appraisals, emotions and the relationship with pupil behaviours, these have been explored in a variety of ways. For example, teacher burnout and stress (Admiraal, 2000; Chang, 2009), interpersonal relationships and the link with emotions (Hagenauer *et al*., 2015), the ways in which teachers appraise different types of behaviours (Kokkinos *et al*., 2004; 2005), the link between pupil indiscipline and teacher anger (Farouk, 2010; Prosen, Smrtnik Vitulic and Poljsak Skraban, 2011; Bahia, Freire, Amaral, and Estrela, 2013; Becker *et al*., 2015; Hagenauer *et al*., 2015) have been examined in recent research.

In a study comparing 1st and 3rd/4th year preservice teachers, Kokkinos *et al*., (2004) found that experience was influential in determining the way in which preservice teachers appraised behaviours. While both groups appraised outwardly defiant and aggressive behaviours as the most serious, the 3rd/4th years found these types of behaviours less serious than their 1st year counterparts, indicating that views change with

experience. They also found that internalising behaviours, that is behaviours which are less disruptive such as inattention, were rated less seriously by 1st year than by the 3rd/4th year experienced preservice teachers. The authors argue that experience helps preservice teachers to become more understanding of, and more able to deal with defiant/aggressive behaviours and also enables them to be sensitive to internalising behaviours. However, a subsequent study (Kokkinos *et al*., 2005), also found that stress can cause experienced teachers to appraise outwardly defiant behaviours as serious and this has implications for the teachers and the pupils. This study will be discussed in more detail below. Stress, according to Admiraal *et al.,* (2000), is evident when the relationship between a person and the context is appraised "as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and disrupts the daily routine" (p.34). In this situation an individual may feel unable to cope. The study examined coping behaviour in secondary student teachers on a one year graduate teacher education programme, and found that "student teachers demonstrated effective coping behaviour when they consistently aroused tension in the interaction with their pupils, and varied the intensity of activities" (p.47). They also examined stress in relation to the preservice teachers' subjective appraisals rather than the actual pupil behaviour, adding to the previous research which had explored pupil misbehaviour as a determiner of stress. This is consistent with Chang's (2009) argument that emotions are influenced by the perceived ability to cope, so where one feels able to cope, the emotions will be less intense than when the perception is an inability to cope. It is suggested that this is linked to the perceived relevance or importance of the event and the degree to which it is congruent/incongruent with the teacher's goals. Although there may be different emotions felt by the teacher depending on the appraisal made, negative emotions may cause stress and burnout leading to a negative regard for the 'other' as in the pupils or for the 'self' as the teacher's feeling of inability to cope (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003;

Chang, 2009; Frenzel *et al*., 2015) and this has implications which will be discussed in the next section.

A number of studies have identified anger as the most common negative (or unpleasant) emotion felt by teachers and this was related to pupil behaviour in most cases. However, Farouk (2010) found that there were two types of anger. The first, 'restricted anger', is related to pupil factors, can emerge from frustration, is not long lasting, and relies on limited cognitive processing. The second, 'elaborated anger', is related to wider issues such as education or societal factors, is long lasting and requires in depth cognitive processing. This is also consistent with the findings of a study by Bahia *et al.,* (2013) which found that negative emotions were more strongly linked to the macro context of teaching, for example wider education issues. However, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) suggest that anger is evident where pupils misbehave and the teacher feels this to be within the pupils' control and has been linked to the attributions teachers make about the pupils (see following section). Chang (2009) also suggests that anger is the "most frequently experienced unpleasant emotion reported by teachers" (p.207).

For beginner teachers, anxiety has been identified as one of the emotions they feel in relation to threat to the self (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Chang, 2009; Thijs and Koomen, 2009) and can cause uncertainty and lead to feelings of helplessness. Research by Grieve (2009) found that teachers felt ill-prepared to deal with some challenging behaviours, due to lack of training and this led to a feeling of inadequacy.

Becker *et al's.,* (2015) theoretical model assumes that "the relationship between students' behaviour and teachers' emotions is mediated by appraisals" (p.2) and this will influence subsequent behaviour as a function of the importance of the teacher's goal, the perceived ability to cope with the situation and the level of accountability. They suggest that research is limited in exploring these appraisal dimensions, and this is the focus of their study. The approach was qualitative and data were collected from both teachers and pupils in the form of diaries. The results showed

that anger in teachers is frequently related to indiscipline, further adding to an understanding of the negative impact of emotions in teaching. This is consistent with the notion that threat causes negative emotions. Given that indiscipline could be viewed as a threat to the teachers' goals or coping abilities this may cause stress and anxiety. The findings also showed that student motivation and discipline was related to teacher emotions, where "high levels of class motivation and discipline…corresponded to teachers reporting higher levels of enjoyment" (p.5).

The studies which explore anger as a function of appraisals of pupil behaviour discuss this in relation to blaming others and this has implications in relation to the attributions which teachers might make (see next section) and the resulting actions they may take. Anger seems to be the main emotion which apportions blame to others and in relation to teaching may have negative impact on the pupils if teachers blame them for behaviours.

There are a variety of methodological approaches in the studies. Within the designs there are a variety of approaches. Becker *et al*., (2015) gathered data from both pupils and teachers, giving additional insights as most studies have been limited to only teacher self-report. Another study used an observation method to examine teachers' emotions during lessons (Prosen *et al*., 2011). Again, this adds a dimension to the self-report where it has been argued that self-reporting may have limitations in that it is self-perception rather than actual behaviour.

In the main, the studies examine fully qualified teachers from both the primary and secondary sectors, although two studies (Admiraal et al., 2000, Kokkinos *et al*., 2004) focus on preservice teachers. Furthermore, the focus on teacher development is limited in relation to emotions, and although Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004) did explore development over a four year programme this was a cross sectional design, and their 2005 study, which gathered data from preservice teachers as well as fully qualified teachers,

did not make comparisons in relation to teacher development, but focused on personality and stress in relation to appraisals.

As discussed above, studies have explored appraisals and emotions in relation to pupil behaviour (Admiraal, *et al*., 2000; Kokkinos, *et al*., 2005). Research has also shown that emotions are closely linked with the interpersonal nature of teaching (Thijs and Koomen, 2009; Hagenauer *et al*., 2015). Furthermore, research has found that negative or unpleasant emotions are related to indiscipline (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Chang, 2009; Farouk, 2012; Prosen *et al.*, 2011; Bahia *et al*., 2013; Becker, *et al*., 2015). Moreover, research indicates that appraisals are the main processes which influence emotions (Chang, 2009; Becker *et al*., 2015). Studies also indicate that emotion is an important area of research in relation to teaching due to the nature of the interactive teacher student relationship (Chang, 2009; Hagenauer, et al., 2015).

However, it is worthwhile examining some of the articles more closely to gain a clearer understanding of the nature of the research in relation to theoretical underpinnings, methodological approaches and implications for future study.

Three articles have been chosen to examine more fully and to give a balance of different aspects and approaches.

For each article the following will be considered:

- The methodology
- The main findings
- The strength of the articles in contributing to the research field
- Limitations of the study

Article 1 - Prosen *et al.*, (2011)

The first article was chosen mainly due to the nature of the research methodology, which, despite limitations, I would argue, is novel in its approach. The main topic of this research was to examine the emotions which teachers expressed in their interactions with pupils. The study

involved observations of 107 teachers, teaching different stages of primary and was underpinned by appraisal theories. The study responds to other research in the area of emotions, building on the findings that anger is most frequently expressed when inappropriate pupil behaviours are evident and joy mainly expressed in response to appropriate behaviours. This is linked to teacher goals. Teachers' expressions of emotion and trigger situations which caused these were recorded using rating scales.

The findings show more negative than positive emotions were reported. Anger was the most frequently expressed emotion and joy the second most frequently expressed. Anger was associated with inappropriate pupil behaviours and so is consistent with other work. Teachers' anger decreased when teaching 1st to 3rd grade and then increased when teaching grade 4 and 5, and the authors suggest that this may be because "teachers may feel more responsible for student achievement" (p.151) at this later stage of schooling.

As intimated above, this study used observations to identify the emotions and the triggers for the emotions and therefore gives an alternative viewpoint to the self-report which has been used in other studies. This is a strength in that self-reports of emotions might be subject to bias where teachers may be reluctant to report feelings of anger in relation to pupils, (Bahia *et al*., 2013), and so observations can give further insights into actual behaviours. Furthermore, observations are being made in real time, where self-reports are always reflective. However, observations also have limitations because it could be argued that the observer cannot feel the emotion and must rely on identifying outward expressions of it, which may be difficult to discern. Furthermore, emotional expression may be suppressed while the emotion is still being felt by the individual.

A further limitation, in relation to this particular study, is that the observers were first year teaching students. Although they were given training on identifying emotions and recording observations, their ability to make informed judgements about what they observed could be questioned.

Research in expertise has shown that novice teachers have difficulty in identifying and interpreting classroom behaviours and dynamics (Berliner, 1988) and therefore the observers may not be fully able to discern the trigger situations and ensuing emotions. Nevertheless, what is important about this research is that it has contributed to the theoretical discussions especially in relation to methods and approaches, and has indicated that observations may identify a more comprehensive picture of appraisals and emotions in the classroom than self-reports alone.

Article 2 – Frenzel, *et al.*, 2009

The second article was chosen because it applies appraisal theory explicitly. The main topic of this study was to explore appraisal dimensions in relation to emotions in the classroom. This study's strength lies in its in-depth examination of appraisal theory in the real-life setting of the classroom and its development and testing of a theoretical model. The study is a mixed method design, which enabled quantitative and qualitative data to be examined together, in theory, adding a richness to the data. Although this study does not explicitly focus on emotions caused by appraisals of pupil behaviour it does identify pupil behaviour as a major contributor to teachers' appraisals and emotions. The study identifies the links between emotions and well-being of teachers, and also gives examples of appraisal within the context of the classroom and pupil behaviours. The hypothesis is that where teachers appraise behaviours as consistent and conducive to their goals the more pleasant the emotions will be.

Quantitative data were collected to give a general impression of teachers' 'trait like' emotions, for example the general emotional experience of teaching in relation to their pupils' academic, motivation and behaviour levels. Qualitative data were collected in the form of diaries which teachers completed following lessons. These assessed 'state like' emotions, such as the extent to which the teacher felt pleasant or unpleasant emotions during the lessons. Participants were teachers from

both primary and secondary schools (n=237). The article does not state the range of experience of the teachers.

The findings showed that for anger and anxiety the best predictor was pupil behaviour, where for enjoyment the best predictor was student motivation. These findings are consistent with appraisal theories in relation to goal congruence, the extent to which a situation is consistent with the individual's goals and goal conduciveness and the extent to which the situation can enable an individual to reach a goal. Inappropriate behaviours, which block goals, are appraised negatively and contribute to the negative affect. The research also adds to the theoretical discussions in this area. There are consistencies in the findings of this study and other work in this area, and the development of a theoretical model enables further empirical research which is based explicitly on appraisal dimensions. One limitation of this study might be that the research did not examine anger and anxiety separately and it could be argued that these are quite different emotions and will have different implications in relation to teacher actions and well-being.

Article 3 – Kokkinos *et al.*, 2005

The third study was chosen because it explores the extent to which teachers appraise various behaviours differently. The focus of this study was to explore the ways in which stress can contribute to burnout as a function of appraisals and emotions. The study also examined personality in relation to appraisals and emotions. The participants were preservice (*n*=141. 1st and 2nd year students completing a four year undergraduate degree) and fully qualified teachers (*n*=465. 5-20 years' experience). Personality and emotion were explored with the preservice teachers, where stress and emotion were explored with the fully qualified teachers. The authors justify this in that the preservice teachers would not have yet experienced stress and they had not been on placements at the time of the study. It could be argued that this is a limitation of the study. If preservice teachers have no actual experience of managing classroom

behaviour then they may have difficulty reporting on their appraisals and emotions as fully as experienced teachers. While mindful of this limitation, the findings indicated a relationship between personality and emotion, where conscientiousness and neuroticism were associated with negative appraisals in relation to pupil behaviour. The findings also showed that for teachers who displayed more stress (indicated by emotional exhaustion) more negative appraisals were made in relation to anti-social behaviours.

One of the key aspects of this research is that the findings showed a distinction in relation to types of behaviours and the appraisals and emotions associated with them. These are termed externalising and internalising behaviours. Where pupils display externalising behaviours (behaviours which directly affect others), appraisals of severity of these behaviours was greater than those which are identified as internalising (pupil behaviours which do not directly affect others). This distinction is important in contributing to further research in emotions and can be explored more fully in relation to appraisal theories, for example, the dimensions of goal congruence, goal conduciveness and coping. It would seem reasonable to postulate, in terms of appraisal theories, that behaviours which affect others will cause negative emotional responses. The findings also showed that appraisals were influenced by the preceding emotional state of the participants. Stress and emotional exhaustion elicited more negative appraisals. This finding suggests that there is an interaction between emotion and appraisal which can be bi-directional. What the study does not further investigate is how the subsequent appraisal influences the subsequent emotion. Furthermore, this study found that there was a difference in the appraisals made as a function of pupil gender, and while this will not be fully explored here, this is an interesting finding and has implications for teachers and more significantly their pupils.

This study adds to the theoretical discussion in relation to appraisals in some significant ways. By differentiating behaviours into internalising and

externalising it enables a more comprehensive understanding of how some behaviour may elicit more acute emotional responses than others and also implicitly indicates that level of perceived threat may contribute to emotions felt, as is reported in the literature on emotions. It also identifies that the link between appraisal and emotion may be bi-directional, which is consistent with other research in the area of emotions and appraisals.

The three studies discussed, as well as the overall discussion of the research on appraisal, emotion and the relationship to pupil behaviour, have identified themes which contribute to the wider theoretical picture. They have also shed some new light on emotional research in relation to appraisals.

The studies all have built on and developed theoretical knowledge of the role of appraisals and emotions in relation to pupil misbehaviour, have applied theory to practice within actual classroom contexts, offering some insights into the emotional aspects of teaching. The findings have added to the theoretical research and discussion regarding emotions in teaching although there are still many aspects which can be further examined. For example, the link between appraisal and different types of behaviour (Kokkinos *et al*., 2005) in relation to emotional experiences may be worthwhile in order to explore perceptions of behaviour in relation to their level of threat to the teacher. Another aspect which may be further explored is the impact of anger on the teacher and pupils' well-being since anger seems to be a recurring emotion in relation to pupil behaviour.

What research has not explored in any detail is the developmental aspects of teaching in relation to appraisals and emotions and this might be worth further study in the context of developing expertise and/or the development of preservice teachers. It has not explicitly linked appraisals and attributions and in relation to anger especially, this might be worth further study in relation to helping behaviours of teachers.

2.10.1 - Looking Forward in Research

Since Sutton and Wheatley's (2003) review there has been more research which explores the underpinning emotions of teaching and teachers but there is still little research to date on "the emotional aspects of teachers' lives in the field" (Chang, 2009, p.195; see also, Bahia *et al.*, 2013; Frenzel *et al.*, 2015). This is consistent with a recent review (Uitto, *et al*., 2015), where all the research related to teacher emotion published in the journal *Teaching and Teacher Education* (TATE) from 1984 to 2014 were reviewed, and 70 studies were identified from around the world. While it is acknowledged that this is only one journal, it indicates the range and scope of emotion research in teaching. This is not a significant amount of research in an area which seems to be identified as very important for an understanding of teacher behaviour, indicating a need for further research in this area.

Chang (2009) suggests that by 2009 there was little research on emotions and burnout. Chang further suggests that in order for teachers to cope with emotions they need to understand their appraisals and the effect they have on their subsequent emotional reactions and behavioural responses (see also Thijs and Koomen, 2009). Through understanding their appraisals they can develop ways to reflect and re-appraise which can influence their emotional reactions and behaviours. Chang suggests that teacher educators need to ensure that preservice teachers are "trained to carefully deal with affect or emotional domains in the student-teacher relationship" (p.218). Becker *et al.,* (2015) suggest that future studies need to consider how to design "effective and adaptive cognitive reappraisal strategies in teachers so that they benefit emotionally" (p.10), and Bahia *et al.,* (2013) suggests that teacher educators need to consider emotions of teaching more fully in programmes. Chang (2009) also intimates that longitudinal and qualitative studies need to be carried out to gain further insights into emotions.

2.10.2 - Conclusion

Research indicates that teaching is significantly influenced by emotions due to the close relationship between teachers and pupils and that there is a connection between emotions and classroom management. Evidence shows that emotions have been linked to emotional exhaustion and burnout which has an effect not only on the pupils in class and the teachers themselves but also has implications for teacher retention and the education workforce in general. The authors of many of the studies call for intervention programmes to train preservice as well as fully qualified teachers to identify and regulate their emotions, in order to prepare them more effectively.

There is a growing interest in the emotional nature of teaching and research in this area has become more prevalent. Although research in emotions in teaching is gaining momentum, there is evidence to suggest that this is fairly limited and mainly studied in the context of fully qualified teachers. There is still little research which explores preservice teachers' emotions and how they develop skills in relation to behaviour management over the course of their academic and practical study into the beginning of their teaching careers.

2.11 - Attribution Theory

Attribution theory is a theory of motivation which has been developed over the last 70 years or so. Although the theory explains motivation in relation to behaviour and action, there is a close link with appraisal theories in relation to emotion, for example the notion that it is not the reality of an event which is important in causing the appraisal and eliciting the emotions but the perception of the reality of the event. Attribution theory as argued by Weiner, suggests that it is the attributions we make, based on our perception of the cause of an outcome which determines the appraisal and the subsequent emotion. (Weiner, 1985, 2010).

Weiner's theory of attribution has developed from the work of Lewin (1938), Atkinson (1957), Heider (1958) and others (Weiner, 1990). It

explains how the outcome of events are perceived by an individual, shows how this will determine the attributions that individual makes and can also predict the way in which the individual will behave in a similar situation given a similar event in the future.

2.11.1 Weiner's Theory of Attribution

Weiner explains attributions in relation to the following dimensions:

- Locus of Causality – Internal to the individual, such as ability or external to the individual, such as environmental factors, other people and chance
- Causal Stability – on a dimension of stable (does not change over time) to unstable (which can change over time)
- Causal control – on a dimension of controllability (which can be controlled) to uncontrollability (which cannot be controlled)

(Weiner, 1985, 2000, 2010)

For Weiner, the attributions we make are related to emotional responses and there are specific emotions which relate to these. For example, attributions of locus will affect self-esteem, where attributions of stability affect feelings of hopefulness (figure 3).

Causality	**Attribution**	**Attribution**	**Related Emotions**
Locus of Causality	Internal to individual	External to individual	Pride, self esteem
Causal Stability	Stable over time	Unstable over time	Hopelessness/ Hopefulness
Causal Control	Uncontrollable	Controllable	Guilt, Pity, Shame/ Anger, Gratitude

Figure 3 Attributions and the relationship with emotions

Although Weiner found that in most cases individuals will attribute success or failure to ability and effort in terms of achievement, achievement is not the only way in which we can use attribution theory to explain behaviour and this gives the theory "theoretical generality" (Weiner, 1985, p. 553).

This generality enables attribution theory to be applied to a number of contexts. In a general way attribution theory can be used to explain how individuals behave subsequently, based on their perceptions of past experience in relation to the perceived causality of those past experiences (Weiner, 1985, 2010). The important factors within Weiner's theory, it seems, are linked to the beliefs of how much perceived control the individual has over a particular event or situation/experience in relation to the cause of the event or experience. An example of this might be:

Where an event is attributed to internal but controllable or unstable causes, the attributions may be more positive and enable the individual to make changes when experiencing a similar situation or event in the future, than when one feels that the cause is external, stable and uncontrollable. In much research this has been linked to an individual's self-efficacy and beliefs (see Gibbs and Miller 2014 for further discussion).

2.11.2 - Attributions and the Links to Appraisals

An important point Weiner (2000) makes is that no matter the cause, when an outcome is positive a positive emotion will be experienced, such as happiness, and when the outcome is negative, a negative emotion will be experienced, such as sadness or frustration. In relation to behaviour management the important point, perhaps in terms of teachers dealing with disruptive behaviour, is not that they may feel these emotions but how they manage them in relation to their perceptions and their ability to make positive attributions rather than negative ones.

For Weiner (1985) factors which occur prior to attributions relate to appraisal. He argues that an event or situation is appraised as a function of the success or failure of the event and emotions are felt in response to this appraisal. He argues that these are "outcome dependent and attribution independent", (Weiner 1985, p.560; see also Weiner, 2010), being dependent on the outcome not the cause of the outcome. It is only following the initial appraisal and emotional response that the causal

factors are determined by the individual and the attributions are then made, with associated emotions. These emotions are attribution dependent and require more cognitive effort than the attribution independent appraisals. For Weiner there seems to be a distinction between emotional reactions to the outcome and emotional responses to the attributions made for the outcome (see figure 4) and this is an important point in relation to the cognitive processes, (Weiner 1985, 2000, 2010). Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, and Pope, (1993, p.920) however, argue that “appraisals are more directly related to emotions than are attributions”.

Outcome ⟶ Emotional response (little cognitive functioning) ~~> Attribution Independent
Appraisal of outcome (attributional process) ⟶ Emotional response (high level of cognitive functioning) ~~> Attribution Dependent (based on perceived causality)

Figure 4 Attribution independent and attribution dependent emotions

Relating this to appraisal theory it would seem that appraisal and attributions are both useful in explaining responses to an event or situation. Where appraisals determine the responses to an event and associated emotions, attributions determine the perceived cause of the event and lead to the perceptions of the likelihood of a similar situation causing a similar outcome and emotional response. It may be that this relationship between the emotional and the cognitive can have positive or negative effects on individual functioning not only at the point where an event occurs but also in determining behaviour in the future when similar events are encountered. It is perhaps important in distinguishing between the theories to understand that appraisals do not necessarily relate to the causes of an event in relation to the emotional response where attribution theories can explain this.

2.11.3 - The Self and the Presence of an 'Other'

Another important aspect of Weiner's work (2000) suggests that the attributions should be considered within a social context rather than on a purely individual level. The notion of an 'other' is significant in relation to teachers where the social context is paramount. In terms of behaviour management there is always the notion of an 'other' and therefore it may be the way in which teachers think about this which will determine their reactions and responses to events. It is not only the event itself and the attributions that teachers make for that, but also the perception of how this affects the teacher directly in carrying out his/her professional role. An example might be the following:

- pupil misbehaves > teachers react based on what they deem to be the cause (attributions made) AND how it affects them directly (personally/ emotionally/ professionally)

Research on behaviour management and discipline practices is consistent with this, where teachers perceive disruptive behaviour to be more serious than what might be described as distracted behaviour (Kokkinos *et al.*, 2004 and 2005). An example of this might be that when a pupil is distracted, for example not on task but not distracting others, then the teacher may not deem this to be of great importance (Zakaria *et al.*, 2013). However, Grieve (2009), found less consistency in a study of fully qualified teachers in their definition of inappropriate behaviours. Some viewed the most serious, such as violence as inappropriate, while others also viewed less serious disruptive behaviours as inappropriate.

Research by Poulou and Norwich (2000; 2002) also suggests that positive attributions, for example perceiving the cause of unacceptable behaviour to be out-with the control of the child or unstable, lead to positive actions and feelings whereas negative attributions, for example perceiving the cause to be within the control of the child, lead to negative feelings and/or feelings of helplessness. This is similar to Weiner's arguments which state that where blame (towards another) is attributed to negative outcomes, anger may be the emotional reaction and lead to

anti-social responses (Weiner, 2000). On the other hand, when lack of ability (of another) is attributed to the same outcome, pity may be the emotional reaction and may lead to pro-social responses (Brophy and Rohrkemper, 1981; Weiner, 2000; Poulou and Norwich, 2000; 2002).

Although Weiner (2000) suggests that success is usually attributed to the self, where failure is attributed to others, this is not always the case. Where blame is perceived to be internal, that is where the cause of a negative outcome is attributed to the self and perceived to be uncontrollable, then guilt and shame (see figure 3 above) are felt and this may lead to a feeling of hopelessness, if this is perceived to be a stable cause. Brophy and Rohrkemper, (1981), on the other hand, suggest that the way attributions are made will be influenced by who is perceived to own the problem and this is related to cost, for example teacher status. The authors suggest that when the problem is teacher owned, that is, related to the extent to which the behaviour interferes with the needs and goals of the teacher and where it makes the teacher angry, the attributions made will be external to the teacher and internal to the pupil, and these ideas are consistent with the discussions in the preceding section. In these instances, Brophy and Rohrkemper, argue, that the teacher will feel less able to cope and will potentially respond with behaviourist approaches. This is consistent with Lunenburg and Cadavid, (1992) who found that external locus of control was related to custodial control ideology. This is also significant in relation to Porter's (2007) work as already discussed, because these studies suggest that it is not the ideology or beliefs *per se* which influence the attributions but the threat to self. This may give some explanations for why teachers who claim to have a humanistic principles resort to authoritarian practices (see Kyriacou *et al.,* 2007). On the other hand, when the problem is child owned, that is, when the child is perceived as a victim, then teachers are more likely to respond sympathetically. This is consistent with research on helping behaviour and although Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) do not explore emotional elements in detail, both their and Weiner's (1985, 2000, 2010)

research have enabled a fuller understanding of behaviour and actions in relation to attributions made, and have led further research based on their findings.

2.11.4 - Applying Attributional Theory to Teacher Research

As discussed, the way in which a teacher responds to events seems to be a function of the attributions they make. Weiner (2000) found that when the cause of inappropriate behaviour is attributed to controllable or stable factors within pupils, teachers' responses are punitive (see also Ho, 2004), whereas when they attribute the cause as uncontrollable/unstable or uncontrollable/stable they tend towards a more positive response (see also Poulou and Norwich, 2000; 2002). This might be a result of the way that we think about children as Porter (2007) suggests. It also seems possible that it is more likely to be related to situational factors at a particular point in time, and the cost to the perceiver (in relation to threat to authority for example) which contribute to the type of response or the perceived causal factors. It could be argued that it is not necessarily values which guide behaviour but how a situation is interpreted and the way in which blame is attributed.

As discussed in the search methodology section, articles directly related to teachers' attributions and behaviour management, and underpinned by Weiner's attribution theory were reviewed. However, there are a variety of ways in which they consider this.

Atici (2007) explored the relationship between attributions and self-efficacy and found that most preservice teachers attributed misbehaviour to external causes. This research is significant in relation to Weiner's arguments in terms of the notion of the direct effect on the teacher, personally and professionally and will be discussed more fully below. A more recent study by Gibbs and Miller (2014), which explored self-efficacy and attributions in practising teachers in relation to resilience and retention, also found that most teachers attributed indiscipline to external causes or child characteristics (externalising attributions). This is

consistent with Ho's (2004) findings, in a cross-cultural study comparing Chinese and Australian teachers' attributions for disruptive behaviour, where participants perceived inappropriate behaviour to be the responsibility of the pupils (See also Zakaria *et al*., 2013). Gibbs and Miller (2014) suggest that this seems to be apparent when teachers feel unable to deal with the behaviour. When they feel able to deal with it they tend to attribute their success as internal, for example due to their own efforts, and this is consistent with much of the research which has been carried out in relation to attributions and behaviour management (see also Miller, 2003). Gibbs and Miller (2014) also found that teachers' perceptions of their coping ability are related to self-efficacy and if self-efficacy is increased the perception of coping ability in dealing with behavioural issues will also be increased. This is also consistent with the work of Chang (2009) who found a relationship between agency and attributions.

Research by Mavropoulou and Padeliadu (2002) examined teachers' causal attributions for behaviour problems and their perceptions of control in relation to teaching experience and found there were no significant differences in terms of experience, but rather feelings of competence was the important factor in determining the attributions made. This is an important factor in our understanding of expertise (see next section) where it is argued that experience does not necessary imply expertise, and is also consistent with the findings of Gibbs and Miller (2014) as discussed above in section 2.10.4.

A number of studies have been carried out in the past 30 years, across a variety of cultures, in relation to teachers' attributions of pupil behaviour, and they mainly report similar findings in relation to externalising attributions.

One of the earliest studies carried out in relation to attributions and behaviour management, (Bibou-Nakou, Kiosseoglou, and Stogiannidou, 2000) found that Greek teachers attributed pupil misbehaviour to factors that were external to the teacher, and this was not related to age or

teaching experience. Further studies in Greece have reported similar findings in relation to the way in which teachers attribute misbehaviour (Mavropoulou and Padeliadu, 2002; Kokkinos *et al*., 2004) and how this affects their practice in terms of working with the pupils, (Poulou and Norwich, 2002). Similarly, studies, for example cross-cultural studies of Chinese and Australian teachers (Ho, 2004), a study of Chinese teachers (Ding, Li, Li and Kulm 2010), a study of Malaysian preservice primary teachers (Zakaria *et al*., 2013) and research carried out in Hong Kong (Sun, 2014) have all found that teachers are most likely to attribute inappropriate behaviours to external factors or factors which are internal to the pupils. In the UK, Miller's work in relation to teacher perceptions, parent perceptions and pupils perceptions, within a psychosocial context (see Miller, 1995, 2003; Miller, Ferguson and Byrne, 2000, Miller, Ferguson and Moore, 2002) and cross-cultural research, carried out in the UK and the Republic of Ireland (Gibbs and Gardner, 2008) and the UK and Norway (Kyriacou *et al*., 2007) have reported similar findings.

Although, as discussed there are similarities in the findings of research, a more detailed analysis of three studies will be explored to examine the effect of attributions on teacher behaviour more closely. One has been chosen to examine the similarities/differences across cultures and also because it focuses on preservice teachers, and is directly related to attributions, behaviour management and custodial practices. The second was chosen because it focuses on helping behaviour and the attributions related to these. Furthermore, it makes the explicit link between attributions and emotions. The third was chosen mainly because it applies a qualitative approach and explores preservice teacher development.

For each article the following will be considered:

- The methodology
- The main findings
- The strength of the articles in contributing to the research area
- Limitations of the study

Article 1 - Zakaria, Reupert and Sharma, 2013

The first article explored attributions within a Malaysian context to enable further understanding of cultural contexts, and reports findings which are consistent with other Asian (for example see Ho, 2004, above), European, North American and Australian studies. This study has a number of strengths. Firstly, it took a qualitative approach and therefore produced in-depth data, where themes were identified. Secondly the study was carried out with 90 preservice teachers following their final placement, who had engaged in a module related to behaviour and classroom management and child counselling. This suggests that the participants had practical as well as theoretical knowledge of behaviour management. Thirdly, this study relates to Kokkinos *et al's.,* (2005) study in relation to the definition of disruptive behaviours. The responses indicate that preservice teachers identify disruptive behaviours as those which disturb others. Furthermore, the fact that the participants were asked to give their definition of disruptive behaviours made it clear which types of behaviours the participants were referring to in making their attributions. Finally, the authors suggest that, despite Malaysian culture leaning towards authoritarian ideals, education systems in Malaysia currently foster an inclusive approach, suggesting that the results may reflect the inclusive nature of the teachers.

The findings showed that around 75% of participants attributed inappropriate behaviour to factors out-with the teacher (approximately 50% to pupil factors and approximately 25% to family/parent factors). These results were interesting because even though the attributions made were less likely to be attributed to teachers, the preventative strategies reported were mainly related to changing teaching approaches. This is consistent with research which has been carried out in the UK, in relation to teachers' understanding of their influence on children's behaviour (Gibbs and Gardiner, 2008; Grieve, 2009). However, Gibbs and Gardiner did find that fully qualified teachers attributed children's

misbehaviour to teachers as often as to parents. This may indicate a difference between preservice and post qualified professionals.

Although 45 participants reported that they would use reinforcing strategies such as rewards to manage behaviour it is interesting that 51 participants reported that they would use punitive measures, again suggesting a relationship between externalising attributions and the punitive responses. However, we cannot ignore the responses of 45 participants who report that they would use reinforcements, such as rewards, but this is in line with behaviourist approaches and still points towards a reward/consequence approach to behaviour management.

This research contributes to the theoretical discussions in highlighting that even with courses which specifically focus on humanistic ideas, such as the child counselling course, and even when education systems foster inclusive ideals, preservice teachers make externalising attributions and report using punitive and/or behaviourist management strategies (see also Kokkinos, *et al*., 2005; Kyriacou, *et al.,* 2007). The authors do indicate that Malaysian culture, which leans towards authoritarian ideals, may explain the results. However, it has been noted in studies from other countries that externalising attributions are most prevalent when teachers describe the reasons for misbehaviour as disruptive to others, and that these types of attributions tend to result in punitive approaches, so cultural aspects alone cannot fully explain the results.

While this study has enabled insights to be made, a limitation identified is that the study only considered the preservice teachers in the final year of a four year programme and it would be worthwhile exploring how preservice teachers develop over the course of the programme.

Article 2 - Poulou and Norwich, 2002

The second article draws on both Weiner's model in relation to the emotional elements which influence attributions and Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981) work in relation to perceived controllability and helping behaviour, marrying the research well. It also goes further in

considering this in relation to Bandura's social cognitive theory and self-efficacy (1977) to help explain attributions more clearly. The authors explored causal attributions and emotional and cognitive reactions in relation to intentions to help and the actual coping strategies. Although this study examined helping behaviours in relation to teachers' attributions of pupil behaviour it also related this to the likelihood of teachers' cooperation with outside agencies. The focus of the study was teachers' attitudes towards children with emotional and behavioural difficulties, which they describe as behaviours which are "severe and persistent such that they interfere with their learning and development" (Poulou and Norwich, 2002, p.112).

Participants were teachers from elementary schools in the Athens area. Self-report questionnaires asking for responses (on a rating scale) to different vignettes of behaviour problems were distributed to 577 teachers and 391 responded. As already noted, the self-report has its limitations. Furthermore, quantitative data in the form of rating does not give a full picture of an individual's thoughts and feelings, and this could be viewed as a limitation. A mixed method approach may have given more in-depth understanding of what teachers think and feel and how they act. The authors also acknowledge that teachers' responses to vignettes do not necessarily reflect how they would actually respond in their own classroom.

Despite the limitations, results showed that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy who attributed the cause to be internal were more likely to feel it could be resolved and more likely to take responsibility for resolving it. This supports attribution theory in relation to controllability dimension. However, teachers who felt negative emotions in relation to the child were less likely to display helping behaviours. This is consistent with Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981) work 20 years earlier and Weiner's work in relation to expectancy of success. The results also suggest that it is not only the attributions which affect the teachers' actions but the emotions elicited by the behaviour. The authors do, however, acknowledge that

they did not consider the extent to which teachers felt that the child had perceived control of the behaviour and this is frequently found to be a factor in determining the teacher's attributions. The results also suggested that when responsibility was attributed to pupils, teachers felt stress and anxiety, again highlighting the links between emotional responses and attributions.

The study has implications for education, where the teacher-pupil relationships are crucial. Where a teacher displays lack of helping behaviours there could be a detrimental effect on the teachers and the pupils and result in a cyclical negative relationship (Miller, 2003).

The strength of this study lies in its examination and extension of two theoretical perspectives, and the additional dimension of self-efficacy, developing further theoretical knowledge. It is also important in highlighting the significance of attributions and emotions in relation to helping behaviours which is crucial in the teaching profession. Furthermore, the authors consider the emotional aspects of attributions, linking cognition and emotion, which relates well to emotion research, and enables empirical testing.

Article 3 Atici 2007

This study was chosen because it focuses on preservice teachers and the attributions they make for children's misbehaviour. Furthermore, it was a qualitative design using semi-structured interviews, which enabled in-depth insights to be gained in relation to preservice teachers' perceptions. The study was carried out in Greece with nine participants in their final year at the beginning and the end of their teaching practice, enabling insights to be gained into the development of their thinking. The results found that preservice teachers' confidence had increased by the end of the placement. The study examined preservice teachers' perceptions of causes of misbehaviour and behaviour management approaches. Misbehaviours such as talking out of turn, distracting others and inattention were identified by the participants. The participants attributed

children's misbehaviour in the main to family background, but also acknowledged the teacher's role in creating a positive environment based on relationships and positive rapport. This is consistent with Grieve's (2009) findings in relation to teachers' personal qualities.

Participants also reported using positive approaches, such as non-verbal interventions and discussions with the child. They attributed their growing confidence to the practical experience in the classroom, and although they were reasonably satisfied with their university programme in preparing them for managing behaviour, they felt that this could be improved.

This study had limitations in relation to the scale, with limited numbers of participants. Also the sample were volunteers from the whole cohort, which may have affected the findings. It could be argued that volunteers might be those who are particularly interested in the topic or have a particular viewpoint. Despite these limitations, the qualitative design yielded in-depth data which gave insights into perceptions of the causes of children's misbehaviour and practices in managing it. There is also strength in the design in terms of the procedures, where participants were interviewed at the beginning and following teaching placement, enabling comparisons and effects of placement to be measured. Furthermore, the study has added to educational research in the field which indicates that preservice teachers believe that they learn more on placements than through university programmes, and this is a recurring theme in much recent research, for example, Peters (2012) and O'Neill and Stephenson (2012).

2.11.5 – Looking Forward in Research

The research indicates that further studies of preservice teachers may help identify the ways in which attributions change as a function of development. Gaining and understanding of this may support and facilitate intervention programmes where preservice teachers can explicitly explore the nature and impact of their attributions on behaviour

management (Ho, 2004; Weiner, 2010). Further research which explores the relationship between attributions and emotions, in relation to appraisals may broaden our understanding of how these factors are related and the extent to which they might alter as a function of the development of expertise.

2.11.6 – Conclusion

Research continues to grow and develop in the area of attributions, adding to the theoretical and practical understanding of the nature and implications of attributions in relation to behaviour management, and the studies discussed have indicated the importance of attributions in relation to effective classroom management, relationships and helping behaviours.

Attribution theories are not without criticism, however, and Malle (2011) argues that while attribution theories can explain the way in which a causal outcome of an event will be perceived, it does not explain action. To my knowledge, as a result of an extensive search, there is no educational research related to Malle's folk concept theory in terms of behaviour management and discipline. It would seem that Weiner's theory, then, has been effectively applied to develop our understanding of attributions in relation to behaviour in the classroom and is useful for applying to further educational research in this area specifically in relation to preservice teachers' attributions and behaviour management practices.

Attribution theory in the field of educational research has gained momentum over the last three decades. As discussed, there is a body of research related to Weiner's theory which explores how attributions relate to teachers' practices in relation to emotional responses, confidence, self-efficacy and discipline practices. Some research has been carried out with preservice teachers, but more commonly with practising teachers, thus indicating a need for further research with preservice teachers in order to gain an understanding of development.

Many of the authors have explained the implications for teacher development and have indicated a need for further instruction in teacher education programmes. Although research is mainly restricted to western nations, such as European countries, Australia, USA and Canada there is a growing body of research being carried out in Asia, for example China, Hong Kong and Malaysia, and while there are some cultural distinctions, on the whole findings are similar across cultures.

2.12 - Developing Expertise

Research on expertise has found that a number of factors are involved in the development from novice to expert, and while this research may not explicitly explain how and why this development leads to different ways of thinking in relation to emotion and cognition, there are some conclusions which can be drawn to offer suggestions. Educational research has explored the development of expertise in relation to teachers' actions and behaviours and some aspects draw upon research from cognitive psychology. What seems to be distinctive in relation to expert teachers is that they have the ability to work effectively in relation to not only the pedagogical aspects of teaching but also the social aspects.

2.12.1 - Characteristics of Expertise

Psychological research on the development of expertise has found that a number of factors are important when developing from novice to expert (Eysenck and Keane, 2010). In relation to education, experts have an awareness of classroom dynamics (Elliot 2009). The novice lacks this level of awareness (Berliner, 1988). There seems to be a number of reasons for this. They may not be consciously aware of the subtle nuances, they may have difficulty making decisions about what is and is not important, they may only be able to focus on one aspect of management at a time, or they may feel helpless to deal with issues.

Furthermore, because the novice is trying to deal with more than one thing at a time, they may experience cognitive overload (Feldon, 2007). Additionally, experts have a wide repertoire of responses or actions based on past experiences and will draw on this among other experiences to make judgements and decisions (Eaude, 2014). This enables them to be proactive and anticipatory in employing preventative rather than reactionary measures. Perhaps at this level negative emotions are less likely to be experienced or influential suggesting that the appraisals and attributions which the teacher makes will be more positive and adaptive.

2.12.2 - Expertise in Education

The development of expertise has been studied in relation to cognitive functioning as well as observable measurable behaviours. Research also indicates that there is a distinction between expertise and experience. Theoretical models are useful in showing the difference between novices and experts in relation to cognitive functioning and action. Three models will be discussed in relation to expertise for two reasons. The first is to explore the similarities and differences in the way expertise is understood and the second to demonstrate how thinking has developed over the last thirty years or so. For example, in Berliner's (1988) stage model there is little discussion of the emotional aspects of teaching, while Eaude (2014) identifies emotion as an important aspect among others, perhaps indicating the development in thinking regarding the significance of emotions, consistent with the discussion in the emotions section above. Elliot (2009) suggests that the knowledge of the expert is tacit and often difficult to quantify. Furthermore, he suggests that the characteristics of the expert teacher are difficult to articulate (see also Berliner, 2001; Eaude, 2014) and this may have resulted in less reporting of the actual characteristics than outwardly measurable behaviour management strategies. A possible explanation for this can be found in the work of Berliner (1988) in relation to the notion that the expert often operates at an unconscious level. The notion of tacit and or implicit knowledge is

consistent with McNally *et al's.,* (2005) research which showed that the expert teacher just seems to know what to do, whereas the novice is always looking for a rule or procedure for how to respond to different behaviours (see also Berliner, 1988; Eaude, 2014).

Although knowledge and characteristics may be difficult to quantify, there are a number of behaviours which are characteristic of the expert teacher which can be identified (Berliner, 1988; Sternberg and Horvath, 1995; Berliner 2001; Elliot, 2009; Eaude, 2014). Berliner (1988) has proposed that there are stages from novice to expert and these can be explained in relation to the behaviours, by exploring the cognitive capabilities and functioning at each stage. Berliner's arguments here are consistent with Eaude (2014), who suggests that novices are rule bound where experts are fluid and flexible in their responses and act intuitively when dealing with situations in the classroom.

2.12.3 - Models of Expertise in Teaching

Berliner (1988) identifies five stages in development from novice to expert. Subsequently Sternberg and Horvath (1995) developed a prototype of the expert and more recently Eaude (2014) proposed a typology of the expert identifying key features, based on both cognitive and affective aspects, which he suggests are interlinked.

2.12.4 - Berliner's (1988) Stage Model

Berliner's stage model (Appendix 1) is useful in distinguishing between the novice and the expert, and showing how expertise develops. An important point which Berliner makes is that it is the stages which are important not necessarily the duration of time at each stage or the time taken to develop through each stage. The model is useful in describing the behaviours displayed by teachers at each stage giving explicit examples of the types of behaviour, thinking and action which are associated with each stage.

Berliner cites research to support the model. However, it is acknowledged that, much of the research cited is Berliner's research and so may have some potential limitations. Nevertheless, it is useful in identifying the behaviours of teachers' development from novice to expert. For example, if novices are rule bound and inflexible, when procedures are not consistent with what they have learned they will be unable to adapt their behaviour to suit the situation. In addition, if the novices are unable to take responsibility, as Berliner suggests, then they are more likely to attribute blame to factors other than the self. In contrast the expert acts intuitively, knows what to do and when to do it and is flexible. This suggests that the expert being more fluid in his/her approach will not perhaps be affected by emotions and may be more adaptive in making attributions.

2.12.5 - Sternberg and Horvath's (1995) Prototype View of Expert Teaching

Sternberg and Horvath's (1995) prototype of teaching expertise (appendix 2) explains how experts behave in relation to knowledge, efficiency and insight The authors make the assertion, like others, that there is a distinction between experience and expertise and the prototype seeks to illuminate this. For example, the discussion assumes that expertise goes beyond simply applying practical or procedural knowledge, or standards of efficiency at a procedural level. It suggests that experts, unlike novices, are insightful and know what to look for, can identify patterns and connections between behaviours, and are able to draw on experiences to develop pupil understanding (Berliner, 1988; Eaude, 2014).

The main characteristics of the prototype is that it identifies the behaviours of the expert teacher and in doing so presents a template to identify when a teacher may be deemed to have the qualities and attributes of an expert. The focus is not only on the knowledge of the teacher but the way in which the teacher uses knowledge effectively to enhance teaching and learning. For example, the expert may not only identify that pupils are

having difficulty in grasping a concept but knows why this might be the case, for example lack of motivation or difficulty with the abstract concept. The expert is also able to create contexts to support pupils' understandings. Furthermore, it is claimed that the expert can do this using limited cognitive capacity and within a limited time scale. The model has much strength as it identifies characteristics which can be tested empirically when trying to discern the qualities of the expert, and identifies the characteristics in relation to psychological theories and cognition. What the prototype does not seem to consider is the emotional and interactive nature of teaching. It could be argued that it is too focused on technical aspects, as suggested by the examples of practice identified in the model.

Although the prototype does not specifically show the differences between the novice and the expert, the arguments do discuss expertise in terms of psychological functioning, for example automisation and cognitive functioning, where one task can be completed while thinking about another. It could be argued that this is a major strength of the work, and is consistent with Berliner (1988) and Eaude (2014) in relation to development of more efficient cognitive functioning as novices develop.

In relation to the tendency towards competencies it might be argued that the prototype was developed in response to political and policy agendas as the authors state that "if teachers are to be compensated and promoted on the basis of merit rather than seniority, then we need a model of teaching expertise with which to inform our performance standards" (p.9) suggesting that there may be considerable implications in relation to assessment of specific criteria for promotion purposes. However, they do state that it is important that expertise can be the recognised basis for promotion rather than length of time teaching. Furthermore, it should also be acknowledged that the authors do suggest that a prototype can help understand what novices need to become in order to become expert.

2.12.6 - Eaude's (2014) Typology of Expertise in Teaching

A typology of teaching expertise has been proposed by Eaude (2014) (Appendix 3). Unlike Berliner's, this model recognises and identifies emotional elements of teaching in relation to the interactions between teachers and pupils, and teachers' interpersonal knowledge. This acknowledgment of the role of emotions is perhaps reflected in the growing interest in the emotions in teaching, as discussed in the emotions section. Although Eaude does not explicitly relate this to the teacher's feelings and actions, the typology implies that emotions should be recognised within the teaching profession, and are worth study.

Eaude builds on the work of Berliner, Sternberg and Horvath (1995) and Glaser (1999), among others, to develop and explain his understanding of the expert teacher in relation to different aspects of knowledge; domain knowledge, craft knowledge and interpersonal knowledge. The main characteristics of Eaude's model are the relationship between the expert teacher's knowledge and the way in which this knowledge is applied in practice and how this relates to the attributes of the teacher. For example, where a teacher has knowledge of child development theories, he/she can use this to develop appropriate age-related activities and lessons, and this reflects the attribute of understanding the link between theory and practice. (Appendix 3). Eaude discusses this in relation to lessons and activities and not in terms of behaviour management practices.

Although Eaude's typology is useful in understanding the characteristics of the expert teacher, and identifies emotional elements within teaching, it does not consider how this is developed, which is one of the strengths of Berliner's stage model. What Eaude's typology does identify, however, is the interactive nature of the teaching and also recognises that there are inter-related factors which are important for expertise. It also implies that there is more to becoming an expert than gaining subject knowledge. The methods or craft of teaching, and the interpersonal relationships which are also essential in describing experts and how they operate, are identified. Furthermore, its strength lies in its explicit relation to applied

classroom practice. Although it might be suggested that Berliner (1988), and Sternberg and Horvath (1995) have achieved this as well, it could be argued that Eaude (2014) has made this explicit in relation to actual classroom practice in a more comprehensive way.

The typology makes a number of assumptions related to the awareness of teachers and their ability to draw on past experiences to guide current practices. The teacher can make an “In-the-moment selection from a repertoire of appropriate strategies” (Appendix 3), where the rule bound novice is unable to do this. The example also suggests that the expert teacher is able to process information quickly and effortlessly.

All three models contribute to our understanding of the characteristics of expert teachers, and where Berliner’s stage model shows how novices develop through stages to become experts, Eaude and Sternberg and Horvath’s models are useful in explaining experts in relation to classroom practice, and Eaude’s typology also includes the notion of teaching as a relationship driven profession which by its nature involves emotional elements.

Although the models do not consider expertise specifically in relation to behaviour management, there are some aspects which do imply that the expert teacher will be more effective in managing behaviour issues within the classroom. Berliner’s (1988) suggestion that the expert focuses on atypical behaviours and has a sense of the overall picture, Sternberg and Horvath’s (1995) assertion that the expert can process different types of information simultaneously and Eaude’s (2014) notion of experts’ ability to understand their own and other’s emotions, are some examples of the attributes of teachers who effectively manage classroom behaviour, it could be argued. It would be interesting to consider these models specifically in relation to behaviour management in response to the challenges teachers face. Furthermore, taking into account the research related to emotions and attributions it may be useful to also consider these aspects when developing models of expertise.

From the literature and the theoretical models discussed there seems to be three main areas within the context of psychology related to the development of expertise; perception (awareness and attention), information processing and memory. These will be discussed to help distinguish the novice from the expert.

2.12.7 - Perception and Awareness

Experts have fewer behaviour problems in the classroom than novices (McNally *et al.,* 2005; Feldon, 2007). They are more able to prevent disruptions, and when novices observe experts they focus on reactive measures rather than proactive preventative measures of the expert. What the novices attend to seems to be important in understanding why they may not be as able to prevent disruptions. Berliner's (1988) work relates to this. He found that novices and experts focus on different aspects of the classroom when observing. The expert focused on interpreting situations where novices focused on describing what they saw. These differences indicate that they are functioning at different levels of cognition with the expert going further than just the surface context (see also Berliner 2001; Glaser, 1999).

Berliner (1998, 2001) has argued that the novice and the expert 'see' aspects of the classroom differently (see also Eaude, 2014). The novice sees situations as separate and distinct, making few connections between stimuli, where the expert takes a global view, combining information which seems to be unrelated and making comparisons between current and past contexts (see also Berliner, 2001 and Feldon, 2007). The expert seems to know what is important and not important and attends to the important factors (see also Eaude, 2014; McNally *et al*., 2005). This is consistent with the work of Sternberg and Horvath (1995) which identified a characteristic of expertise, termed insight. They suggest that the expert is selective in choosing what to attend to, they are able to distinguish between important and unimportant information, where the novice is unable to do this (see also Feldon, 2007). Not only does this

affect cognitive capacity (Feldon, 2007) but also prevents the novice from contextualising the situation or from understanding the relationships between aspects (Berliner, 1998, 2001).

Elliot (2009) suggests that interpersonal skills are also important and that expert teaching “involves engaging in a range of behaviours that, in themselves, appear relatively unimportant but, taken cumulatively, are key to prevention” (Elliot, 2009, p.200; see also Eaude, 2014). This seems important in terms of what experts are doing and how aware they are of the classroom dynamic, where the novice can see and describe situations but cannot fully interpret them in terms of interpersonal factors (see also Berliner 1988, 2001; Eaude, 2014). This is consistent with Berliner‘s (1988) arguments where he identifies that novices focus on physical aspects while experts focus on interpersonal aspects.

2.12.8 - Memory

In relation to memory and expertise, Sternberg and Horvath’s (1995) prototype is useful in explaining the differences between the novice and the expert in respect of memory structure and function. They suggest that there are three main differences. The first is related to knowledge. They identify three areas of knowledge of the teacher; content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and practical knowledge. The authors suggest that this knowledge is stored and integrated in memory in the form of schemata, scripts and propositional structures. This enables the expert to draw on knowledge quickly and seemingly effortlessly, using past experience to guide and influence current situations (see also Berliner, 1998, 2001; Feldon, 2007; Eaude, 2014). They suggest that this develops as teachers become more experienced. In addition, the knowledge of the expert is integrated in memory to enable the expert to act in novel ways and to make connections and see patterns between present and past events (Glaser, 1999). This also enables the expert to make predictions and anticipate future events. Because, for novices, constructs are not firmly in place in memory, they are unable to draw upon memory to

support current situations. They lack the repertoire to make appropriate predictions or see patterns between events. Furthermore, even when the novices are able to draw on past experiences, they have not developed the ability to use this in novel ways in relation to current circumstances. This means that the novice is unable to use memory effectively to direct action to the extent that the expert does. Perhaps this relates to perception/attention in the sense that the novice who has little memory of similar events to draw on does not know what to look for in a current situation.

2.12.9 - Information Processing

As a result of memory and perception the expert is more efficient in processing information effectively (Berliner, 1988, Glaser, 1999). Experts can process quickly and effortlessly as they can draw upon past events and they can see patterns between events (Glaser, 1999). They are efficient in knowing what to do, as they see what needs to be done. Often much of what the expert does is unconscious; the knowledge is tacit (Berliner, 1988, 2001; Elliot, 2009). They process information automatically which reduces cognitive load giving them cognitive space to deal with complex or psychologically demanding issues.

As with any other area of skill development, automaticity enables automatic processing. This greatly reduces cognitive load leaving the cognitive capacity to deal with a number of things simultaneously (Berliner, 2001, Elliot, 2009; Feldon, 2007) and also frees up thinking space to deal with current issues and solve problems. Experts seem to more efficient (Sternberg and Horvath, 1995). They do more in less time with less effort, and yet still succeed, (see also Feldon, 2007). Experts are efficient problem solvers. They evaluate events and consider causes as well as solutions. As a result of effective memory structures, they have the cognitive capacity to reflect and consider events and work out effective solutions. The novice in contrast, who is cognitively overloaded, does not have this thinking space so is unable to problem solve efficiently

or reflect and evaluate (Berliner, 1988, 2001). This seems to also relate to perception and awareness as the novice is processing all stimuli where the expert is selective. Furthermore, it relates to memory, where schemas and scripts are not yet developed and therefore the capacity to draw on experience is reduced.

Cognitive overload leads to stress and anxiety. It has also been linked to inappropriate responses where the individual who is overloaded reverts to instinctive behaviours or behaviours related to older learning rather than new learning, and in this sense might be related to emotions in terms of physiological functioning in relation to fight or flight. Often the responses are in direct opposition to the beliefs and values of the individual (Feldon 2007; see also Kyricaou *et al*., 2007). This might help to explain why, for the novice, beliefs and actions may be contradictory.

An additional important aspect of expertise suggested by Eaude (2014) is personal and interpersonal knowledge, and this is related to emotions and emotional regulation. Eaude draws on the work of Elliot *et al.,* (2011) stating that "skilled interpersonal relations are crucial for effective teaching and learning" (Eaude, 2014, p.8). This is important in terms of the emotional elements of expert teachers, and how they deal with emotional situations such as challenging behaviours. Eaude argues that expert teachers are attuned "to children's varied responses and how, emotionally, these affect both oneself, as a teacher, and the other children" (Eaude, 2014, p.15).

It seems that the three areas of perception, memory and information processing interact in a number of ways to enable the expert to operate skilfully and efficiently, while they may hinder the novice.

2.12.10 - Experience or Expertise?

There is a distinction to be made between expertise and experience. This is interesting in relation to Mavropoulou and Padeliadu's research (2002) where they found no effect of experience on feelings of control. To be experienced in something does not necessarily imply being an expert

(Ericsson, 1993; Sternberg and Horvath, 1995; Dunn and Schriner, 1999; Eaude, 2014) and it is this distinction that is important in thinking about the development of an effective teacher. It is also important that although Berliner (1988) suggests that expertise is domain specific there may be some individual differences where one person can transfer skills and expertise to another domain while another may not have this capacity.

What may be important for research in teaching expertise is to further explore the interactive nature of teaching in relation to developing expertise. An individual's capacity to understand and regulate emotions in relation to interpersonal situations (Eaude, 2014) and/or their ability to make positive and pro-social attributions (Weiner, 2000) may be amongst the key determinants of how effective they are in the classroom in relation to behaviour management.

2.12.11 - Conclusion

It has been argued that cognitive factors contribute to expertise and can support an understanding of the distinction between the novice and the expert in relation to classroom practice and these can be related to psychological processes. The expert has an awareness of the complexities of the classroom. Novices do not seem to have this level of awareness and are often unable to interpret events. There seems to be a number of reasons for this, which may result in a feeling of helplessness, as discussed above. As a result of this inexperience and an inability to integrate and assimilate information, novices are more susceptible to cognitive overload, when they are in a situation where there are a number of aspects to attend to, resulting in unpleasant emotions and negative attributions and responses.

Research on expertise, then, seems to enable a greater understanding of how and why development takes place and helps to position the novice teacher more clearly in relation to the challenges they may face.

2.13 – Overall Summary and Conclusions

Psychology has supported an understanding of the challenges which may face a novice and can help to explain why teachers may become authoritarian when managing behaviour issues, even when their fundamental ideology has a humanistic basis. It has also helped to explain the way in which inexperienced individuals perceive situations and how this may affect their emotional state, the appraisals and attributions they make, and subsequent actions. Furthermore, research on the development of expertise has helped to explain not only why novices behave in a particular way but how development from novice to expert may operate in relation to psychological factors.

Although there has been a growth in research in relation to teachers' attributions and emotions, and research has indicated that with expertise teachers become more proficient in managing classroom disruptions, there is still much to be learned about these aspects of teaching. It is suggested that while there is agreement in relation to how expertise develops in general, an exploration of the extent to which appraisals and attributions are reflected in the development of teaching expertise is a valid area to research and may offer new and interesting insights into the development of behaviour management practices.

Most research has focused on fully qualified teachers and there are fewer studies which have explored preservice teachers' development over the preservice years. This may be a worthwhile area of study, in order to contribute to our understanding.

The current study will build on the literature by exploring appraisals, emotions, expertise and development in a longitudinal study, and through a small scale qualitative study to gain further insights into the factors which are important in developing preservice teachers' knowledge and skills.

Specifically, the research questions which have been derived from the literature are:

1. How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?
2. What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?
3. What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing misbehaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

Chapter 3 – Methodology

3.1 Overview of the chapter

This chapter will outline the research methodology for the study. Firstly, it will discuss the focus of the study in relation to the literature review. It will then justify the research approach in relation to philosophical perspectives. Next, the main aims and the research questions will be stated. Following this, the context of the study will be outlined and discussed. The research questions and subsidiary questions will then be examined in turn, identifying the key issues in relation to the design, measures, participants and procedures. Issues of quality in terms of ethics, validity and reliability will then be discussed. Finally, a discussion of how the findings will be reported will be outlined.

3.2 - Focus of the Study

As discussed in the literature review, there is a plethora of international research on behaviour management, (Giallo and Little, 2003; Kokkinos, *et al*., 2004 and 2005; Atici, 2007; Kyriacou, *et al.,* 2007, Chang, 2009; Hagenauer, *et al*., 2015) and yet concerns for preservice and fully qualified teachers continue. Furthermore, an inability to deal with issues has been linked to emotional exhaustion and teacher attrition in a number of countries around the world and there is growing concern related to the profession.

If behaviour management is an issue for experienced teachers then it is also true that it is a major concern for preservice teachers (Bromfield, 2006), being reported as one of the main causes of anxiety among this group, in Scotland and beyond. Studies have also stated that preservice teachers report that their knowledge of behaviour management strategies comes from practical experiences rather than from university programmes (McNally, *et al.*, 2005; Bromfield, 2006; Atici, 2007; Peters 2012). Studies have found that preservice teachers feel that their

university programmes do not prepare them sufficiently for dealing practically with behaviour management (Giallo and Little, 2003; Atici, 2007; O'Neill and Stephenson, 2012; Peters, 2012), and there is also a perception among preservice teachers that they are not given sufficient strategies to deal with behaviour issues (Bromfield, 2006). However, research has also shown that preservice teachers do develop as they make progress and become more expert in dealing with behaviour issues (Kyriacou, *et al.*, 2007, Reupert and Woodcock, 2010; O'Neil; and Stephenson, 2012). Studies have also indicated that, although preservice and fully qualified teachers may report having humanistic views, they will often resort to behaviourist strategies when managing behaviour (Kyriacou *et al.,* 2007; Reupert and Woodcock, 2010; Reupert and Woodcock, 2011).

There has been a variety of research studies which have explored the attributions teachers make, (see Poulou and Norwich, 200; 2002; Atici, 2007; Kyriacou *et al*., 2007; Zakaria et al., 2013; Gibbs and Miller, 2014) and some, if limited, research related to the emotional elements of teaching and the impact in relation to managing behaviour. Research has also indicated that relationships are crucial in developing effective behaviour management. Mainly research has focused on practising teachers although there is a growing body of work exploring these aspects in relation to preservice teachers.

The context for the study is Scotland where behaviour in Scottish schools has been the focus of much debate over many years. Scottish Government commissioned research has shown that discipline or behaviour is a concern for most teachers within the primary and secondary sector, (Black *et al.,* 2012; Munn, Sharp, Lloyd, Macleod, McCluskey, Brown and Hamilton 2009; Wilkin, Moor, Murfield, Kinder and Johnson, 2006; Munn, Johnstone and Sharp, 2004). In 2004 a study comparing teachers' perceptions of indiscipline from 1996 and 2004 found that discipline issues were notable for teachers and although many were reported as being the same as in 1996 there were some aspects

which teachers felt had become more of a problem to deal with. This study showed that the main concerns for teachers are low level indiscipline in the form of distracting behaviours, such as talking out of turn or distracting others. This was both evident within the primary and secondary sector (Munn *et al*., 2004). Further Scottish Executive and the Scottish Government social research has found similar results (Wilkin *et al.*, 2006; Munn *et al.*, 2009; Black *et al*., 2012). It is interesting that the low level disruptive behaviours seem to be the most concerning for teachers and perhaps this is due to the ongoing disruption they can create within the classroom in relation to teaching and learning, the impact they may have on the teacher's authority and perhaps the tendency to attribute blame to the pupils displaying these types of behaviour. However, there is a paucity of longitudinal research in relation to the development of preservice teachers in relation to their appraisals of misbehaviour and the extent to which this changes as they progress.

In broad terms, the focus of this study is to explore the appraisals, attributions and development of preservice teachers in relation to behaviour management, over a four year period of undergraduate study to build on previous research and gain insights into preservice teachers' perceptions of different types of misbehaviours and how they develop skills in behaviour management as they progress. The aim is to contribute to research, the professional field and to theory.

3.3 - Philosophical Perspective

This section will discuss research in relation to philosophical perspectives, and give a rationale for the design within a philosophical context. It will also justify my own position in relation to the research design and the methodology I have chosen.

In choosing research methods it is important to acknowledge that the researcher's beliefs and perspectives are central, and cannot be wholly objective (Opie, 2004; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). The researcher is part of the research process rather than a neutral observer

(Punch, 2009) and choices the researcher makes about the design of a study, the approach and the analysis all need to acknowledge the role of the researcher within the research (Opie, 2004). Within the current study it is acknowledged that, I, as the researcher am part of the research process. I have chosen an area of keen interest and designed the study to explore certain factors which may influence behaviour management practices. It is acknowledged that there may be a number of factors involved which have not been explored through this study, as the research is limited to exploring preservice teachers' development of behaviour management within the context of psychology. I realise that during the analysis of data, researcher bias can be an issue and have mitigated against this by ensuring that all the data is presented clearly and honestly, the data are fully explored and the analysis is as transparent as possible.

In terms of ontology and epistemology the present study acknowledges different philosophical perspectives. Research underpinned by positivist perspectives will guide the design and reflect the perception that reality is a fixed entity and lies out-with an individual's experience of it (Opie, 2004). In contrast with this perspective, research which is underpinned by an interpretivist philosophy makes the assumption that reality is constructed in relation to individual perspectives. It celebrates differences among individuals and explores the subjective and contextual nature of perception and behaviour (Wellington, 2000; Trochim, 2001; Punch, 2009; Cohen, *et al*., 2011; Grbich, 2013), where individual perspectives are fully acknowledged and indeed the purpose of the research (Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2009; Cohen, *et al*., 2011).

Interpretivist designs are not necessarily focused on testing theories of truths but on developing theories (Creswell, 2003), which demonstrate the subjective nature of reality and argue that behaviour can only be understood in terms of multiple realities (Opie, 2004; Cohen, *et al*., 2011; Grbich, 2013). This perspective suggests that two individuals may behave and act in different ways even when confronted with what seems to be

the same ‘reality’, so it is crucial that the individual is viewed as a constructor of events rather than a passive consumer or observer (Opie, 2004). In psychology, there are many studies demonstrating this type of thinking. For example, as the literature review argued, the attributions people make for their own or others behaviours are dependent upon the perspective they take and this will be determined by their prior experiences, values, beliefs and opinions (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2009).

The literature review also argued that the factors which contribute to the responses of individuals will be determined by the appraisals they make not necessarily by the reality of a situation.

It is within this context that I believe that individuals construct their knowledge of the world and respond relative to that knowledge rather than an agreed reality of the world. This relates to both ontological and epistemological questions of what reality is and how it can be known. If, ontologically speaking, reality is a construct of the individual then it can only be known within the context of the individual, based on the beliefs the individual holds about the situation at a given time and within a given context (Silverman, 2005). It seems then that the context is crucial in the interpretation of how a situation is appraised and the attributions made about it.

These examples suggest that it is reductionist to explain human behaviour as a set of principles, as there are many aspects to be taken into consideration. It is difficult to come to conclusions and see emerging truths or laws which, traditionally, research would deem as the only valuable way of studying phenomena, and as already discussed above, it is not the intention of interpretivist designs to seek truth or laws

Arguments about research methodology seem to indicate that the nature and design of a research study would be determined by the philosophical perspective taken in relation to ontology and epistemology, (Opie, 2004) and that the positivist and interpretivist perspectives are too disparate in their understanding of reality to be combined (Morgan, 2007). However,

there is an alternative view, related to the nature of the question being answered or explored (Silverman, 2005; Grbich, 2013), rather than from philosophical points of view in relation to ontology and epistemology (Punch, 2009).

Perceptions of research approaches have developed since Kuhn's (1970) arguments for paradigm change, and changes in philosophical perspectives related to postmodern ideas (Morgan, 2007; Grbich, 2013) about the nature of reality. This has gained momentum in the 21st century (in Social Sciences research) and qualitative data and interpretivist designs are accepted as valid and appropriate, (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). It is acknowledged that mixed methods designs can yield reliable and valid data in exploring the subjective nature of human behaviour (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Shenton, 2004; Punch, 2009) and human agency (Cohen, *et al*., 2011). Furthermore, Morgan (2007) argues that it is possible to perceive the reality as fixed while acknowledging that individual perception of that reality will be different and subjective, and this resonates with the discussion in the literature review. Moreover, Wood and Welch (2010) argue that qualitative and quantitative methods are not as distinct as many suppose and others argue that mixed methods designs are superior to using only one method (Trochim, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Punch, 2009).

It is within this context that my research lies. I chose to use the methods and approaches which enabled me to collect data which I felt would be most suitable for the questions I was exploring (Silverman, 2005; Punch, 2009; Grbich, 2013) and to acknowledge that while reality may be fixed in terms of the physical world, it is the interpretation of reality which influence perceptions, thinking and action (Morgan, 2007; Silverman, 2005). Thus, I took a pragmatic approach, focusing on the practical rather than the philosophical (Kuhn, 1970; Seale, 2002; Morgan, 2007; Punch, 2009; Grbich, 2013).

As a researcher I am committed to the philosophy and principles of pragmatic approaches to research because this enables in depth analysis

of cases, acknowledges the richness and subjectivity of individual perspectives (Opie, 2004), is underpinned by constructivist and interpretivist theories of knowledge and knowing in relation to ontology and epistemology, and recognises the importance of human experience. It regards context and reality as relative constructs in terms of thinking and action (Cresswell, 2003; Punch, 2009; Grbich, 2013). It also acknowledges the value of both quantitative approaches to accurately measure behaviours, make comparisons, provide reliability and validity and to make predictions. Quantitative data can be tested in a systematic way and can give deep insights into the probability of behaviour happening again and again give the same circumstances.

Although quantitative data cannot necessarily explain why or how something happens, it can indicate that it does happen, and it can lead to further questions of why (Opie, 2004). Furthermore, quantitative analyses of data and the conclusions derived from this can enable further research which can explore the 'why' and the 'how', leading to additional insights. Therefore, quantitative data has its place within educational research and is a valid research approach to choose, I would argue, depending on the purpose and nature of the study. Quantitative measures also enable a form of data collection which is less cumbersome than qualitative data. It gives a level of objectivity during analysis and enables comparisons to be made. Given the nature of the current study, which was longitudinal, the quantitative approach enabled clear analyses from one year to the next and allowed for patterns to emerge in relation to development of the preservice teachers. It enabled analysis of the group as a whole over the four years (the macro level). Therefore, I used the quantitative approach to enable these comparisons while acknowledging that the reality is still within the experiences and perceptions of the individual. I also used qualitative approaches to enable a deeper analysis of how people interpret situations and how they justify their perspective.

In the first study the instruments were designed to collect quantitative data in the form of a rating scale, and qualitative data in the form of comments, which will be discussed below.

In contrast to quantitative questionnaires, qualitative data tends to be collected in the form of narrative accounts and responses, through interviews and focus groups, for example. These approaches can offer rich insights into how and why people behave in the way they do rather than just reporting on what the behaviours are which is the purpose of the questionnaire (Opie, 2004; Grbich, 2013). There are advantages and disadvantages to qualitative research. Qualitative research, can "give insight into people's individual experiences" (Grbich, 2013, p.3), and therefore can enable more in depth understanding of phenomena than quantitative research. Although it could be argued that qualitative data is subjective, it is this very subjectivity that gives it meaning. The purpose of qualitative analysis is not to find out the reality, but to understand how people interpret their reality within the context of their own perceptions (Grbich, 2013), and to gain an insight into the perspectives of the participants (Silverman, 2005).

Within the context of the current study, two types of qualitative data were collected. Open comments, on the questionnaire, enabled the participants to comment on any aspect of the question which was being asked. The semi-structured interviews were devised in order to gain a more in depth understanding of individual experiences and insight into values, and feelings of individuals (Grbich, 2013; Punch, 2014). Furthermore, the interviews gave opportunities to probe and question further enabling elaboration of the responses (Bell, 2010; Grbich, 2013). Although it is acknowledged that qualitative data in the form of interviews cannot capture the breadth of responses, as there are fewer participants, it can capture depth and offer more elaborate insights into perceptions and attitudes (Cohen, *et al*., 2011), and although interviews can yield substantial data, systematic analysis can ensure that the data is manageable. However, Cohen, *et al*., (2011), argue that selection of data

can be subject to bias, and this will be discussed further in relation to validity and reliability in terms of dependability, trustworthiness and transferability.

Creswell and Plano-Clark (2003) identify three dimensions for collecting data through mixed methods:

1. Timing Dimension – focuses on the order of collection, for example, qualitative then quantitative or vice versa. This enables the researcher to use one type of data to support the analysis of the other through collecting numerical data then using interviews to support, confirm, explain, and elaborate on the results in order to gain a wider perspective.
2. Weighting Dimension – the researcher makes decisions about relative importance of the data in answering the question. This will be dependent upon the question being asked and the extent to which the researcher needs to qualify quantitative data and vice versa.
3. The Mixing Dimension – relates to the way in which the qualitative and quantitative data will be mixed. This allows the researcher to merge the data collection methods or keep them separate

(Creswell and Plano Clark, 2003, cited in Morgan, 2007).

It is the first and third which is the main focus of my research by mixing both quantitative and qualitative design within the questionnaire, and through using the qualitative data to support and elaborate on the quantitative results.

Grbich, (2013) also discusses mixed methods in relation to the timing of data collection. She argues that the researcher needs to make decisions about whether quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently or sequentially, or both. In the current research quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently through the questionnaire, and this enabled a picture of development over time to be built. However, qualitative data in the form of interviews were collected, at the end of the preservice teachers' final year of study, and this enabled a more in-depth

picture to be drawn. By combining concurrent and sequential data collection, I was able to gain a wider and more in-depth perspective, than using the qualitative data from the questionnaire alone.

3.3.1 - Summary

This section has outlined and justified a pragmatic approach in relation to philosophical perspectives and how this has informed my personal views. It has also outlined the reasons for my choice of research design and outlined what I believe are the main factors in determining the approach taken.

3.4 - The Main Aims of the Study

In this section I will discuss the main aims of the study in relation to previous research and restate the research questions, making reference to the issues identified and discussed in the literature review.

The research questions were derived from the literature and the purpose was to explore preservice teachers' appraisals and attributions of children's misbehaviour, and the extent to which this changes over time. Furthermore, the study aimed to explore how preservice teachers develop their skills and confidence in managing behaviour. From this main purpose, three research questions were created to focus on the different aspects of appraisals, attributions and professional learning and these will be discussed more fully below.

Kokkinos, *et al*., (2005) have identified the link between stress and challenging behaviour in relation to appraisals but have not explored this qualitatively. In order to build on appraisals research, qualitative data may enable more insights into the beliefs and thoughts of individuals in relation to the appraisals they make. Bahia, *et al*., (2013) have explored fully qualified teachers' understanding, management and expression of emotions but not in relation to behaviour management specifically. Kyriacou *et al's.,* work (2007) has explored strategies, attributions and appraisals of behaviour and linked this to confidence, but has not

explored the emotional elements. As discussed in the literature review, emotions seem have a significant influence on thought and action, and so worth further study. Given the literature related to the way in which preservice teachers report developing knowledge (as discussed above) exploration of these aspects may give further insights. If preservice teachers acquire knowledge through experience in the classroom, as reported by a number of studies and if the strategies they observe are correctional, as studies have suggested (Hamilton, 2015), then their knowledge, skills and subsequent practices may lean towards behaviourist methods.

Furthermore, although studies have compared preservice and fully qualified teachers (Kokkinos *et al.,* 2005), preservice teachers' development over one year programmes (Kyriacou *et al.,* 2007), comparative studies of undergraduates at the beginning and end of their study (Kokkinos, *et al*., 2004), and cross sectional studies (Woodcock and Reupert, 2013), there has to my knowledge been no studies which have examined development of preservice teachers over a four year period of undergraduate study in terms of their appraisals, attributions, and knowledge and skills development.

In light of the above discussion this study had three main aims. The first, to explore preservice teachers' appraisals of children's misbehaviour, and the way preservice teachers manage, express and understand their emotions. The second was to explore the attributions made for classroom misbehaviour and confidence in managing behaviour, and the third was to explore the way in which preservice teachers develop knowledge and skills of behaviour management. Finally, these factors were explored in relation to development over a four year undergraduate Initial Teacher Education programme, through a mixed methods design.

The purpose of the current study, then, was to contribute to theory, to research and to the professional field by attempting to explore the extent to which preservice teachers develop their beliefs over time. The research makes assumptions about attributions and appraisals in relation to their

subjective nature, drawing on psychological theories, discussed in the literature review.

Overall, the study aimed to explore these changes in relation to the whole group (macro level) but also aimed to investigate the micro level by exploring the development of individual participants, through the interviews. Accordingly, the following Research Questions were created.

3.5 - Research Questions

The design allowed the following questions to be explored:

Main question - What are the factors which underpin preservice teachers' perceptions of classroom misbehaviour, how they manage it and to what extent do perceptions change over time?

Research Questions

1. How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?
2. What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?
3. What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing behaviour, and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

The research questions and associated subsidiary questions will be discussed more fully in sections related to each part of the study.

3.6 - The Context – The Programme and Participants

This section will discuss the undergraduate programme structure and the participants.

3.6.1 - The Programme

Table 1 School Experience (Practicum) and data collection over 4 year degree programme

Year	Placement	Semester	Placement Duration	Stage	Data Collection
First	1SE1	Semester 2	6 weeks	Middle/Upper Stages	Following 1SE1
Second	2SE1 2SE2	Semester 1 Semester 2	4 weeks 4 weeks	Upper Stages Nursery	Following 2SE2
Third	3SE1 3SE2	Semester 1 Semester 2	4 weeks 5 weeks	Early Years Multi-composite /Rural	Following 3SE2
Fourth	4SE	Semester 2	8 weeks	Middle/Upper	Following 4SE

The participants were undergraduate preservice teachers from a university in the East of Scotland studying on an Initial Teacher Education programme, completing a Bachelor of Education, Honours (B.Ed.) degree. This is a four year programme which prepares students for entering the teaching profession and enables them to gain registration with the General Teaching Council, Scotland, (GTCS) which is a requirement for teaching in Scottish schools. The programme prepares preservice teachers to work within a primary setting, teaching pupils from Nursery to primary seven, age 3-12. The programme is typical of all initial teacher education programmes nationally, and assessment of placement is consistent across Scotland for all preservice teachers, as they are all assessed against the GTCS standards for provisional registration.

In each year of the programme there is a blend of practical school experience (practicum), where preservice teachers build their practical teaching skills, and academic/theoretical study. Within modules each year there is a focus on professional practice and theory, through lectures, workshops and tutorials on behaviour management.

The School experience comprised six placements over the course of the four years, one in years 1 and 4 and two in each of years 2 and 3 (see table 1). Schools are allocated through a national system, so choice is limited. Although the university can stipulate the stage (early years, middle, upper primary) in which preservice teachers should be placed, the size of schools or characteristic of the class cannot be stipulated. Schools range from large city schools to smaller schools in towns or villages. Placements may be in denominational (Catholic) schools or non-denominational and this is not necessarily related to the religious faith of the preservice teacher (although a denominational school can be requested). Schools are allocated randomly except in relation to the third year, second placement, where the stipulation is a school with composite or multi-composite classes, which tend to be in rural areas of Scotland. In each placement, apart from the third year second semester placement, there is a required stage. It is assumed, that over the course of four years the preservice teachers will experience a range of settings, and a range of challenges.

The aim of school experience is to build knowledge and skills of teaching over the four years and each year the demands become greater and the expectation higher. For all school experience placements the preservice teachers are assessed against the GTCS Standards which assess a number of areas of practice including classroom management and organisation. It is within this benchmark that preservice teachers are required to demonstrate their ability to manage behaviour. By the end of year four, successful preservice teachers have gained sufficient experience and skills to become registered with the GTCS, which is a required registration for teaching in Scotland. (Appendix 4).

In the first year of school experience, (1SE1) preservice teachers are initially supported through a series of tasks comprised of theoretical reading, observation, discussion and reflection to enable them to develop their understanding of different aspects of teaching, and their own understanding of the specific area. This enables them to have some

experience within the classroom, discuss this with the class teacher (mentor) and then reflect upon this in relation to their academic study and understanding of theoretical perspectives. These tasks are undertaken during the first two weeks of the first placement. Preservice teachers then return to the University for two weeks before completing the remainder of this first placement. For the remainder of the placement the preservice teachers are required to take some element of responsibility for group teaching, planning and building up to whole class responsibility for two days. The focus is on the middle/upper stages of the primary school, primary four to seven (age range from 8-12 years) and they will be placed at one of these stages.

In the second year of study there are two school placements, one in each semester. In semester one, (2SE1) they are placed in the upper stages of the primary (age range from 10-12 years) and build on their experiences, initially teaching groups and taking responsibility for non-continuous days, to taking full responsibility for the whole class for four consecutive days. In semester two they undertake a placement (2SE2) in Nursery (age range 3-5 years), where they build on knowledge of child development and gain skills in observation and assessment in the Nursery setting. They work collaboratively with Nursery staff to gain skills in teaching through child-centred approaches, with an emphasis on learning through play.

In third year they undertake a placement in semester one (3SE1) for a duration of 4 weeks within an early years setting (age range 5-7 years). In this placement they develop skills gained within the Nursery setting, through initially teaching groups and class lessons, building to ten consecutive days of continuous responsibility. The second school experience placement (3SE2) has a focus on composite classes. In Scotland 41% of primary schools are classed as rural, the definition of rural schools being those schools located in settlements of less than 3,000 people" (Scottish Government, 2013, p. 63). It is within this context that preservice teachers gain experience of working with pupils within a

composite/ multi-composite setting. The duration of the placement is five weeks during semester two, building up to a period of continuous whole class responsibility of ten consecutive days.

In the final year, they undertake one school experience placement (4SE) in semester two. The pattern for building up experience is similar to the third year placement but the expectation is that they will be confident and competent in taking responsibility for the whole class at an earlier stage in the placement. The duration is eight weeks and the preservice teachers work towards taking full responsibility for the class for a period of fifteen consecutive days. This placement is undertaken within the middle/upper stages of the primary.

For all placements, prior to taking full responsibility for the class, the preservice teachers observe and work collaboratively with the class teacher. Where they have full responsibility they are expected to take responsibility for the teaching, learning, assessment, and organisation and management. It is the expectation that their confidence, competence and ability to manage the full responsibility will build up from year one to year four.

Throughout the programme they are encouraged and expected to engage with and reflect upon, the theory and practice of behaviour management through, observations of experienced teachers, practical application, engagement in lectures and workshops, reading professional and theoretical literature and written assessments.

3.6.2 - Participants

Study One

The participants as described above were typical of preservice teachers undertaking initial teacher education programmes nationally. The whole cohort was invited to participate in the study. There is some variation in the response rates over the four years and there is no apparent reason for this. It may be that participants chose at points not to complete the questionnaire. It may be that they were not present when questionnaires

were administered, or it may be due to participants withdrawing from the programme during the four year period. Despite this, the response rate was consistently high, the lowest being 67.74% in year three (see table 2), resulting in a very good representation of the cohort. This was likely due to the fact that they were familiar with me and the questionnaires were handed out at the end of lectures. Furthermore, they tend to be interested in the subject of behaviour management because, as research has shown, this is one of the main concerns for preservice teachers.

The participant age ranged from 18 to 38 years, with the majority within the range of between 18 and 19 in the first year of the programme, which is usual for the undergraduate Initial Teacher Education programme within the institution and nationally. The majority of participants were female. This is consistent with the gender balance on Initial Teacher Education programmes, for primary education, nationally. The average on the current programme was 15-20% of males and 80-85% of females. The majority of participants at year one of the programme were school leavers, although a proportion of the students were post study, or mature students.

Table 2 Total 'n' participants in each year group and % of responses

Year	Total number in cohort	Total responses	% of responses
Year 1	66	N=55	83.33
Year 2	62	N=50	80.64
Year 3	62	N=42	67.74
Year 4	59	N=47	79.66

Study Two

This study aimed to gain more in-depth insights into the appraisals and attributions to build on the quantitative data. It also explored emotions, which the questionnaire did not address and the participants' perceptions and beliefs about relationships.

A sample of participants from the cohort, in year four of their study took part in the interviews. From the whole participant group consent was sought on the consent form in study one where participants were asked

if they would like to take part in a follow up interview. From this group any participants who had been assessed by me in their final year were disregarded for ethical reasons. Further selection was done through convenience sampling, where they were all contacted and those who then agreed were asked to meet me at a suitable time. From the cohort six agreed to be interviewed and from this group four were interviewed, as two of the participants were unable to attend interviews having already left the University for the Summer Break. Of the four interviewed, three were female and one was male. This approximately reflected the gender balance within the cohort as a whole.

It is acknowledged that voluntary participation can affect the results. It could indicate a specific type of participant, with specific characteristics, for example those who do not find behaviour management a challenge, choose to participate.

3.7 - Key issues and Design

As stated above the first study was longitudinal, using a mixed design questionnaire, (appendix 5) and the second was a semi-structured interview (Appendix 6) of a sample from the whole participant group at the end of the final year of the programme, and was analysed qualitatively.

The research focused on four main areas derived from the literature review

- Appraisals
- Attributions
- Professional Learning
- Development

3.7.1 - Longitudinal Research

A longitudinal design was chosen for study one to explore development of preservice teachers across their four year of study in relation to the way in which they appraise misbehaviour, make attributions and the extent to

which they develop their understanding of and skills in behaviour management. The strength of longitudinal research is that it can explore the same individuals over a period of time and make comparisons. This design was chosen to enable patterns and changes to be explored with the same cohort of preservice teachers. While a cross sectional design would have given some insights, the longitudinal study has greater reliability as the same individuals are being compared (Cohen, *et al*., 2011).

The authors list the strengths of longitudinal research as:

- Useful for establishing causal relationships and making reliable inferences
- Separates real trends from chance occurrences
- Useful for charting growth and development
- Gathers data contemporaneously
- Economical in that a picture of the sample is built over time
- In depth and comprehensive coverage of a wide range of variables, both initial and emergent – individual specific effects and population heterogeneity
- Enables change to be analysed at individual/micro level
- Enables dynamics of change to be caught
- Sampling error is reduced
- Enables clear recommendations for interventions to be made

They also identify the weaknesses of longitudinal research as

- Time consuming
- Problems of diminishment of initial participants
- Control effects – repetition of the same instruments influences respondents behaviour
- Intervening effects attenuate the initial research plan
- Problems of securing participants as it involves repeated contact
- Data being rich at an individual level are typically complex to analyse

I acknowledged and mitigated against some of weaknesses, for example through using a cohort who would study in the same institution and while there was some attrition over time the chances of this were limited as the majority of students tend to complete the programme. There was little difficulty in securing participants as they were a cohort of students on the existing programme. Acknowledgement of the control effects is something which cannot be mitigated against but I was aware of this and took it into account as a variable which could influence the results. In relation to intervening effects, it is recognised that there may be other factors which influence the results rather than only development. While this is acknowledged, it is something again which cannot be controlled and the important aspect was to look for trends and patterns across the cohort over the four years of study. In relation to time consuming aspects, by using questionnaires which were completed once a year the time was reduced.

Despite the weaknesses it was deemed that a longitudinal study would give a greater understanding of change and development and would enable analysis at the macro (whole participant group) and therefore deemed the most worthwhile approach for this study. By analysing the questionnaire responses at a macro level, the time and complexity of analysis were reduced, although it is acknowledged that micro analysis may have given deeper insights. The reasons for not analysing the data at this level are discussed below in relation to ethics.

3.7.2 - Measures - Designing the Instruments

The following section will discuss and evaluate the instruments and justify the choices made for instrument design. Firstly, the instruments for study one will be discussed followed by a discussion of the interview design for study two.

Quantitative research in social and educational research tends to be in the form of questionnaires, often using a Likert scale to generate numerical data, and enabling statistical analysis of the data and

conclusions to be made. (Punch, 2009; Cohen, *et al*., 2011). The advantages of questionnaires are that they are economical, standardised and can ensure anonymity (Opie, 2004). However, Punch (2009) suggests that quantitative approaches may be reductionist and may be at the risk of losing rich data and significant information, such as insights into why something is happening, as already discussed (Opie, 2004). While these are important points, there are valuable gains to be had from using quantitative measures, as indicated above, and quantitative research has many strengths. For the purpose of the current research, the strengths of quantitative data collection methods were recognised as a useful way of enabling comparisons to be made over time in a way which was straightforward.

Cohen, *et al*., (2011) suggest that there are a number of factors to be taken into account when planning questionnaire research. They state that we must be clear about the purpose and objective of the questionnaire, think about the sample, have clarity about the topics, constructs, concepts and issues which arise from a pilot and check that these are all addressed. They also state that the researcher should think about the kinds of measures which are appropriate and whether the questionnaire will consist of measures, scales and/or questions.

Questionnaires, where a large participant group are concerned, must be highly structured and therefore the level of structure will depend on the sample size, (Cohen, *et al*., 2011). My questionnaires were being given to a sample of around 69 students which is not a particularly large sample but the fact that these were being tested over a period of four years meant that the data needed to be clear and specific and straightforward for the participants to complete.

It was important to think about the layout and structure of the questionnaire and the way in which questions would be asked. I used the sequence suggested by Cohen, *et al*., (2011). The order of the questions in the questionnaire were from simple to more complex, starting with factual information such as age and gender and then moving on to a

rating scale for a number of statements, followed by an opportunity to add comments.

Rating scales are widely used and valued in research and were therefore deemed to be an appropriate method for collecting the data. Their strength is in their ability to "combine the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations and other forms of quantitative analysis. They afford the researcher the freedom to fuse measurements with opinion, quantity and quality" (Cohen, *et al*., 2011, p.387) and they are "particularly useful for tapping attitudes, perceptions and opinions" (Cohen, *et al*., 2011, p.390).

However, they are not without limitations. Cohen, *et al.*, (2011) identify that there are no "equal intervals between the categories" (p.387), for example we cannot ascertain the extent to which someone views the interval between agree and strongly agree, and this could be variable for individuals. However, the rating scale does show the distinction between agreement and non-agreement.

In this study, the limitation stated above was not deemed to be a key factor as I was not making the assumption that the differences held the same value for different participants but would hold the same value for individuals responding across the questionnaire, and across the four years.

3.7.3 - The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into sections, each with its own specific purpose (Appendix 5). This allowed each aspect to be analysed in isolation of the others but also relationships across aspects could be made. This design also made it less daunting for the participants. Matrix questions were used where the response was the same for all questions. Rating scales were used with statements which asked the extent to which the participant agreed/disagreed. These were ordinal on a scale of 5 to 1 (5 being strongly agree, 1 being strongly disagree) giving the participant the option of choosing 'not sure'. This meant that participants were not

obliged to take a particular position. There are advantages and disadvantages to this design, the advantage being that participants could opt for no opinion, thus ensuring that where they did agree or disagree this was a considered response, rather than having an enforced choice. However, it also means that the data may be less useful especially if participants choose this option too often. On balance it was decided that a five-point scale would be most suitable. Each number on the scale was given a verbal label to give clarity about what the number represented.

It is suggested by Cohen, *et al*., (2011) that open-ended questions are a useful tool in gaining information which would not necessarily be gathered through the questionnaire and that prompts and/or sentence starters are useful to gain additional insights and rich data. In the questionnaires I made the decision not to do this as I did not want to influence the direction of the comments but wanted to gain insights into what the respondents wanted to say following the completion of each section of the questionnaire. I also chose not to have specific questions as this, according to the authors, can distract the respondents or result in them becoming focused on having to write responses. However, a comments box does not have the same demands as the participants would not be obliged to add comments. It also offers the participants an element of freedom to make comments about their perceptions of misbehaviour, rather than directing them to specific responses. Despite the limitations of open-ended questions, it was deemed that some comment from the respondents could add to the richness of the data. A final part of the questionnaire also gave participants the option of making any additional comments about their beliefs about misbehaviour and gave them the opportunity to have freedom to add any other information they deemed to be important.

3.7.4 – The Interview Schedule

It was explained to the participants that this study was being carried out to examine and explore their perceptions and practices in more depth and was linked to the longitudinal study in which they had all participated. The aim as discussed above was to gain insights into the reality of the participants' world, rather than to gain a picture of a fixed reality (Silverman, 2005).

As discussed above, qualitative data from interviews can yield data which cannot be collected through quantitative measures alone. The main strengths of the interview as method are that it can give in depth insights. It can answer the 'why' and 'how' questions where a questionnaire using quantitative methods might only answer the 'what' questions (Bell, 2010). Furthermore, the interview can allow for elaboration, probing and clarification, which cannot be achieved with questionnaires (Bell, 2010). However, interviews can be time consuming and are subjective, although as already discussed it was the subjectivity which was important for me as this could enable further insights into why the participants think in particular ways.

The interviews were carried out using a semi-structured interview schedule. This allowed for predetermined questions but also gave scope for further discussion, as discussed above (Bell, 2010). The interview schedule consisted of a series of six, open-ended questions, four of which related directly to the questions in the questionnaire and two which were additional to those asked in the questionnaire. These additional questions were chosen for two reasons. The first was to explore the stages which preservice teachers had taught during the four years of the programme and how they had developed relationships with their pupils. This enabled analysis of their perceptions and practices and their general view of children, based on Porter's (2007) work, and also gave information about the various ages and stages they had taught to ensure that they had experiences of different stages. The second was to examine the emotional aspects of behaviour management which had not been

explored through the questionnaire. A final opportunity was given to add any additional comments.

The data were gathered through two studies. Analysis of the quantitative data from study one was analysed first, followed by the qualitative data from study one and two. Although analysed separately, where one data set complemented the other, links were identified and discussed.

3.7.5 – The Research Questions Revisited

For this part of the study appraisals were explored in relation to the following research question and sub questions.

RQ1: How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ1 - Which misbehaviours are appraised as most/least unacceptable and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

SQ 2 - Which misbehaviours are appraised as most/least challenging and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

SQ 3 - To what extent are appraisals of misbehaviours influenced by emotions?

SQ 4 - To what extent do appraisals influence responses to behaviour management issues?

Sub question one and two were addressed through the rating scale on the questionnaire and the open comments. They were also analysed in relation to the interview for responses related to inappropriateness and challenge. Sub question three was addressed through the interview for responses related to emotions, and sub question four was addressed through the interviews for responses which related to unacceptability and challenge, and emotions.

As discussed, a rating scale was used to explore preservice teacher beliefs about misbehaviour. Participants were asked to rate different behaviours on the scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree in terms of how unacceptable they felt them to be. They were given the same

behaviours and asked how challenging they deemed them to be on the same scale

Each statement was discrete and participants were not being asked to rank statements. For example, when appraising behaviour they were asked to rate each behaviour in relation to how strongly they agreed or disagreed that it was an unacceptable behaviour but not asked to rank it in relation to the other behaviours. It was important for this study that they were not making comparative appraisals because I wanted to examine all the behaviours independently, to examine actual rather than comparative ratings (Cohen, *et al*., 2011).

The behaviours chosen for the current study are behaviours which have been identified as the types of behaviours which teachers report as causing them concern, and were adapted from other research which has examined preservice and fully qualified teachers' perceptions of behaviour in the classroom (Kokkinos *et al.,* 2004, 2005). It also drew on the behaviours identified in Scottish Government commissioned reports (Munn *et al*., 2004; Wilkin *et al.*, 2006; Munn *et al.*, 2009; Black *et al.,* 2012), as the focus of the study was preservice teachers who were studying in Scotland. The behaviours chosen were a mixture of confrontational, disruptive and distracted behaviours. An example of confrontational behaviours was behaviour which is associated with aggression, for example fighting, or blatant defiance, such as refusing to do what is asked. The disruptive behaviours were identified as those behaviours which disrupt the flow of the classroom and can distract others, such as shouting out, wandering around the class, or distracting others but are not deemed to be directly defiant. The distracted behaviours were behaviours which were identified as those behaviours which do not cause any disruption to others, such as not paying attention or being off task. The categories were derived from Kokkinos *et al's.,* (2004; 2005) studies where behaviours were categorised as 'Conduct problems' – those behaviours which are anti-social and/or aggressive, 'Disruptive behaviours' – those which disrupt the class but are not openly

anti-social in the way conduct behaviours are, and 'Inhibited/reserved behaviours' – which are those which do not disrupt others. The reason for choosing to define the anti-social aggressive behaviours as confrontational rather than 'conduct problems' was because I felt that Kokkinos *et al's.,* (2004; 2005) definition did not capture the confrontational nature of these behaviours in the way I wanted to. The reason I chose to use the term 'distracted' behaviours rather than 'inhibited/reserved' behaviours was because my focus was on off-task types of behaviours rather than socially inhibited behaviours as Kokkinos had included. I maintained the term disruptive behaviour as I felt this encapsulated the content of the behaviours within this category. However, there were some differences in relation to the behaviours chosen for the categories. Given that I was interested particularly in appraisal theory in relation to level of perceived threat I chose only behaviours which I identified as potentially threatening to teacher authority or others, to include within the confrontational category, where Kokkinos *et al*., identified a number of behaviours which did not directly relate to threat in this way, such as stealing. For the distracted behaviours I chose only those behaviours which were linked to learning, where Kokkinos *et al*., identified inhibited behaviours, such as, fearful and cowardly. I was particularly interested to explore whether the preservice teachers would find distracted behaviours more challenging as they progressed and became more aware of their responsibility for the learning in the classroom. For the disruptive behaviours I chose behaviours which disrupt the flow of the classroom but I had identified as not explicitly threatening to the teacher or others.

Categorising the behaviours enabled analysis of the three types of behaviours and explored patterns in relation to the appraisals of unacceptability and challenge. By doing this I was able to make comparisons over time in terms of development. Although the behaviours were categorised for the purposes of analysis, they were not presented to participants within categories, and were randomly presented in order

to reduce the likelihood of participants discerning a pattern and rating in relation to this. Within this section of the study I was also interested in exploring the specific types of behaviours which preservice teachers find unacceptable and challenging to identify if there were any commonalties in relation to the threat to the teacher, as discussed in relation to appraisals and emotions in the literature review. This is particularly interesting to me as I wanted to explore the extent to which anti-social/aggressive behaviours in general were deemed to be serious or whether there were specific types of behaviours within the category that are appraised as more serious and if this was related to behaviours which explicitly threaten the teacher.

Although I used a quantitative design in the form of the rating scale, the responses are acknowledged as being subjective, as were the narrative responses. This is very important for me because research indicates that it is the subjective appraisal which is crucial not the reality (see literature review for further discussion). It is assumed that two teachers who are confronted with the same situation, but appraise it in different ways will think and act differently as a function of that appraisal.

To explore the attributions the following research question and sub questions were posed.

RQ2: What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ 1 - What are preservice teachers' perceptions of children's misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ 2 – What are preservice teachers' perceptions about how they manage misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ3 - How confident do preservice teachers feel about managing misbehaviour?

For the first sub question, questions about attributions were presented. In the questionnaires, the participants were asked to rate the extent to which they attributed behaviours to different factors, such as the teacher, the level of consistency in children's behaviour and how the teacher can use effective strategies to deal with misbehaviour. They were also asked questions regarding their confidence in dealing with misbehaviour, to explore their level of perceived control. As the literature review has discussed, attribution research indicates that the locus and control can determine the teachers' attributions for misbehaviour. For example, if they perceive the behaviour to be within the control of the child, and deliberate they are less likely to engage in helping behaviours (Poulou and Norwich, 2002) than they would if they feel the child is not to blame even though he/she is causing the behaviour, so blame might be externally attributed but is not negatively viewed.

Kyriacou *et al.,* (2007) examined the extent to which preservice teachers changed their attributions as a function of development over the course of a one year programme, and this was linked to their thinking, from the self to the other. The research found that as preservice teachers developed, they changed their attributions. The attributional aspect of my study explored whether preservice teachers changed from having a pathognomic view (related to the self) to an interventionist view (related to other) and the extent to which this was linked to confidence.

Participants appraised and rated their confidence in managing misbehaviour. For example, there was a question about confrontation and one about low-level disruptions. The participants were asked to rate the statements in relation to how strongly they agreed or disagreed that they could deal with them.

All of the statements in this section were short and straightforward so that the participants would be clear about what was being asked. This was especially important in the first year, because their experiences are limited, and the same statements were used throughout the four years to ensure validity and reliability of the results

The following research question and sub questions were posed to explore how preservice teachers believe they develop their knowledge and skills.
RQ3: What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing misbehaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?
SQ1 – To what extent do they value practical experience in supporting them and how does this change over time?
SQ2 – To what extent do they value theoretical knowledge in supporting them and how does this change over time?
SQ3 – To what extent does developing skills influence confidence?
SQ4 – To what extent do they acknowledge and value relationships in supporting behaviour management and to what extent does this change over time?

This part of the study was designed to investigate the different aspects which participants feel are valuable in terms of their professional learning. This section of the questionnaire explored the types of knowledge which preservice teachers draw upon to inform their understanding of behaviour management. This was also explored through the comments on the questionnaires and the interview responses from year 4 participants. The quantitative data were collected, as with the other sections, through a rating scale. The statement '*these have helped me to deal with challenging behaviour'* was presented, and the participants were asked to consider five types of support, (Appendix 5). There was also an open comments box following the rating scale. For the interview the participants were asked about how they gained knowledge and skills (Appendix 6).

As discussed in the literature review, research has shown that preservice teachers typically do not see the value of theoretical knowledge in relation to teaching practice and that they value practical experience and observations within the context of the 'real classroom' (Giallo and Little,2003; McNally *et al.,* 2005; Bromfield, 2006; Atici, 2007; Kyriacou *et al.*, 2007; Peters, 2012).The data allowed me to explore the extent to

which preservice teachers draw upon different types of knowledge and whether this changes over time and to explore why they may find one way of professional learning superior to another.

The interviews were undertaken by participants following the final placement of the final year. The questions were similar in nature to the questionnaire questions, with some additional questions as discussed above. In the overall analysis the qualitative data from the comments from the questionnaires were analysed alongside the data from study two in order to gain a wider view of development.

3.8 – Procedures

3.8.1 - Study One Procedures

Participants were made fully aware of the nature and purpose of the study. It was communicated to the participants that this would be a longitudinal study and the researcher would collect data each year in the second semester, following their School Experience placements. The students were familiar with me and we had built a relationship as I taught on a number of modules which they were studying.

The questionnaires were distributed at the end of a lecture, following the placements in semester two of each year. This timing was chosen to enable participants to reflect upon their recent practice in order that their responses were based on their experience. Participant information was read to all participants and any questions were answered following this. Participants were made fully aware that their participation was entirely voluntary and they could withdraw at any time during the study without any consequence. They were also told that they could answer all, some or none of the questions. Furthermore, they were informed that participation in one year did not in any way commit them to involvement in future years. Consent forms were administered each year prior to completion of the questionnaires, and participant information was

repeated each year to ensure that participants were reminded of the purpose of the study and the voluntary nature of their participation.

Cohen, *et al*., (2011) suggest that by self-administering the questionnaire the researcher is able to answer any questions immediately, it normally results in a high response rate and it can be completed on one occasion gathering data from a high number of respondents concurrently. This is why I chose to carry out my data collection in this way. However, there are considerations to be taken into account. The presence of the researcher could be intimidating and also this way of gathering data does not allow the respondents additional time if they need it. This was mitigated against because I was someone who was familiar to the participants, I was also very clear in explaining the purpose of the research, which I understood as useful for preservice teachers, and the participants were informed that there was no right or wrong answer. The participants were also advised that the questionnaires would remain anonymous and their responses would not influence their studies in any way. By doing this I hoped to encourage participation (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004).

Participants were given time to complete the questionnaires at the end of a lecture and were all asked to remain in the room for a specified period of time (20 minutes) whether they were participating or not. This was to ensure that I could not identify who had or had not participated and thus ensuring anonymity. The time was incorporated into the lecture time, in order that participants were not disadvantaged as they were already timetabled to be in the class. I remained in the room to answer any questions which participants had during the completion of the questionnaire as suggested by Rugg and Petre (2007). However, I sat apart from the participants and was busy organising and tidying up the area following the lecture so not paying attention unless anyone asked a question. Because they were in a lecture theatre it was impossible for me to walk among them as they completed the questionnaire, again ensuring anonymity. Consent forms and questionnaires were distributed together

to give the participants an opportunity to look at the questionnaire before giving consent. On completion of the questionnaires students returned the questionnaires and consent forms and the consent forms were separated from the questionnaires immediately.

Identical procedures were carried out each year.

3.8.2 - Study Two Procedures

The interview was chosen in order to gain further insights into the perceptions and practices of preservice teachers and to tease out the emotional elements further, as discussed above. Although the questionnaire had an additional comments box this did not elicit data regarding emotions, where the interview explicitly asked about emotions. Interviews were held following the final assessment of the final year. This timing was chosen for two main reasons. The first was to ensure that the participants had completed the programme and all assessments had been graded, which would ensure that there could be no influence by the participants or the researcher. The second was to potentially gain the most from the interview as the final year students could look back over the four years and reflect on the changes to their perceptions and practices. It is acknowledged that their responses would be relying on memory and this was considered during the analysis. The most insightful data would have come from observations of preservice teachers in practice, and asking them to keep diaries of events. However, as they were being assessed on placements it was decided that this might, not only potentially cause stress, but would not be ethical as it could be perceived to have an influence on their grade. Participants were invited to meet with me and the interview was scheduled at a time which was convenient for the participants. All interviews were held in the same setting.

The purpose of the interview was explained to the participants prior to the interview and any questions regarding the study were answered. As the participants were familiar with the study, having completed the

questionnaires each year, they were well informed about the nature of the research. Participants were reminded that they could withdraw at any time and that they could refrain from answering any of the questions.

The interviews were semi-structured, with pre-set open-ended questions. The areas of focus were related to emotions and cognition, attributions, relationships, strategies, development and professional learning. These areas were chosen to reflect the discussion within the literature review and to complement the questionnaire.

The structure of each interview followed the same pattern. The same questions were asked to all participants in the same order, (Appendix 6). Each participant was interviewed individually and were given time to answer each question in as much detail as they felt appropriate. Probes were used to enable elaboration and to maintain the focus of the questions. The interviews lasted for approximately 30 minutes as it was deemed that approximately 5 minutes per question would be sufficient time, following the pilot, and would give parity across the participant group.

The responses to the interview questions were recorded through hand written notes which were then converted to word documents, immediately following the interview as suggested by Bell (2010). This ensured that the data were collected and recorded in the same way and by one person, reducing the likelihood of researcher variance. It was also economical in terms of time as the notes did not have to be transcribed, but merely typed for ease of reading. It is acknowledged that recording of interviews might be preferable as this enables the researcher to focus on the questions and reduces the chance of recorder bias (Opie, 2004). Furthermore, it ensures that all of the discussion is recorded and no important aspects are missed. (Opie, 2004; Cohen, *et al*., 2011). However, the authors acknowledge that transcribing the entire data set can be extremely time consuming and irrelevant information is collected, and thus the researcher may select the important material. This can, however, result in researcher bias, and selective reporting (Opie, 2004). In the current

study the main objective of the recording was not to record the entire responses exactly verbatim but to record the phrases and comments which conveyed the essence of the responses. Although it is acknowledged that this may result in missing important aspects of the conversation, it was not my intention to record the interview word for word but to gain a picture of the perceptions and practices. That said, I did ensure that everything that was recorded was in the exact words of the participant. In this way I was able to ensure that I had not given my interpretation of the actual response. I also wanted the participants to feel comfortable and confident in answering and felt that recording may have put pressure on them. I have experience of note taking, and had practised note taking in the pilot study to ascertain whether this was an appropriate method of recording. I decided this was an appropriate method which would meet the purpose.

3.9 - Issues of Quality

3.9.1 - Piloting

Cohen, *et al*., (2011) argue that piloting increases reliability, validity and practicality of questionnaires. They identify a number of ways in which piloting can do this:

- Can help check clarity of questions
- Can give feedback on: validity of items, the operationalisation of constructs, the purposes of the research
- Check readability for the target audience
- Can give feedback on the type of questions and the format
- Can identify omissions and irrelevant items
- Can comment on attractiveness and appearance and layout
- Can identify time taken to complete
- Can comment of the level of difficulty, length of questionnaire
- Can help generate categories
- Give opportunities to try out coding

For the purpose of the current study I piloted the questionnaire and gained feedback to develop the questions and the layout. The pilot was given to six volunteers from the second year cohort. They had similar characteristics to the participants (Bell, 2010) but were not taking part in the study, as the study was to be given to the first year group. Comments on the layout led me to separate the questions into clear sections which had not been done in the original questionnaire. All questions were deemed to be readable, relevant and related to the research. The pilot showed that the questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete and this was the time allocated for completion during the study. The length of the questionnaire was viewed as appropriate and the comments box was viewed as worthwhile to enable elaboration. None of the pilot group suggested that there should be specific questions in the comments box. Feedback suggested, for part one, where the statements were presented, that there should be additional spaces on the rating scale for participants to add additional misbehaviours which they deemed to be relevant. This was added to the original. Feedback also suggested that an additional comments box at the end of the questionnaire would enable participants to add any overall comments. This was added to the questionnaire.

The same checklist taken from Cohen, *et al*., (2011) was used for the interview questions. Three preservice teachers in their third year of study were interviewed in the pilot and asked to give feedback. The feedback suggested that the interview questions were relevant to the study, were open-ended enough to allow for elaboration and were clear and comprehensible. There were no suggested changes to the interview questions. On completion of the pilot, however I did make some changes to the interview questions in light of the responses given. I added an additional comments section as the pilot had suggested that there were some additional comments which might add to the data. I also added a further probe to question one as the responses to this question had not really touched on behaviour management as I had expected. The

following was added '*in what ways, if any, has this (relationships) supported your class management'.*

The pilot also gave me the opportunity to time the interview and this enabled me to plan for the time of 30 minutes for each interview, as discussed above.

3.9.2 - Ethics

It is crucial in research to consider ethics and to ensure that all parts of a study are carried out ethically. I did not anticipate my study raising any significant ethical issues. All participants were adults and could give their informed consent. Participation was entirely voluntary and participants were informed that they could withdraw at any time. There were no questions asked which were unethical and at no time were participants being deceived. The research aims, purposes and procedures were fully communicated. Although it could be argued that I am in a position of power and this could influence responses, anonymity of the questionnaires enabled the participants to answer honestly (Bell, 2010) with no concern of reprisals. However, we cannot be sure that the participant will respond honestly. To mitigate against this the participants were specifically asked to answer as honestly as possible, and I informed the participants that the purpose of the research was to enable an understanding of the challenges of managing behaviour and hoped to find ways in which we could practically understand these so as to support preservice teacher development. Since this specific group are generally interested in the topic it was in their interest to answer honestly. Furthermore, I had developed a very good relationship with the preservice teachers over the course of the four years and they were familiar with me and were happy to participate.

As stated above this was a longitudinal study, but the design did not aim to examine responses at an individual (micro) level. I made this decision mainly for ethical reasons, as I was a tutor on the programme and did not in any way want to potentially be able to identify any participants.

Although this did not give me an opportunity to explore individuals as they progressed, I felt that this was the most appropriate approach in order to maintain an ethical position.

The interviews were not anonymous and the participants were well known to me. They were assured that the interviews would be treated confidentially. The aim of the interview was stated, although the participants were familiar with the aims as they had all engaged in the first study, and consent was gained before commencing the interview (Cohen, *et al*., 2011). Although it can be difficult to ensure anonymity especially with narrative accounts (Bell, 2010; Cohen, *et al*., 2011), once transcribed the data were anonymised and I was the only person aware of who had been interviewed. This meant that the responses could be from any 4th year preservice teacher who had completed the programme, making it less likely that a participant could be identified. It is acknowledged that because I am a tutor and lecturer on the programme that this can have disadvantages. However, the advantages outweighed the disadvantages, and this will be further discussed below.

In relation to the interview the question of power was addressed through not choosing participants who I had been involved in assessing and also through carrying out the interview once the cohort had successfully completed the programme. The interview itself and analysis of the data from the interviews would also indicate if participants had been reluctant to answer any of the questions, and might indicate lack of honesty if they all answered questions consistently in a way which put them in a positive light.

Furthermore, in relation to the subjective nature of the research, it was important to acknowledge my role as a researcher and recognise that the research was not an objective interpretation of reality, but a subjective interpretation of the perceptions of the participants. Moreover, I acknowledge that my own beliefs and experiences may influence my interpretation (Opie, 2004). It was therefore crucial that I presented all of the data and was openly transparent in discussing the analysis.

The study followed the University of Dundee's ethical codes and was approved by the ethics committee.

3.9.3 – Reliability, Validity and Trustworthiness

Depending on the research approach, reliability and validity can be described in different ways. In traditional, positivist terms, reliability relates to the extent to which findings can be substantiated through retesting, and validity describes the extent to which the research study measures what it has set out to measure, and that valid claims are being made about the findings (Cohen, *et al*., 2011). Furthermore, validity can be defined as internal and external. Internal validity concerns the extent to which the findings are directly derived from the data and are transparent, and external validity is the extent to which the findings can be generalised to the wider population (Guba and Lincoln, 1984).

On the other hand, constructivist/interpretivist views suggest that these terms are not applicable to qualitative designs. Guba and Lincoln (1984) suggest alternative ways of thinking about research, and this is in terms of trustworthiness. The criteria for trustworthiness are, credibility and transferability instead of internal and external validity; dependability instead of reliability; and confirmability instead of objectivity. These descriptions are useful in qualitative research studies because they acknowledge the subjective nature of the research, and depart from the view of research as a way of finding universal abstract truths, while maintaining a focus on rigour. Although other authors, describe validity and reliability in different ways, for example, Maxwell (1992), there are similarities in terms of the basic premise regards qualitative research.

The remainder of this section will discuss research approaches within the context of the discussion above, and in relation to the way in which the design and procedures of the current study attempted to achieve validity, reliability and trustworthiness.

Although case studies can be criticised in relation to their subjective nature, if all data are considered and analysis is transparent and rigorous

then the case study has much to offer as a research method. Nisbet and Watt (cited in Cohen, *et al*., 2011), identified the weaknesses which can be found in case study research and identify ways to avoid these. They suggest that the researcher must avoid distorting the data by emphasising some aspects and not others, or by being selective in reporting on the data, or over emphasising "detail to the detriment of the whole picture" (p.290). The researcher should avoid making bold claims, or seeking to look for data which verifies rather than refutes. This is where it was crucial for me be willing to falsify rather than verify my own view. Validity, according to Silverman (2005) can be achieved through ensuring that "findings are genuinely based on critical investigation of all the data and do not depend on a few well-chosen examples" (p.211), and Maxwell (1992) discusses this as descriptive validity in terms of factual accuracy, when analysing the data. In order to achieve accuracy, I have attempted to fully explore and analyse the data. The quantitative and qualitative results are fully presented. In this way the data are transparent and the analysis clearly demonstrates how the data were interpreted. It is acknowledged that while I have endeavoured to be as critical and analytical as possible, another researcher may interpret the data in a different way and come to different conclusions.

Researcher bias can influence the results and measures should be taken to minimise this. As discussed above, one way of minimising bias is to present all of the data, rather than being selective (Bell, 2010; Cohen, *et al*., 2011). This is consistent with Silverman (2005) who argues that the data must be treated comprehensively, as discussed above, and the researcher should actively look for deviant cases. In the current research this was achieved through exploring the differences in the interview responses of individuals.

In reporting on the data, I have attempted to ensure that the arguments are logical and clear (Punch, 2014), and are based directly on the data, while acknowledging that they are an interpretation consistent with

interpretivist and constructivist philosophy, which has already been discussed in relation to research approaches.

Respondent validation is another way of ensuring that the data are trustworthy, although it is not without its challenges, as respondents may change their minds about what they have said (Cohen, *et al*., 2011). While I did not formally seek respondent validation, during the interview I took notes in full view of all participants, and they were able to see everything that was being written. I also gave them the opportunity to read my notes and make any comments, directly following the interview. All of the respondents were satisfied with my notes.

A weakness which has been identified in the case study method is its inability to demonstrate validity. In order to ensure validity the case study needs to ensure that questions test what they mean to test (Punch, 2014). Questions need to fully explore the nature of the subject. In an attempt strengthen validity and increase trustworthiness I have used behaviours which have been identified by teachers and from research and underpinning theories (as identified in the literature). I kept the questions short and only gave a few statements. This was to ensure that participants did not have a burdensome task in answering. The wording used was everyday language rather than theoretical language. Furthermore, at the analysis stage I attempted to ensure that my interpretations were logically derived from the data.

In order to ensure reliability the case study must be replicable and capable of yielding the same results (Punch, 2014). By being transparent I was able to ensure that all questions and procedures could be retested. However, it is acknowledged that the purpose of qualitative research is not necessarily to create generalisable results, but to explore individual cases and interpret these in relation to the phenomena being studied (Opie, 2004). However, in relation to the qualitative data, it is important that the case has meaning in, and transferability to, the wider community (Silverman, 2005).

According to Punch, (2014) research should consider internal and external validity, (see also Guba and Lincoln, 1984; Silverman, 2005), the former through ensuring that arguments are logical and convincing and the latter through ensuring transferability. Punch discusses this in terms of the consistency among the methods, design and questions, and the current research has aimed to make this consistency clear, through discussing the ways in which the research 'fits together'. External validity has been achieved through considering how the research is transferrable and applicable to other contexts. This has been done through ensuring that the sample are characteristic of the wider population of preservice teachers, and that the questions are relevant to the factors being measured.

Another way of ensuring reliability is to ensure that the evidence is trustworthy or dependable (Guba and Lincoln, 1984; Punch, 2014). This was done through using participants who were studying teacher education at the time. Although they were relying on memory to some extent, by drawing on recent placements each time they completed the questionnaire, they were also answering questions about their opinions and beliefs. Also, by asking the same participants each year, the comparisons are reliable in a way that cross sectional research cannot achieve (Cohen, *et al*., 2011).

For study one, I drew on a whole case, the cohort of preservice teachers, rather than a sample of the cohort. This enabled more reliable data. Furthermore, given it was a longitudinal study, it meant that should any participant leave the programme or decide not to participate at any point then there would still be enough data to use to find reliable and valid patterns and themes (Cohen, *et al*., 2011). Using a smaller sample would also be more likely to skew results. As well as using the whole case to look at the general developments, it was also important to look at individuals as this permitted more in-depth analysis and could enable comparisons within and across individuals. This was achieved through study two, by interviewing a sample from the cohort.

There were measures taken to address validity (Wellington, 2000). For example, for all quantitative data the percentages, mean scores and raw scores were recorded. This enabled detailed analysis. Furthermore, although comparisons of categories could show evidence of differences among categories, individual misbehaviours were also compared across years to explore differences of misbehaviours within the categories.

I have drawn upon theoretical concepts and constructs, which enabled robustness. I have also built my study on other studies in the field to explore appraisals and attributions in relation to development. I have collected both quantitative and qualitative data to add strength to the study, and explored links among the data from different sections of the studies to offer a full analysis. I also acknowledge that there may be alternative reasons for the results, for example the results were based on chance or they may have been influenced by other variables. Furthermore, there are alternative interpretations of the data, or another theory might explain results more clearly (Cohen, *et al*., 2011).

Validity, or trustworthiness was also achieved through using well established analysis methods to interpret and analyse the data, as discussed below in reporting on the findings section.

3.10 - Reporting the findings

3.10.1 - Quantitative analysis - Study One

As discussed, for study one, a combination of quantitative and qualitative data were collected through a rating scale questionnaire with additional space for free narrative comments, and through interviews for study two. The quantitative analysis method will be reported first followed by a discussion of the qualitative analysis.

For the quantitative data, all data were collated and recorded for each part of the study. Raw scores from the rating scale were initially calculated as percentages and then mean scores were calculated. Scores for each category and each individual misbehaviour were compared for the whole

group over the four years. This enabled an initial exploration of the data to identify any general trends and patterns. Descriptive analyses were undertaken to explore comparisons as the cohort progressed through the four years of the programme.

Macro analysis (whole group level) was carried out across each year to identify differences year on year and also between year 1 and year 4 to explore differences between the early novice and the more expert preservice teacher. Micro analysis was carried out to explore the development of individual participants, through the interviews.

For the first part of study one, appraisals of unacceptability and challenge, the misbehaviours were categorised into groups of confrontational, disruptive and distracted, as discussed above. Analysis compared appraisals of unacceptability and challenge for each of these categories within and across year groups. Analysis of individual misbehaviours within the categories was also undertaken to identify any specific misbehaviours which may have indicated notable changes as preservice teachers make progress.

For the second part of the study, attributions and confidence, analysis explored the development of confidence over time. For attributions, the analysis explored the extent to which there are changes in the way attributions are made, in relation to children's misbehaviour.

For the third part of the study, the development of knowledge and skills, data were analysed through making comparisons across years to explore the perceptions of how knowledge and skills are learned and developed. These were linked to knowledge gained from university courses, professional reading and school experience. Each type was analysed separately to explore the extent to which they were individually valued.

3.10.2 - Qualitative analysis - study one and two

The qualitative data analysis comprised of recording the comments for each year group and categorising the narrative responses in themes, using thematic analysis which is discussed in detail below. This enabled

analysis not only of the extent to which preservice teachers develop in relation to how much they can elaborate and articulate their thinking over the course of the programme, but also enabled themes to be identified in relation to their thoughts and beliefs. Qualitative analysis enabled further insights into the beliefs and attitudes of the participants in relation to their appraisals, attributions, and knowledge/skills development to complement and elaborate on the quantitative data. Following initial categorisation of the main themes, these were then explored again and re-categorised to help increase dependability. Codes and themes are presented in the findings chapter.

I followed the procedures set out by Braun and Clarke (2006), as described below, with a focus on theoretical thematic analysis. This approach is underpinned by my theoretical interest in the way theories such as attribution theory or appraisal theory can explain perceptions and practices, and the literature on these topics has informed the questions being asked. It is acknowledged that this approach can result in less richness of the data as a whole, but it can give more in depth analysis of particular aspects of the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The codes and themes were common across both the comments and the interviews and within the analyses the same themes were used for both data sets.

Analysis of the comments and the interview responses was completed separately as the comments were responses from all years where the interviews were responses from the final year participants only.

Although Braun and Clarke (2006) warn against basing themes on the questions asked I initially did this, as I was mainly interested in aspects of the data relating to the areas of focus. However, responses to specific questions did not always fit into the theme of the question. For example, in a question about relationships, the responses might include emotional aspects, and therefore this was included in the theme of emotions (see appendix 7 for an example of initial coding for an interview). Further coding led me to refine the themes and codes as discussed below, in the findings section

In relation to my approach I also acknowledge that the responses are indications of the way in which individuals make sense of their experiences and the meaning they attach to these, rather than trying to find a truth or a fixed reality, as already discussed above in relation to philosophical perspectives. In this sense my approach sits comfortably with my own philosophy as discussed above and reflects the theories underpinning the research. For example, both attribution theory and appraisal theory acknowledge that it is the perspective of the onlooker which influences the responses rather than the reality of the situation, as discussed in the literature review.

The data set for the comments were all comments from year 1 to year 4, and the data set from the interviews were four interviews.

In order to take a systematic approach to analysis and to ensure that the analysis was robust, I followed the linear processes outlined by Braun and Clarke.

1. **Familiarise yourself with the data**
2. **Generate initial codes**
3. **Search for themes**
4. **Review themes**
5. **Define and name themes**
6. **Produce the report**

(Summary of Braun and Clarke's (2006) Phase in thematic data analysis, p 86)

The following gives examples of how I applied Braun and Clarke's process for analysis for the qualitative data from both the comments and the interviews.

- **Familiarise yourself with the data** – I read through all the responses from comments and from the interviews and transcribed them. I then re-read and initially looked for aspects which related to emotional responses, strategies used, most/least unacceptable/challenging behaviours, attributions, confidence and development and professional learning. I also looked for aspects which I had not initially expected, for example one

participant talked about values in relation to religious belief. From the initial familiarisation, I was able to gain an overall feel for the data and also to explore how, in the interview responses, individual responses to each question built an overall picture of the individual.

- **Generate initial codes** - From the initial familiarisation I was able to generate the initial codes. I assigned codes to phrases, which seemed to reflect their message, for example where a participant used words related to emotions I initially coded these as emotion. Following this I looked at the extracts and codes and further sub-divided these where I felt the identified codes could be more precise. For example, for emotions it was evident that there were different ways of describing emotions, such as positive emotions linked to positive behaviour and negative emotions linked to negative behaviours.
- **Search for themes** - Once I had completed this for every phrase/comment I then established the themes, as discussed below.
- **Review themes** - Although, initially I identified six themes, in reviewing the themes I decided that cognition was not a theme in itself but related to the way in which participants think about children and their motives, and in relation to confidence. I therefore discarded this theme and added the code to other themes which seemed more appropriate.
- **Define and name the themes** – The themes were finalised and named to give an overall sense of the main messages emerging from the qualitative data.
- **Produce the Report** - Finally, data were analysed and reported in relation to the research questions

3.10.3 - Summary

This chapter has justified and discussed the design of the study in relation to research methods literature, and in relation to previous studies. It has described the methodology, participants and procedures and has demonstrated the way in which the data were analysed. The following chapter will present, interpret and analyse the findings.

Chapter 4 – Findings

The literature review discussed behaviour management in relation to psychological theories of emotions, appraisals and attributions, drawing on research in education to support theories. It also considered models of expertise to explain how preservice teachers might develop their skills and understanding and concluded that experts behave in qualitatively different ways from novices and this was discussed in terms of development.

The focus, as discussed in the methodology, was to examine preservice teachers' development in relation to appraisals, attributions, confidence and professional learning. The quantitative data will be reported and analysed followed by the qualitative data. For study one, analysis of the quantitative data related to the appraisals will be offered first, then data for attributions and confidence. Following this, analysis of the final part of the study, professional learning, will be reported and analysed. For the qualitative data the comments from the questionnaires will be analysed first. Then the interview responses will be analysed in the following order, emotions, attributions, strategies, relationships and professional learning. The analyses overall, while maintaining a focus on each separate part, will draw together the sections throughout the discussion where there are consistencies and commonalities.

The main research questions are:

- How do preservice teachers appraise classroom behaviour and to what extent does this change over time?
- What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom behaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?
- What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing behaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

There is one set of the questionnaire and interview data which will not be included in this analysis, as I wanted to maintain a focus on appraisals and attributions in relation to professional learning and development. This was a section regarding the types of strategies which the participants had seen or used over the course of their programme. Although there is some analysis regarding strategies which will be reported, this was in response to an attribution question so has been included.

4.1 - Quantitative Data Analyses

For the first study, quantitative data were collected through a rating scale on a questionnaire as discussed in the methodology section. There were four sections in the questionnaire, and three of these will be discussed within this thesis. The first is related to appraisals, the second to attributions and the third to professional learning. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics. This chapter will report and analyse the data from each section in turn.

4.2 - Appraisals

For the appraisals section the main aim was to explore how different behaviours are appraised in relation to their unacceptability and challenge, and to examine the extent to which appraisals change over time as preservice teachers progress.

The following research question and sub questions were addressed in relation to appraisals of unacceptability and challenge.

RQ 1- How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ1 - Which misbehaviours are appraised as most/least unacceptable and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

SQ 2 - Which misbehaviours are appraised as most/least challenging and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

4.2.1 - Appraisals of Unacceptability

The following analysis will report on the data to answer the first sub question. Data were analysed by exploring the degree to which participants find behaviours unacceptable as they progress from year 1 to year 4 of their study (table 3).

Table 3 Mean scores for categories of behaviour and individual behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Confrontational				
Ignoring warnings / sanctions	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.4
Fighting - within or out-with class	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.7
Arguing with Staff	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.6
Refusing to do what is asked	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.5
Overall confrontational mean	4.7	4.6	4.4	4.5
Disruptive				
Interrupting	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.5
Distracting Others	4	4.2	4.1	3.9
Continually leave seat and wandering	3.9	3.9	3.6	3.5
Irrational Outbursts	4.1	4	3.6	3.6
Shouting Out	3.5	3.7	3.5	3.6
Overall disruptive mean	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.7
Distracted				
Being Off-task	3.1	3.5	3.2	3.2
Lack of Attention	3	3.1	3	2.9
Under achieving / Poor quality of work	2.7	2.9	2.4	2.9
Overall distracted mean	2.9	3.2	2.9	3

When comparing overall mean scores (table 3) it is evident that participants find confrontational behaviours the most unacceptable of the three categories, disruptive behaviours the next most unacceptable and distracted behaviours the least unacceptable. There is little difference in ratings as preservice teachers progress from year 1 to year 4.

In order to explore individual behaviours more closely percentages of responses were analysed for each of the categories.

Confrontational behaviours

The data are presented in tables 4, 5 and 6. The analysis explored the level of agreement/disagreement in relation to the unacceptability of each behaviour.

Table 4 Responses for unacceptable confrontational behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 Unacceptable (n=55)							
Confrontational Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Ignoring warnings/sanctions	58% (n=32)	40% (n=22)	2% (n=1)	0	0	0	4.6
Fighting	93% (n=51)	7% (n=4)	0	0	0	0	4.9
Arguing with staff	73% (n=40)	25% (n=14)	0	0	0	2% (n=1)	4.6
Refusing to do what is asked	62% (n=34)	35% (n=19)	4% (n=2)	0	0	0	4.6
Year 2 Unacceptable (n=50)							
Confrontational Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Ignoring warnings/sanctions	60% (n=30)	36% (n=18)	0	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.5
Fighting	94% (n=47)	6% (n=3)	0	0	0	0	4.9
Arguing with staff	74% (n=37)	20% (n=10)	4% (n=2)	0	0	2% (n=1)	4.6
Refusing to do what is asked	58% (n=29)	36% (n=18)	2% (n=1)	4% (n=2)	0	0	4.5
Year 3 Unacceptable (n=42)							
Confrontational Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Ignoring warnings/sanctions	48% (n=20)	43% (n=18)	5% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.3
Fighting	81% (n=34)	14% (n=6)	0	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.7
Arguing with staff	57% (n=24)	36% (n=15)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.4
Refusing to do what is asked	55% (n=23)	38% (n=16)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.4

Year 4 Unacceptable (n=47)							
Confrontational Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Ignoring warnings/sanctions	49% (n=23)	45% (n=21)	6% (n=3)	0	0	0	4.4
Fighting	83% (n=39)	13% (n=6)	0	0	0	4% (n=2)	4.7
Arguing with staff	64% (n=30)	32% (n=15)	4% (n=2)	0	0	0	4.6
Refusing to do what is asked	57% (n=27)	36% (n=17)	4% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	0	0	4.5

All year groups agree that each of the behaviours in the confrontational category are unacceptable with almost all participants agreeing or strongly agreeing. The figures indicate that there is little difference in responses as preservice teachers progress from year 1 to year 4 (table 4). The majority of participants had a view on the behaviour in this section in terms of their appraisals of unacceptability/acceptability and very few selected the unsure category.

Disruptive Behaviours

This section offers an analysis of the results for individual behaviours within the disruptive category.

Table 5 Responses for unacceptable disruptive behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 (n=55)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	14% (n=8)	53% (n=29)	22% (n=12)	7% (n=4)	4% (n=2)	0	3.7
Distracting Others	27% (n=15)	53% (n=29)	15% (n=8)	5% (n=3)	0	0	4
Continually leaving seat and wandering	31% (n=17)	40% (n=22)	15% (n=8)	15% (n=8)	0	0	3.9
Irrational Outbursts	38% (n=21)	47% (n=26)	7% (n=4)	5% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	0	4.1
Shouting out	13% (n=7)	53% (n=29)	9% (n=5)	24% (n=13)	0	2% (n=1)	3.5

Year 2 (n=50)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	14% (n=7)	66% (n=33)	10% (n=5)	8% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	0	3.8
Distracting Others	32% (n=16)	58% (n=29)	6% (n=3)	4% (n=2)	0	0	4.2
Continually leaving seat and wandering	20% (n=10)	56% (n=28)	12% (n=6)	12% (n=6)	0	0	3.9
Irrational Outbursts	28% (n=14)	48% (n=24)	20% (n=10)	4% (n=2)	0	0	4
Shouting out	16% (n=8)	54% (n=27)	14% (n=7)	16% (n=8)	0	0	3.7
Year 3 (n=42)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	7% (n=3)	71% (n=30)	12% (n=5)	7% (n=3)	0	2% (n=1)	3.7
Distracting Others	29% (n=12)	60% (n=25)	7% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.1
Continually leaving seat and wandering	24% (n=10)	36% (n=15)	24% (n=10)	14% (n=6)	0	2% (n=1)	3.6
Irrational Outbursts	21% (n=9)	40% (n=17)	24% (n=10)	12% (n=5)	0	2% (n=1)	3.6
Shouting out	2% (n=1)	64% (n=27)	24% (n=10)	5% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.5
Year 4 (n=47)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	9% (n=4)	57% (n=27)	15% (n=7)	17% (n=8)	0	2% (n=1)	3.5
Distracting Others	19% (n=9)	64% (n=30)	9% (n=4)	4% (n=2)	0	4% (n=2)	3.9
Continually leaving seat and wandering	11% (n=5)	47% (n=22)	28% (n=13)	15% (n=7)	0	0	3.5
Irrational Outbursts	13% (n=6)	40% (n=19)	38% (n=18)	9% (n=4)	0	0	3.6
Shouting out	11% (n=5)	53% (n=25)	21% (n=10)	15% (n=7)	0	0	3.6

The overall mean scores (table 4 and 5) indicate that, while disruptive behaviours are appraised as less unacceptable than the confrontational behaviours, the majority of participants agree/strongly agree that disruptive behaviours are unacceptable, and this is consistent as they progress from year 1 to year 4.

Behaviours in the disruptive category, where there is no direct defiance against the teacher, seem to be considered less unacceptable when compared to the behaviours in the confrontational category. However, it is notable that in this category there is a high percentage of participants who rate distracting others as unacceptable with 80% or more agreeing in all years, (table 5) and distracting others is rated as the most unacceptable, except in year 1 where irrational outbursts is appraised as more unacceptable. When comparing year 1 and year 4 there is little difference in the way participants appraise distracting others, although it is interesting to note that in year 2 and 3 this behaviour is appraised as more unacceptable than in year 1 and 4.

It seems evident that there is a change in the way continually leaving seat and wandering and irrational outbursts are appraised as preservice teachers progress. For continually leaving seat and wandering, 71% in year 1 agree/strongly agree that this behaviour unacceptable as compared to 58% in year 4, and the change seems to be evident between the first half and the second half of the programme. For irrational outbursts, there is a decrease year on year and 85% in year 1 agree/strongly agree that it is unacceptable as compared to 53% in year 4. It is also evident that for year 1 this is rated as the most unacceptable behaviour in the category, where for year 4 it is the least unacceptable.

Distracted Behaviours

Analysis of the percentages of the level of agreement were explored to examine appraisals of distracted behaviours and to make a comparison between this category and the other two discussed above.

Table 6 Responses for unacceptable distracted behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 (n=55)							
Distracted Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Being off task	2% (n=1)	47% (n=26)	18% (n=10)	29% (n=16)	4% (n=2)	0	3.1
Lack of Attention	5% (n=3)	35% (n=19)	24% (n=13)	27% (n=15)	9% (n=5)	0	3
Underachieving /poor quality of work	13% (n=7)	15% (n=8)	24% (n=13)	25% (n=14)	24% (n=13)	0	2.7
Year 2 (n=50)							
Distracted Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Being off task	14% (n=7)	48% (n=24)	20% (n=10)	10% (n=5)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	3.5
Lack of Attention	6% (n=3)	38% (n=19)	22% (n=11)	26% (n=13)	8% (n=4)	0	3.1
Underachieving /poor quality of work	10% (n=5)	32% (n=16)	14% (n=7)	24% (n=12)	18% (n=9)	2% (n=1)	2.9
Year 3 (n=42)							
Distracted Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Being off task	2% (n=1)	50% (n=21)	24% (n=10)	17% (n=7)	2% (n=1)	5% (n=2)	3.2
Lack of Attention	5% (n=2)	33% (n=14)	29% (n=12)	29% (n=12)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3
Underachieving /poor quality of work	2% (n=1)	24% (n=10)	21% (n=9)	19% (n=8)	31% (n=13)	2% (n=1)	2.4
Year 4 (n=47)							
Distracted Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Being off task	0	53% (n=25)	23% (n=11)	19% (n=9)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.2
Lack of Attention	0	36% (n=17)	32% (n=15)	26% (n=12)	2% (n=1)	4% (n=2)	2.9
Underachieving /poor quality of work	6% (n=3)	28% (n=13)	26% (n=12)	26% (n=12)	15% (n=7)	0	2.9

On the whole the distracted behaviours are appraised as the least unacceptable of all the behaviours and this is consistent as preservice teachers progress from year 1 to year 4 (table 6). There is a notable difference in the degree to which participants find behaviours unacceptable in this category and the other two, confrontational and disruptive.

Being off task is appraised as the most unacceptable, with lack of attention the next most unacceptable. In all years underachieving is appraised as the least unacceptable although for year 4 underachieving and lack of attention are perceived to be equally unacceptable when comparing the mean scores (table 6). What is evident in this category as opposed to the other categories is that there is more variation of responses across the rating scale (table 6), and it is notable that over 40% in all years disagree that underachieving/poor quality or work is unacceptable.

Percentages on the whole are lower in relation to unacceptability than for any other behaviours. However, it is still notable that for off task behaviours there are more than 50% of participants in year 2, 3 and 4 (49% in year 1) who agree/strongly agree that these behaviours are unacceptable (table 4), indicating that they are not purely judging unacceptability in relation to confrontational or disruptive behaviours, but think about the unacceptability of behaviours which relate to learning.

Appraisals of Unacceptability - Summary

This section has analysed appraisals of preservice teachers in relation to the level of unacceptability of behaviours and the extent to which this changes as they progress from year 1 to year 4. When taken as a whole, the results indicate little change in the perceptions of preservice teachers as they progress in relation to unacceptability of behaviour, except for irrational outbursts and leaving seat and wandering. Confrontational behaviours and those behaviours which indicate a directly disrupt others

are appraised as the most unacceptable and those behaviours which do not directly involve another as the least unacceptable (figure 5).

Behaviour Type	Behaviours	Level of Unacceptability
Directed towards Teacher	Ignoring Refusing Arguing	Appraised as the most unacceptable behaviours in all years (except for year 1 distracting others)
Directed toward pupil	Fighting Distracting Others	
Not directed to another but disruptive	Interrupting Leaving Seat Shouting out Irrational outbursts	Appraised as less unacceptable than those which are directed at another person (teacher/pupil) – except irrational outbursts for year 1
Not directed to another and not disruptive, but linked to learning	Off Task Inattention Underachieving	Appraised as the least unacceptable

Figure 5 – Behaviour types in relation to level of unacceptability

4.2.2 - Appraisals of Challenge

The following section will explore appraisals in relation to the level of challenge of behaviours for the same group of participants and will address sub question 2:

Which behaviours are appraised as most/least challenging and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

Data were analysed to explore the extent to which participants appraised behaviours to be challenging and any evident changes over time.

Table 7 Mean scores for categories of behaviour and individual behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Confrontational				
Ignoring warnings / sanctions	4.1	4.1	3.9	3.9
Fighting - within or out-with class	4.2	3.9	3.9	4
Arguing with Staff	4	4	3.7	3.9
Refusing to do what is asked	4.2	3.8	3.9	4.1
Total Mean Confrontational	4.1	4	3.8	3.9

Disruptive				
Interrupting	3.2	3	2.6	2.7
Distracting Others	3.4	2.9	2.9	2.8
Continually leave seat and wandering	3.3	3.1	2.7	2.7
Irrational Outbursts	4	3.7	3.5	3.5
Shouting Out	3.3	2.8	2.4	2.6
Total Mean Disruptive	3.4	3.1	2.8	2.8
Distracted				
Being Off-task	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8
Lack of Attention	3.2	3.2	3.1	2.9
Under achieving / Poor quality of work	3.2	3.2	2.9	3
Total Mean Distracted	3.1	3	2.9	2.9

In year 1 and 2, confrontational behaviours on the whole, are perceived to be the most challenging, followed by disruptive and then distracted. In year 3 and 4 confrontational behaviours are perceived to be the most challenging, but when comparing mean scores, disruptive behaviours are perceived to be slightly less challenging than the distracted behaviours (table 7). There is a decrease in the perceived level of challenge for the disruptive behaviours when comparing year 1 and year 4, indicating that as preservice teachers progress they find disruptive behaviours less challenging.

Although this is apparent when comparing categories there are individual behaviours within the disruptive category which are deemed to be as challenging as those in the confrontational category, for year 1. For example, when comparing the mean scores, irrational outbursts are perceived to be as challenging as arguing with staff (table 7).

In order to explore the individual behaviours more closely percentages of responses in each category were analysed. The confrontational category will be analysed followed by the disruptive category and finally the distracted category. Data are presented in tables 8, 9, and 10.

Confrontational Behaviours

Table 8 Responses for challenging confrontational behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 (n=54)							
Confrontational Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Ignoring warnings / sanctions	41% (n=22)	43% (n=23)	7% (n=4)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	4.1
Fighting - within or out-with class	57% (n=31)	26% (n=14)	7% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	4.2
Arguing with Staff	52% (n=28)	22% (n=12)	11% (n=6)	9% (n=5)	4% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	4
Refusing to do what is asked	46% (n=25)	35% (n=19)	7% (n=4)	11% (n=6)	0	0	4.2
Year 2 (n=50)							
Confrontational Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Ignoring warnings / sanctions	44% (n=22)	38% (n=19)	6% (n=3)	8% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	4.1
Fighting - within or out-with class	58% (n=29)	16% (n=8)	6% (n=3)	6% (n=3)	8% (n=4)	6% (n=3)	3.9
Arguing with Staff	44% (n=22)	34% (n=17)	8% (n=4)	6% (n=3)	4% (n=2)	4% (n=2)	4
Refusing to do what is asked	44% (n=22)	42% (n=21)	4% (n=2)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.8
Year 3 (n=42)							
Confrontational Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Ignoring warnings / sanctions	29% (n=12)	55% (n=23)	5% (n=2)	7% (n=3)	0	5% (n=2)	3.9
Fighting - within or out-with class	38% (n=16)	38% (n=16)	7% (n=3)	12% (n=5)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.9
Arguing with Staff	29% (n=12)	38% (n=16)	14% (n=6)	14% (n=6)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.7
Refusing to do what is asked	29% (n=12)	52% (n=22)	7% (n=3)	5% (n=2)	5% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	3.9
Year 4 (n-47)							
Confrontational Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Ignoring warnings / sanctions	13% (n=6)	70% (n=33)	11% (n=5)	6% (n=3)	0	0	3.9
Fighting - within or out-with class	32% (n=15)	51% (n=24)	4% (n=2)	11% (n=5)	0	2% (n=1)	4

Arguing with Staff	23% (n=11)	57% (n=27)	4% (n=2)	15% (n=7)	0	0	3.9
Refusing to do what is asked	30% (n=14)	55% (n=26)	13% (n=6)	2% (n=1)	0	0	4.1

There is a high level of agreement that the confrontational behaviours are challenging and little change over time in appraisals for the behaviours which are directed at the teacher. For fighting, when comparing year 1 and year 4 there is little difference, but there is a decrease in agreement regarding the level of challenge of this behaviour in year 2 and year 3.

Disruptive Behaviours

Table 9 Responses for challenging disruptive behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 (n=54)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	17% (n=9)	28% (n=15)	20% (n=11)	28% (n=15)	7% (n=4)	0	3.2
Distracting Others	15% (n=8)	44% (n=24)	6% (n=3)	31% (n=17)	4% (n=2)	0	3.4
Continually leave seat and wandering	17% (n=9)	33% (n=18)	17% (n=9)	30% (n=16)	4% (n=2)	0	3.3
Irrational Outbursts	43% (n=23)	33% (n=18)	11% (n=6)	7% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	4% (n=2)	4
Shouting Out	11% (n=6)	37% (n=20)	24% (n=13)	24% (n=13)	4% (n=2)	0	3.3
Year 2 (n=50)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	6% (n=3)	40% (n=20)	18% (n=9)	26% (n=13)	8% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	3
Distracting Others	12% (n=6)	26% (n=13)	16% (n=8)	38% (n=19)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	2.9
Continually leave seat and wandering	8% (n=4)	36% (n=18)	26% (n=13)	24% (n=12)	4% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	3.1
Irrational Outbursts	24% (n=12)	50% (n=25)	8% (n=4)	12% (n=6)	2% (n=1)	4% (n=2)	3.7
Shouting Out	4% (n=2)	34% (n=17)	8% (n=4)	46% (n=23)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	2.8

Year 3 (n=42)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	0	24% (n=10)	21% (n=9)	45% (n=19)	7% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	2.6
Distracting Others	7% (n=3)	36% (n=15)	12% (n=5)	36% (n=15)	7% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	2.9
Continually leave seat and wandering	2% (n=1)	29% (n=12)	21% (n=9)	36% (n=15)	10% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	2.7
Irrational Outbursts	17% (n=7)	50% (n=21)	5% (n=2)	17% (n=7)	5% (n=2)	7% (n=3)	3.5
Shouting Out	0	17% (n=7)	19% (n=8)	52% (n=22)	10% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	2.4
Year 4 (n=47)							
Disruptive Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Interrupting	0	25% (n=12)	23% (n=11)	45% (n=21)	6% (n=3)	0	2.7
Distracting Others	0	34% (n=16)	15% (n=7)	49% (n=23)	2% (n=1)	0	2.8
Continually leave seat and wandering	0	28% (n=13)	17% (n=8)	55% (n=26)	0	0	2.7
Irrational Outbursts	4% (n=2)	55% (n=26)	23% (n=11)	17% (n=8)	0	0	3.5
Shouting Out	0	23% (n=11)	17% (n=8)	60% (n=28)	0	0	2.6

In general, the disruptive behaviours are appraised as notably less challenging than the confrontational behaviours. There is one exception, irrational outbursts, which is appraised as the most challenging in this category and as challenging as some of the behaviours in the confrontational category, such as arguing with staff for year 1 and 3, and fighting for year 2.

For all other behaviours there is more variation across the rating scale and in some cases there is a higher level of disagreement than agreement (table 9). This is evident when comparing year 1 and year 4. In year 1 there is a higher level of agreement than disagreement that the behaviours are challenging, with approximately one third disagreeing where by year 4 there is a higher level of disagreement than agreement,

with over half disagreeing. For this category of behaviours, with the exception of irrational outbursts, there is more of a central tendency than was evident for the confrontational behaviours, where the results tended towards agree/strongly agree.

Despite this, when looking at individual behaviours and conflating agree/strongly agree responses, there are some aspects worth discussing. It is notable that irrational outbursts are the most challenging of the disruptive behaviours in each year, but there is a year on year decrease in the percentage agreeing. For continually leaving seat and wandering there is also a decrease in agreement year on year. For both of these behaviours it is evident that preservice teachers find them less challenging as they progress.

For interrupting, the percentages suggests that there is a difference between year 1 and 2 and year 3 and 4, suggesting that this change happens between the first half and the second half of the programme.

Overall the responses suggest that preservice teachers find the disruptive behaviours less challenging by the end of the programme, perhaps suggesting that they are becoming more confident in their ability to cope.

Distracted behaviours

Table 10 Responses for challenging distracted behaviours
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 (n=54)							
Distracted Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Being Off-task	4% (n=2)	30% (n=16)	22% (n=12)	39% (n=21)	4% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	2.9
Lack of Attention	11% (n=6)	41% (n=22)	17% (n=9)	24% (n=13)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	3.2
Under achieving / Poor quality of work	19% (n=10)	26% (n=14)	28% (n=15)	13% (n=7)	13% (n=7)	2% (n=1)	3.2
Year 2 (n=50)							

Distracted Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1	No Answer	Mean
Being Off-task	6% (n=3)	30% (n=15)	16% (n=8)	38% (n=19)	8% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	2.8
Lack of Attention	9% (n=5)	31% (n=17)	26% (n=13)	24% (n=12)	4% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	3.2
Under achieving / Poor quality of work	9% (n=5)	40% (n=20)	18% (n=9)	26% (n=13)	4% (n=2)	2% (n=1)	3.2
Year 3 (n=42)							
Distracted Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Being Off-task	2% (n=1)	36% (n=15)	19% (n=8)	31% (n=13)	5% (n=2)	7% (n=3)	2.8
Lack of Attention	7% (n=3)	43% (n=18)	12% (n=5)	33% (n=14)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.1
Under achieving / Poor quality of work	5% (n=2)	38% (n=16)	17% (n=7)	26% (n=11)	12% (n=5)	2% (n=1)	2.9
Year 4 (n=47)							
Distracted Behaviours	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**No Answer**	**Mean**
Being Off-task	2% (n=1)	26% (n=12)	19% (n=9)	53% (n=25)	0	0	2.8
Lack of Attention	2% (n=1)	34% (n=16)	17% (n=8)	47% (n=22)	0	0	2.9
Under achieving / Poor quality of work	0	47% (n=22)	19% (n=9)	25% (n=12)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	3

The mean scores indicate little change in appraisals over time for the distracted behaviours and, as with the disruptive behaviours, there is a central tendency evident. However, when comparing year 1 and year 4, for lack of attention it is evident that by year 4 the participants find this less challenging to deal with. Off task behaviour is perceived to be the least challenging of the distracted behaviours for all years but there is a slight difference in the level of challenge when comparing year 1 and year 4. Year 4 find this behaviour to be less challenging than year 1, indicating some change in the way they appraise these behaviours as they progress. There is less distinction when comparing the years for

underachieving/poor quality of work where there is little evidence of change over time. It is evident that for year 1 lack of attention is more challenging than the other behaviours. For year 4 underachieving/poor quality of work is the most challenging, again indicating that there are differences in the way behaviours are appraised as a function of progress.

Off task behaviour is perceived to be less challenging than the disruptive behaviours for year 1 and 2. In year 3 off task behaviour is appraised as more challenging than interrupting, shouting out and leaving seat. In year 4 off task behaviour is appraised as more challenging than interrupting and shouting out and equally as challenging as leaving seat.

Lack of attention in all years is appraised as more challenging than shouting out. It is also more challenging than interrupting and leaving seat and wandering for year 1, 3 and 4 and more challenging than distracting others for year 2, 3 and 4. For year 3 and 4 lack of attention is perceived to be more challenging than all the behaviours within the disruptive and distracted categories, with the exception irrational outbursts.

For year 1, underachieving is perceived to be less challenging than all the disruptive behaviours except interrupting where it is perceived to be equally as challenging. In year 2, 3 and 4 underachieving is perceived to be more challenging than the disruptive behaviours with the exception of irrational outbursts, and for year 3 for distracting others where it is perceived to be equally challenging.

Figure 6 below illustrates the differences in appraisals of challenge for distracted and disruptive behaviours.

Behaviour type	**Year**	**Level of Challenge**
Off-Task Behaviour	Year 1 and year 2	Less challenging than all disruptive behaviours
	Year 3	More challenging than interrupting, shouting out, leaving seat and wandering,
	Year 4	More challenging than interrupting, shouting out. Equal challenge as leaving seat and wandering,
Lack of Attention	Year 1	More challenging than leaving seat and wandering, interrupting, shouting out

	Year 2	More challenging than distracting others, shouting out
	Year 3 and Year 4	More challenging than interrupting, distracting others, leaving seat and wandering, shouting out
Underachieving	Year 1	Less challenging than all disruptive except interrupting where challenge is equal
	Year 2, 3 and 4	More challenging than all disruptive except irrational outbursts (except year 3 where challenge is equal to distracting others)

Figure 6 – Comparison of distracted and disruptive behaviours level of challenge

For this category the pattern is similar to the disruptive category where responses are more varied across the rating scale. It is notable that in year 1, in the main, distracted behaviours are less challenging than disruptive behaviours, with the exception of lack of attention, which is more challenging than leaving seat and wandering, interrupting and shouting out. By year 4 the distracted behaviours are appraised as more challenging than the disruptive behaviours, with the exception of irrational outbursts (figure 6). This might indicate development over time. As preservice teachers progress they begin to appraise behaviours associated with learning as equally or more challenging to deal with as behaviours which disrupt the flow of the classroom.

Appraisals of Challenge - Summary

When taken as a whole, the results indicate that there is little change in perceptions over time for the confrontational behaviours, and these are appraised as the most challenging. For the disruptive behaviours there is a notable difference over time, and as preservice teachers progress to year 4 they find disruptive behaviours on the whole less challenging. For the distracted behaviours there is little evidence of change over time and they are notably less challenging than the confrontational behaviours. It is interesting to note that the distracted behaviours are perceived to be more challenging than the disruptive behaviours for year 3 and 4, but this is due to the disruptive behaviours being appraised as less challenging rather than the distracted being appraised as more challenging.

4.2.3 - Summary of Findings - Appraisals

Analysis of the quantitative data suggest that there is little change in appraisals over time when the categories of behaviours are compared. Confrontational behaviours are rated as the most unacceptable and the most challenging, disruptive next, and distracted as the least unacceptable and challenging.

Within the confrontational category, for individual behaviours there is little change over time where the majority agree that each behaviour is both unacceptable and challenging.

Within the disruptive category there is little change over time when scores are compared for behaviours which involve another person, for example distracting others, However, behaviours which do not involve another, such as continually leaving seat and wandering, are appraised as less unacceptable as they progress. In terms of challenge the results show that participants find disruptive behaviours notably less challenging to deal with than confrontational behaviours. There is a change over time for appraisals of challenge for the behaviours within the disruptive category, where they are deemed to be less challenging in year 4 than year 1.

For the distracted behaviours, there is little change over time for both unacceptability and challenge. However, it is notable that for lack of attention and underachieving the level of challenge is greater than the level of unacceptability.

It seems that behaviours which are defiant and or antagonistic are the most unacceptable and challenging, and those which do not involve disrupting another person are deemed to be the least unacceptable and challenging. There is evidence to support a view that as preservice teachers progress, on the whole, they appraise distracted behaviours as equally or more challenging to deal with as disruptive behaviours.

4.3 - Attributions and Confidence

For this section the quantitative data related to attributions and confidence will be reported and analysed. The data were collected in order to explore the ways in which attributions are made and the extent to which this changes over time and to explore the confidence of preservice teachers as they progress. Three questions were asked related to attributions and four in relation to confidence.

The following research question and sub questions were addressed.

RQ2: What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?

SQ 1 - What are preservice teachers' perceptions of children's misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ 2 – What are preservice teachers' perceptions about how they manage misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ3 - How confident do preservice teachers feel about managing misbehaviour?

4.3.1 – Attributions

The first two sub questions will be addressed in the attributions section below and the third sub question will be addressed in the analyses of confidence.

Table 11 Percentage scores for Question 1 "*Children usually behave the same way most of the time and in most situations within school"*
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	5% (n=3)	31% (n=17)	29% (n=16)	20% (n=11)	13% (n=7)	2% (n=1)	2.9
Year 2	2% (n=1)	32% (n=16)	34% (n=17)	12% (n=6)	20% (n=10)	0	2.8
Year 3	2% (n=1)	50% (n=21)	17% (n=7)	29% (n=12)	2% (n=1)	0	3.2
Year 4	4% (n=2)	38% (n=18)	13% (n=6)	34% (n=16)	9% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	2.9

The mean scores (table 11) suggest that there is little change in thinking as preservice teachers progress from year 1 to year 4. The mean might suggest that the participants tend towards the middle in rating of unsure. This indicates uncertainty but when comparing the percentages, year 1 and 2 are less certain than year 3 and 4, suggesting that in the second half of their programme they seem to become more certain of their opinions and beliefs about the consistency of children's behaviour. In year 4, 43% disagree/strongly disagree that children behave consistently, as compared to 33% in year 1. This might indicate that as they progress they are more aware that children's behaviour may vary as a function of contextual factors.

Table 12 Percentage scores for Question 2 "*If children are not behaving it is the teacher's fault*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	4% (n=2)	13% (n=7)	27% (n=15)	29% (n=16)	25% (n=14)	2% (n=1)	2.3
Year 2	0	12% (n=6)	18% (n=9)	44% (n=22)	26% (n=13)	0	2.2
Year 3	2% (n=1)	7% (n=3)	29% (n=12)	48% (n=20)	14% (n=6)	0	2.3
Year 4	0	11% (n=5)	24% (n=11)	52% (n=24)	11% (n=5)	4% (n=2)	2.2

The mean scores indicate that there is little change in thinking across the four years of study with the majority of the participants disagreeing with this statement (table 12). When exploring percentages it is notable that less than 20% in any year agree with the statement. In terms of certainty, there is a notable percentage who are uncertain and this is consistent across all years.

Comparing this with the data from the first question it seems evident that, although approximately one third disagree that children behave consistently, they do not perceive the child's misbehaviour to be the teacher's fault. This seems to suggest that while they acknowledge that

children's misbehaviour can vary depending on the context they do not necessarily perceive this to be due teacher factors.

Table 13 Percentage scores for Question 3 "*The teacher can employ different strategies effectively for managing behaviour*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	71% (n=39)	24% (n=13)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.6
Year 2	76% (n=38)	20% (n=10)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	0	4.7
Year 3	71% (n=30)	29% (n=12)	0	0	0	0	4.7
Year 4	66% (n=31)	28% (n=13)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	4.5

It is evident that there are no notable differences between preservice teachers at different stages in relation to beliefs about the teacher's ability to employ effective strategies. In all years, the mean shows a tendency towards strongly agree, and this is consistent with percentages of agreement, suggesting that participants are confident that teachers can employ strategies to effectively manage behaviour, indicating positive attributions regarding the teacher in this respect. This is interesting in relation to the teacher's fault question where they do not attribute the negative behaviour of the children to the teacher but attribute the effective management of the behaviour to the teacher.

Taken together, the findings indicate that participants attribute the effective management of behaviour to teachers, in terms of using effective strategies, but do not necessarily attribute the inappropriate behaviour of children to teachers. However, as they progress they agree that children do not behave consistently. This might indicate that they are attributing the behaviour of the children to contextual factors, rather than attributing the inconsistency of children's behaviour to the teacher.

4.3.2 - Confidence

The following questions in this section explored levels of confidence as preservice teachers progress and will address the following sub question SQ3 - How confident do preservice teachers feel about managing behaviour?

Table 14 Percentage scores for Question 4 "*I don't worry about confrontations because I can deal with them*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	2% (n=1)	25% (n=14)	29% (n=16)	25% (n=14)	16% (n=9)	2% (n=1)	2.6
Year 2	6% (n=3)	28% (n=14)	32% (n=16)	22% (n=11)	12% (n=6)	0	2.9
Year 3	5% (n=2)	48% (n=20)	24% (n=10)	19% (n=8)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.3
Year 4	15% (n=7)	53% (n=25)	19% (n=9)	11% (n=5)	0	2% (n=1)	3.6

The mean scores indicate that as preservice teachers progress from year 1 to year 4 they worry less about confrontations and there is a steady decline over the four years (table 14). In year 1, 27% agree/strongly agree that they do not worry about confrontations as compared to 68% in year 4. Although they worry about confrontations less as they develop they do not seem to find them less unacceptable or challenging, as indicated by the rating on the questionnaire. This is consistent with year 4 interview responses regarding emotions, which will be discussed in the qualitative analysis section, where responses indicated that they are less influenced by emotions as they progress and they relate this to confidence.

Table 15 Percentage scores Question 5 "*I can deal with low level disruptions confidently*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	16% (n=9)	60% (n=33)	9% (n=5)	13% (n=7)	0	2% (n=1)	3.7
Year 2	26% (n=13)	70% (n=35)	0	4% (n=2)	0	0	4.2
Year 3	50% (n=21)	43% (n=18)	5% (n=2)	0	0	2% (n=1)	4.3
Year 4	57% (n=27)	36% (n=17)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	0	2% (n=1)	4.4

It is evident that preservice teachers feel confident that they can deal with low level disruptions at all stages of progress, with the majority agreeing/strongly agreeing with the statement (Table 15). However, the results indicate that there is a change from year 2 where over 90% from year 2 – 4, agree/ strongly agree they are confident as compared to 76% in year 1.

Table 16 Percentage scores for Question 6 "*I can see potential triggers before a challenging situation occurs*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	13% (n=7)	51% (n=28)	22% (n=12)	11% (n=6)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	3.6
Year 2	12% (n=6)	56% (n=28)	20% (n=10)	10% (n=5)	0	2% (n=1)	3.6
Year 3	21% (n=9)	57% (n=24)	17% (n=7)	0	0	5% (n=2)	3.9
Year 4	19% (n=9)	68% (n=32)	6% (n=3)	4% (n=2)	0	2% (n=1)	3.9

The mean scores indicate agreement across all four years (table 16). However, the percentages suggest that as preservice teachers progress, they become more confident about identifying potential triggers. In year 1, 64% agree/strongly agree, and by year 4, 87% agree/strongly agree. These results also seem to connect to the statement regarding confrontations where in year 1 they are more worried about dealing with confrontations than in year 4. In terms of anticipation of behaviours it may

be suggested that an ability to anticipate behaviour influences the extent to which they worry or vice versa.

Table 17 Percentage scores for Question 7 "*I get to know children quickly*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

	5	4	3	2	1	0	Mean
Year 1	25% (n=14)	55% (n=30)	11% (n=6)	7% (n=4)	0	2% (n=1)	3.9
Year 2	40% (n=20)	46% (n=23)	10% (n=5)	4% (n=2)	0	0	4.2
Year 3	69% (n=29)	26% (n=11)	2% (n=1)	0	0	2% (n=1)	4.6
Year 4	60% (n=28)	32% (n=15)	2% (n=1)	4% (n=2)	0	2% (n=1)	4.3

In the main there is agreement in each year that the participants get to know children quickly (table 17). However, it is notable when comparing the percentages that 92% in year 4 as compared to 80% in year 1 agree/strongly agree. In relation to the other questions in this section it seems that participants are confident in their ability to get to know children and this links to the qualitative data discussed in the next section. It also relates to the responses for question 6, where participants agree that they can identify potential triggers which might indicate they are aware of the situations which trigger responses, for individual children.

4.3.3 – Summary of Findings–Attributions and Confidence

This section has analysed and discussed the quantitative data from part 2 of study one. Findings indicate that that as preservice teachers progress they become more certain of their thinking in relation to the consistency of children's behaviour, indicating an increased understanding that children's behaviour may vary depending on the context. Although they do not attribute the misbehaviour of children to the teacher, they do attribute effective management to the teacher.

In relation to confidence, there is evidence to suggest that as preservice teachers develop that they worry less about confrontational behaviours

and are more confident in managing low level disruptions. As they progress they report being more able to anticipate behaviours and being more confident in their ability to get to know children. The analysis has enabled a general picture of trends in relation to what preservice teachers believe and think about children's behaviour and their own ability to manage it.

4.4 – Professional Learning

For this section the quantitative data related to professional learning will be reported and analysed. The data were collected in order to explore the types of support that are valued in managing behaviour in order to identify the ways in which preservice teachers develop their knowledge and skills and the extent to which this changes over time as they progress (table 18).

The following research question and sub questions were addressed.

RQ3: What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing misbehaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

SQ1 – To what extent do they value practical experience in supporting them and how does this change over time?

SQ2 – To what extent do they value theoretical knowledge in supporting them and how does this change over time?

Table 18 Percentage scores for "*These have helped me to deal with challenging behaviour*"
(5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=unsure; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree)

Year 1 (n= 54)						
	5	4	3	2	1	Mean
Professional Reading	20% (n=11)	46% (n=25)	13% (n=7)	17% (n=9)	4% (n=2)	3.6
School Policies	26% (n=14)	43% (n=23)	19% (n=10)	11% (n=6)	2% (n=1)	3.8
Lectures	13% (n=7)	57% (n=31)	13% (n=7)	15% (n=8)	2% (n=1)	3.6

Practical Experience	80% (n=43)	18% (n=10)	0% (n=0)	2% (n=1)	0% (n=0)	4.8
Observations	72% (n=39)	26% (n=14)	0% (n=0)	2% (n=1)	0% (n=0)	4.7
Year 2 (n= 50)						
	5	4	3	2	1	Mean
Professional Reading	36% (n=18)	44% (n=22)	10% (n=5)	10% (n=5)	0% (n=0)	4.1
School Policies	28% (n=14)	44% (n=22)	10% (n=5)	14% (n=7)	4% (n=2)	3.8
Lectures	26% (n=13)	46% (n=23)	12% (n=6)	12% (n=6)	4% (n=2)	3.8
Practical Experience	82% (n=41)	8% (n=4)	2% (n=1)	4% (n=2)	4% (n=2)	4.6
Observations	72% (n=36)	18% (n=9)	2% (n=1)	6% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	4.5
Year 3 (n=42)						
	5	4	3	2	1	Mean
Professional Reading	14% (n=6)	64% (n=27)	12% (n=5)	7% (n=3)	2% (n=1)	3.8
School Policies	29% (n=12)	40% (n=17)	12% (n=5)	14% (n=6)	5% (n=2)	3.7
Lectures	10% (n=4)	50% (n=21)	17% (n=7)	21% (n=9)	2% (n=1)	3.4
Practical Experience	86% (n=36)	14% (n=6)	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)	4.8
Observations	62% (n=26)	31% (n=13)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	4.6
Year 4 (n=47)						
	5	4	3	2	1	Mean
Professional Reading	17% (n=8)	57% (n=27)	13% (n=6)	11% (n=5)	2% (n=1)	3.8
School Policies	11% (n=5)	62% (n=29)	6% (n=3)	15% (n=7)	6% (n=3)	3.5
Lectures	4% (n=2)	49% (n=23)	21% (n=10)	26% (n=12)	0% (n=0)	3.3
Practical Experience	91% (n=43)	4% (n=2)	0% (n=0)	2% (n=1)	2% (n=1)	4.8
Observations	81% (n=38)	17% (n=8)	0% (n=0)	2% (n=1)	0% (n=0)	4.8

While all the supports are deemed effective in all years, it is evident that practical experience and observations are reported as the most effective ways of supporting challenging behaviour, with mean scores for both, for all years, indicating the highest level of agreement. There is little evidence of change in the way participants think about the effectiveness of practical experience and observations. Findings indicate that lectures are the least effective of all supports for year 2, 3 and 4, but more effective than professional reading or school policies, for year 1. When comparing year 1 and year 4 it is evident that lectures are perceived to be less effective for year 4. 70% in year 1 agree/strongly agree that lectures are helpful as compared to 53% in year 4. 66% in year 1 agree/strongly agree that professional reading is helpful compared to 74% in year 4, indicating that there may be some progress in thinking about how reading can support practice. In year 3 and 4 there is evidence that policies are perceived to be more effective than lectures in supporting behaviour management, where in year 1 and 2 they are rated similarly.

4.4.1 – Summary of Findings – Professional Learning

The findings indicate that while all supports are perceived to be effective, what is learned in practice is perceived to be the most valuable, with almost all participants agreeing that practical experience and observations are the most effective. When comparing year 1 and year 4 it is evident that lectures are perceived to be less valuable as they progress and by year 4 preservice teachers are more likely to draw on professional reading and policy to support them in managing behaviour.

4.5 - Qualitative Data Analyses

For the qualitative data, comments from the questionnaires and interview responses were analysed. These were analysed separately as the comments were from each year while the interviews were limited to four, year 4 participants, as discussed in the methodology. Data related to emotions will be analysed first, followed by analyses of attributions data. Data for strategies will then be analysed followed by analyses of data related to relationships and finally professional learning.

As discussed in the methodology chapter, it is acknowledged that analysis of qualitative data is a subjective interpretation and is relative to my own theoretical and practical knowledge and experience as a practitioner. I acknowledge that another researcher may interpret the data differently and come to alternative conclusions. I have included all data in an attempt to be completely transparent and have discussed the data which I feel are most relevant. I accept that another researcher may choose to categorise the themes differently and choose to analyse different extracts. However, I hope that in being transparent throughout, my interpretation and analyses will be clear and rigorous but also open to alternative views.

There were two aspects to the qualitative analysis. Firstly, the responses which related to the perceived level of inappropriateness and challenge were analysed. These were the responses from question 2 of the interview, where participants were asked which behaviours they found most/least challenging and appropriate/inappropriate. I wanted specifically to explore these in relation to the quantitative data relating to sub question 1 and 2. There was one comment from the questionnaire related to unacceptability and this comment has been included in the analysis.

All other responses, comments from the questionnaire and the interview responses, were coded and categorised into themes. I applied thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006) as discussed in the methodology chapter.

All responses from the comments and the interviews are presented in the appendices, and where they are included in the analyses they are colour coded for ease of reference.

Responses to inappropriate and challenging behaviours, will be reported and analysed first, followed by the remainder of the qualitative data which have been coded and themed, as discussed.

4.5.1 - Inappropriate and Challenging Behaviours

For this section the following research question and sub questions were addressed.

RQ 1 - How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ1 - Which misbehaviours are appraised as most/least unacceptable and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

SQ 2 - Which misbehaviours are appraised as most/least challenging and to what extent do appraisals change over time?

These were addressed through the interview questions, and it is acknowledged that although the sub questions were addressed it was not possible to determine change over time for the interview responses.

The raw data from this section can be found in appendix 8. The most inappropriate behaviours identified were those which are confrontational in nature, "***blatantly refusing to do work***", "***violent child***" (P1), *"**children telling the teacher what to do**", (P2), "**aggressive behaviour***", *(P3),* and these are consistent with the appraisals of challenge and with arguments that those which are directly defiant of the teacher are appraised as most unacceptable and challenging. However, the responses also indicate that low level behaviours can be challenging as well as responses indicate, "***low level persistent behaviour is more challenging to deal with***", "***children not doing their work is most challenging***" (P2). It is acknowledged that the responses may be due to priming, as the participants had completed the questionnaire, each year of study.

In relation to off task behaviours participant 4 suggests that "***keeping children on task***", is challenging because "***if they don't listen they don't know what they are doing then that's been a waste of time***". This builds on the quantitative data analysis where off task behaviour was perceived to be as

challenging as many of the disruptive behaviours by year 4 participants. However, participant 3 states that "***keeping them on task with time it becomes easier***", suggesting that experience is important. It is notable, that the comment from the year 1 participant suggests that behaviours which do not disrupt others are not unacceptable, "***some of these behaviours such as lack of attention will not cause disruption to others***", supporting a view that in year 1 there is more focus on behaviours which disrupt others where, by year 4 they may be also focused on behaviours which interfere with learning.

A response from a year 4 participant also may qualify the quantitative data related to irrational outbursts "***little disruptive things such as shouting out or being cheeky/answering back are more challenging than bigger scale issues such as storming out of class/throwing things***". The responses might also give further insight into why the confrontational behaviours are challenging. For example, participant 4 states that "***all out defiance***" is most challenging, and indicates the reason is that there is no answer as to how to deal with it as "***where do you go from there?***", and participant 1 suggests that refusals to do work is challenging because it "***takes all the attention and the onus is on the teacher***".

The response by participant 1 seems to indicate that where there is support, although the behaviour is still challenging, that it can be managed. "***It depends on the support from DHT/HT onus is often on the whole school with clear steps to take***". She also states that behaviour is least challenging "***when it is recognised by the school and others so there's more support***". It seems, for this participant, that the onus is not on the individual teacher as it is for refusals to do work as she suggests in relation to the most challenging behaviours.

There is similarity with the quantitative data where many of the inappropriate behaviours in the interviews are similar to those identified as unacceptable in the questionnaire, for example, "***refusing to do tasks***" and "***Shouting out***" (P1), "***ignoring***, ***shouting out, aggressive behaviour***" (P3) and "***interrupting each other***", were all rated as unacceptable behaviours in the questionnaire. However, the qualitative data gives further insight. For participant 1 and

participant 4 the inappropriateness of behaviour seems to be linked to the effect it has on them. Participant 1 states "***Shouting out is most annoying***" and participant 4 states "***interrupting each other, putting other children down that quite upsets me***," "***being off task annoys me***". The language used is related to emotions and indicates that the behaviours cause an emotional reaction for these participants. This is consistent with their responses to the emotional reactions to behaviours which will be discussed below.

4.5.2 – Summary of Findings - Inappropriate/Appropriate Behaviours

Analysis suggests that the most challenging behaviours were those which are directly defiant of the teacher and this reinforces the quantitative data. Findings indicate that confrontational behaviours are challenging because the teacher is responsible for managing them and where there are supports the challenge is reduced. Off task behaviour is challenging, supporting the quantitative data where year 4 rated this behaviour as more challenging than many of the disruptive behaviours. There is also some indication that inappropriate behaviours can influence emotions.

4.6 – Qualitative Data Analysis - Themes

The following figures (7 and 8) illustrate the process of coding for the responses following the initial coding of the interview responses. An example of the raw data from one interview with initial notes can be found in Appendix 7. Coding and themes are shown in figure 7 and the reviewed coding and themes are shown in figure 8, below.

Theme 1

Emotions

Code 1 – positive Behaviour linked positive to emotion

Code 2 – negative Behaviour linked to negative emotion

Code 3 – emotions linked to reactions/thoughts/ impact on self

Code 4 – development linked to emotion

Theme 2

Cognition

Code 5 – thinking through procedures

Code 6 – thinking about underlying reasons

Code 7 – knowing/ not knowing what to do

Code 8 – thinking about children's motives

Theme 3

Attributions

Code 9 – attributed to the teacher

Code 10 – attributed to the child

Code 11 – attributed to the parents/parenting/home

Code 12 – attributing to other factors

Theme 4

Relationships

Code 13 – knowing individuals /getting to know you activities

Code 14 – ethos/values

Code 15 - authenticity

Code 16 – relationships with children

Theme 5

Strategies

Code 17 – positive reinforcement

Code 18 – depends on child/class

Code 19 – depends on support

Code 20 – consistency

Theme 6

Development

Code 21 – confidence

Code 22 – autonomy

Code 23 – challenges – not seeing good practices

Code 24 – changes in emotional responses

Code 25 – practical experience

Code 26 – knowledge

Code 27 – learning and support – knowledgeable others, reading, lectures (university input)

Figure 7 initial coding and themes

On further analysis I felt that the codes within the theme of development linked the emotions theme, for example code 24. This was therefore added as a code in the theme of emotions and incorporated into code 4. The responses linked to development seemed to be related to professional learning so professional learning replaced development as a theme. Within this theme the codes 23, 25, 26, 27, seemed to sit more comfortably. One code in the initial theme of development which did not seem to fit was autonomy so I kept this within the theme of professional learning because it seemed to link mainly to experience and therefore related to this theme most appropriately.

Cognition was changed to thinking as this seemed to capture the codes more clearly. As a result of this change I removed code 7, knowing/not knowing what to do, as this seemed to be linked to confidence. Therefore, responses relating to this were coded under confidence. In further reviewing the theme of thinking, it seemed apparent that the codes were also linked to other themes. Code 5 linked to strategies, being focused on procedures, and codes 6 and 8 linked to attributions as they both related to the perceptions of underlying reasons and motives. Thus, the theme of thinking was removed.

Figure 8 below shows the revised codes and themes which were used for analysis.

Theme 1

Emotions

Code 1 – positive behaviour linked positive to emotion

Code 2 –negative behaviour linked to negative emotion

Code 3 – emotions linked to reactions/thoughts/ impact on self

Code 4 – development linked to emotion

Theme 2

Attributions

Code 5 – thinking about underlying reasons

Code 6 – thinking about children's motives

Code 7 – attributed to the teacher

Code 8 – attributed to the child

Code 9 – attributed to the parents/parenting/home

Code 10 – attributing to other factors

Theme 3

Strategies

Code 11 – depends on the child

Code 12 – depends on the class

Code 13 – depends on support from others

Code 14 – Consistency

Code 15 – Positive strategies

Theme 4

Relationships

Code 16 – knowing individuals /getting to know you activities

Code 17 – ethos/values

Code 18 - Authenticity

Code 19 – Rapport/Affinity

Theme 5

Professional Learning

Code 20 – confidence/ knowing what to do

Code 21 – challenges/ hindrances to learning

Code 22 – practical experience

Code 23 – knowledge

Code 24 - Learning and support – more knowledgeable others, reading, lectures (university input)

Figure 8 Reviewed themes and codes

Within this section the remainder of the qualitative data from the comments and the interviews will be reported and analysed in the following order, emotions, attributions, strategies, relationship and professional learning. The raw data from comments and interviews can be found in appendices 9–17. Extracts from the responses, which are colour coded, will be discussed.

4.6.1 - Theme 1 - Emotions

The data were analysed to explore the ways in which emotions are influenced by appraisals and particularly in relation to how they influence the way in which participants report on how they respond to behaviour management issues.

The following research question and sub questions were addressed.

RQ1: How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ 3 - To what extent are appraisals of misbehaviours influenced by emotions?

SQ 4 - To what extent do appraisals influence responses to behaviour management issues?

First, the responses from the comments are reported and analysed (appendix 9). Then responses for the interviews will be reported and analysed (appendix 10).

4.6.2 – Comments - Emotions

Comments related to negative emotions (code 2) were in response to the question '*I don't worry about confrontations because I can deal with them'*. There were few comments related to emotions, and none from year 4. However, at least one comment from each of the other years, states that they worry about confrontations, and there is little evidence to support a view that views change in this respect. However, in this category there seems to be increasing refinement in thinking as they progress. The participant in year 1 states ***"I worry about confrontations despite being able to handle most situations relatively well",*** and in year 2 one participant states, ***"I still worry about behaviour management situations".*** In year 3 one participant states "***I worry but when they arise I can deal with appropriately***" There is a

difference between the year 1 comment and the year 3 comment. The comment suggests that the year 1 participant is confident in handling most situation but not confrontations where the year 3 participant is confident in handling confrontations despite being worried about them.

Another year 3 participant states ***"I think all teachers feel worried about certain confrontations as each child is different you never know what to expect"*** which seems to suggest that this participant has some insight into the complexities of behaviour management in respect of individual children. Another comment "***Much easier in a rural school***" suggests that the participant is more aware of contextual factors. These types of responses are not evident in year 1 and 2 comments. This may again indicate a refinement in thinking where context is acknowledged as a factor with regard to emotional responses related to behaviour management.

Comments regarding impact from the questionnaire related to unacceptability and challenge. For year 2 and 3, comments suggest that negative behaviour can impact negatively on the teacher and others in the class. There are no comments from year 1 or year 4 participants for this aspect.

Where a behaviour impacts others there is a sense that this is judged to be unacceptable "***when other children are affected by the certain behaviours it can become unfair and create a negative learning environment***" (year 3), and can cause emotional reactions "***I find it very frustrating when pupils talk over other pupils***" (year 2).

One participant indicates that disruptive behaviours can be dealt with by taking action, but a confrontation with the teacher is challenging because it is personal. "***If a child is distracting others they could be moved. However, behaviours such as arguing with staff can be a lot more difficult to deal with and can feel quite personal at times***" (year 2). From the limited data it seems that where a behaviour affects another person then it is deemed to be more unacceptable and challenging. Where it is directly defiant it is taken personally and is more difficult to manage. The comments reinforce the points raised in the quantitative analyses, where it was argued that impact is more acute when the behaviour is perceived to be directed to the teacher.

Comments Summary

The comments, though few in number, have given some insights and indicate some evidence of refinement in thinking. From the participants who did comment, the responses indicate that behaviours which affect others might be viewed as unacceptable/challenging and where they are directly defiant of the teacher they might be deemed more challenging than those which disrupt the flow of the class. There is also evidence of refinement in thinking related to the way in which worry is articulated when discussing confrontational behaviours.

4.6.3 – Interview Responses - Emotions

The next section will consider the interview data, from the four, year 4 preservice teachers. All responses from the interviews related to emotions are included in appendix 10. Four codes were identified and responses will be analysed below.

Positive behaviour linked to positive emotions

Positive behaviours are discussed in relation to positive emotions. Two Participants responded. "*When children are behaving appropriately you feel* ***satisfied, nice, happy***" (P1), "*When they are good… I think I* ***feel more warm*** *towards them*" and "***I feel grateful***" (P 4).

Negative behaviours linked to negative emotions

Negative behaviours are discussed in relation to negative emotions, and all participants commented. "*When they are not behaving appropriately I feel* ***angry, emotional***" (P1). This indicates that the misbehaviour of the children influences emotions. For the negative emotions there are a number of responses which can be explored more closely. Although they all discuss negative behaviours in relation to negative emotions the responses vary from feeling very stressed to being able to regulate emotions. For participant 1 the negative behaviour and emotional response seems to have a significant impact, "***feel I can't get through I cry*** *how do I deal with this. I look for solutions.* ***I feel helpless***" and "*I feel* ***totally stressed out****, what will other*

people think" (P1). Participant 3 also describes her experiences in relation to emotions and the impact the behaviour has on her emotional state "*I **react emotionally**, get **angry**. I Feel **worried, angry, frustrated**; initially get **anxious***". However, she acknowledges that this is related to lack of experience. Responses from both participants seem to suggest that children's negative behaviours have a significant emotional effect on them. Participant 1 also uses emotional language in relation to fear for the children, stating "***I was scared for the children***" when describing her feelings in relation a child's aggressive behaviour.

There seems to be a difference in the way participant 2 responds, and although this participant states similar emotions such as "***annoyed, frustrated and angry***", it is discussed in relation to low level behaviours, and when discussing challenging behaviour the participant reports that even when emotions are felt they can be regulated "***I don't get angry, I act calm***". Similarly, participant 4 discusses emotions in relation to low level behaviours, such as forgetting things, and "***being off task***" and uses the phrases "***upsets me, annoys me***". These results link well to the next category identified within the theme, impact on the self.

Emotions and the impact on the self

The findings indicate that for three of the four participants, negative emotions linked to negative behaviour can have a detrimental effect on the individual and self-belief, "***when I told the children I was leaving he said "good" and I felt emotional, I was hurt because I thought he didn't like me and I had tried so hard. I blamed myself and feel sad and upset***" (P4). Participant 1 directly relates emotion to the personal which seems to suggest that she understands her emotional reactions in relation to the impact on the self. "If you ***take it personally then you get emotional and negative***". This is consistent with her response "***he doesn't like me***", and the responses related to anger and development, "***in first year I felt more angry, why don't they like me, why are they doing this to me***" where she describes the child's behaviour in respect of the personal impact on the self. This contrasts with the responses

from participant 2, which suggests that where misbehaviour is viewed more objectively the responses to the behaviour will be different as evidenced in the comment, "***I'm quite calm. I found out the root cause then deal with reason***". This response might suggest that behaviour can be dealt with more effectively when emotions are regulated and the underlying reasons are explored rather than linking the behaviour to whether the child likes or dislikes the teacher. It seems then that there is a link between emotions and self-belief and self-confidence, and negative behaviour can impact on this. Participant 3 does believe the child's behaviour impacts on her, and describes personal emotions in response to inappropriate behaviour "***How I feel depends on the child***– ***are they usually like this, maybe this isn't very professional but a bit hurt,***" but there is little indication that she has an understanding of the personal impact of her emotions. However, it does suggest that her emotional feeling is contingent on the child, and that she is not in control of her emotions. She also states that when children do behave she states "***I feel I owe them something***." and "***I like them a lot more***". Her emotions seem to be dependent on the child rather than stable.

The response from participant 4 indicates that the behaviour is taken personally. "***I thought he didn't like me and I had tried so hard***". She also suggests that the impact can have a fairly long lasting effect "***When I go home it doesn't matter about how the rest of the day went, if I had a really good lesson or not I feel upset that this has been a bad day. I tend to look on the negative side.***"

In summary, there seems to be a difference in the way the impact is described even when the same emotions are used to describe how the participants feel. The findings, however, indicate that development can influence thinking and emotional responses and this will be discussed below in relation to the responses.

Development linked to Emotions and Confidence

Although the majority of responses indicate that children's behaviour can influence emotions, it is evident from the final data set in this theme that

emotional experiences change in a positive way as preservice teachers develop. It is interesting that no comments were made by participant 2 in relation to this aspect. However, this is not surprising given the responses from this participant did not indicate a lack of confidence or negative emotions in dealing with behavioural issues.

Development is discussed by three participants in relation to taking children's behaviour personally and in relation to confidence. Two are in relation to not taking it personally, "***initially you doubt yourself and take it personally, initially I cried. In first and second year but then you are more confident and don't take it personally***" (P3). The personal impact also has negative effect on the way they think about the child. Participant 1 relates negative emotions to negative feelings about the children and this is significant, "***feeling I hate the kids I don't like them take it personally, why are they doing this to me and why don't they like me***". However, this participant discusses her ability to detach from the personal as she progress, "***by 4th year don't take it personally…You take things personally in first and second year by third year you…realise it's not personal***" (P1).

Confidence is discussed by three participants. Participant 4 states "***lack of confidence in first year… lack of confidence in front of teachers. By third/fourth year I was more confident***". For this participant confidence is linked to concern about what the teacher might think, where for participant 1 it is related to the decision made. "***By third and fourth year …more confident in your decisions***".

Participant 3 relates confidence to experience, "***as confidence grows you get less anxious because you've got more experience of different situations***" and to the impact of the emotions "***I changed from first year. I was scared*** *I just don't know what to do, how to manage kids -* ***but I'm not scared now***".

In the main development is linked to the emotions, and this changes as the participants become more experienced. For example, participant 1 states, "***in first year I felt more angry.***" Participant 3 and 4, also relate confidence to emotions, Participant 3 states, "***the first time it's embarrassing but you learn to deal with it and become more confident,***" and participant 4 reports "***in***

***first year I felt nervous, self-conscious.*"** The former indicates that the emotion is directed at an 'other' while the latter link to self-consciousness, which is discussed in relation to lack of confidence. It seems that the emotion of anger is directed to another where emotions such as embarrassment and nervousness are linked to feelings about the self.

Participant 1 and 4 also link leniency to emotions and development in relation to fear of not being liked. "***In first and second year you want the kids to like you and you're too soft. By third and fourth year you're harder***" (P1). Participant 4 states "***I used to be quite lenient in case they didn't like me, now I know they still like you***" This reinforces both these participants' responses with regard to the personal impact felt when a child does not behave appropriately and is consistent with their responses in the 'impact on self' section, in relation to the children 'not liking them'.

The responses seem to indicate that emotions and taking misbehaviours personally are linked, and this seems to be related to inexperience.

All participants, except participant 2, discussed emotions in terms of the impact on the self in relation to self-belief and self-confidence and how this changes with experience. It is notable that the responses from participant 2, are fundamentally different from the other three, where this participant's responses suggest little emotional impact of misbehaviour.

4.6.4 – Summary of Findings - Emotions

In summary, the findings indicate that there is a link between children's behaviour and teachers' emotional reactions, and where behaviour is taken personally it seems to have more of an effect on emotions than when it is not taken personally. Where emotions are influenced by children's behaviour there is evidence to suggest that they impact on feelings of helplessness and influence feelings about the self and others. However, findings indicate that as preservice teachers develop, they take behaviour less personally and this enables them to respond on a cognitive level and this is linked to confidence. This also seems to have a positive effect on the way in which they think about themselves and the children. Within these findings there is some support for

the view, posited in relation to the quantitative data, that although preservice teachers worry about confrontational behaviours, as they progress they refine their thinking and are more confident in their ability to deal with them.

The following section will present and analyse the qualitative data from the attributions theme, drawing on responses from the comments and interview responses.

4.6.5 - Theme 2 – Attributions

For the analysis related to the attributions theme, comments related to the unacceptability/challenge section of the questionnaire will be considered first. Then responses for the interviews will be reported. All extracts discussed are colour coded throughout the narrative for ease of reference.

The data were collected in order to explore the ways in which attributions are made and the extent to which these change over time.

The following research question and sub questions were addressed.

RQ2: What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?

SQ 1 - What are preservice teachers' perceptions of children's misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ 2 – What are preservice teachers' perceptions about how they manage misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

SQ3 - How confident do preservice teachers feel about managing misbehaviour?

4.6.6 – Comments – Attributions

Six codes were identified within this theme. All comments acknowledge that behaviours are dependent on a variety of factors and cannot simply be described as unacceptable/challenging. It is also evident that there are many more comments offered by participants in year 4 than year 1 (Appendix 11).

Attributed to the Teacher

Twenty one comments attributed the children's behaviour to the teacher. When comparing year 1 and year 4 it is evident that there is more reference to the teacher's fault for year 4. In both year 2 and year 4 one participant acknowledges that the children might behave differently depending on the teacher. In year 2 the participant states "***Pupils would behave amazingly with one RCT teacher but not another***" and another in year 4 states "***children can behave very differently depending on the teacher they have"*** However, by year 4 there seems to be more of an understanding that, when this is the case, they need to reflect on how they might be contributing to the behaviour. "***If a child behaves for another teacher but not for you then you need to be reflective in why this may be***".

Where attributions were made to the teacher the main factor identified was in relation to effective teaching and learning, illustrated by the following comments, "***teacher's fault if they are bored/disengaged (the children)***" and "***quality/achievement could be improved/assisted by teaching***" (year 1), ***"sometimes the teacher can be at fault (setting up a task)",*** where "***work is not relevant and engaging***" (year 2), "***If lessons are not engaging can lead to misbehaviour***", "***could be that the lesson is not engaging and therefore it is the teacher's fault***", "***if you provide children with stimulating lessons then disruptions and challenging behaviour is less likely to occur***", "***depending on how engaged the child is in the learning/situation***" (year 4). One participant in year 4 stated that "***being off task or having lack of attention may relate more to teaching/learning than behaviour***". This may indicate why distracted behaviours on the whole are appraised as less unacceptable and challenging, as they are not perceived as behavioural issues in the way that disruptive and confrontational behaviours are.

Although the majority of comments agree that the teacher is responsible there are some which acknowledge that some children have issues which the teacher is not responsible for and therefore are difficult for the teacher to manage. A year 2 participant alludes to this, "***sometimes it can be the teacher's fault, other times not***", but a year 4 participant articulates this

further, "***depends – you should be able to act on issues but some may be very deep seated and so have long term issues to cope with!***" This seems to indicate some sophistication in thinking where it is acknowledged that the teacher is responsible but there are times when the behaviour is too challenging. This is consistent with another year 4 response, "***Re teacher's fault – relates to needs of class and support, but mainly lies with the teacher***", where it is acknowledged that the teacher has ultimate responsibility for managing the children's behaviour.

Findings indicate that as these preservice teachers progress they become more insightful in relation to their responsibility for creating and maintaining appropriate behaviour. This is notable in the comments made by the participants in year 4 and this is discussed in relation to teacher attitude, "***Teachers need to consider their attitude***" and "***If the teacher is not interested in their class and the children***," and teacher authority. "***If a teacher is seen as 'soft' they will take advantage and misbehave***".

Attributed to the Child

Thirty one comments were attributed to the child and two comments indicated that this might be due to the child's attitude, "***when they have no respect"*** (year 2) and "***When the behaviours are dependent on the child's attitude"*** (year 4).

All other comments acknowledge that individual needs should be considered, as indicated by the comment from a year 3 participant, "***what can be seen as unacceptable for one child can be seen in a different light for another child especially with additional support needs***". Overall, the comments attributed to the child indicated understanding that the behaviour is dependent on individual needs, rather than blaming the child and seem to indicate that although the behaviours may be unacceptable there is a perception that there are underlying reasons for these. "***I believe the above*** (behaviours in questionnaire) ***are unacceptable however there could be reasons behind the child acting this way therefore you need to manage every child according to their needs"*** (year 2).

The majority of the comments suggested that the appraisal of unacceptability and challenge depends on specific additional support needs of the child, such as "***ADD/ADHD***" (year 2), "***behaviours may be due to additional/specific needs***" (year 3) and "***some children may have conditions which cause them to do some of the above***" (year 4).

In the main, comments suggest that appraisals of misbehaviour are dependent on individual children, and while comments from participants in year 1, 2 and 3 indicate that they are aware that children have individual needs, comments from participants in year 4 exemplify this in relation to the rating scale. "***All opinions are based on individual children there are no generics***" and another suggests that the responses on the rating scale cannot be fully answered as "***answers would vary depending on the individual child and their specific needs***". These comments seem to suggest that by year 4 at least, participants are aware that responses must be tailored to individuals.

There seems to be a distinction between intentional and unintentional behaviour and mainly the behaviour when attributed to the child is viewed as unintentional, and there is little mention of the child being to blame except for one comment "***so this is not an unacceptable behaviour unless it's deliberate***" and the comments above related to the child's attitude. The main pattern emerging from the comments is that each child is different and many have individual reasons for their behaviours. It is therefore acknowledged that the same behaviour will be viewed differently in relation to how unacceptable it is deemed to be, depending on the child. This necessarily implies that the teacher would have to know the child. The code linked to knowing the children is consistent with this and will be discussed in the section on relationships.

Attributed to parents/background

Sixteen comments were attributed to background/parents. Comments were made in all years indicating an understanding that the children are not completely responsible for their behaviour. "***Challenging family background***" (year 1), "***children all have different backgrounds so different behaviours should be expected from each child***" (year 2) "***home environment – learnt***

behaviour" (year 3) and "***Depends on the background***" (year 4). Although they acknowledge background or issues at home may influence the behaviour they do not express this in a negative way, but acknowledge it as a factor to be considered, and this resonates with the comments regarding attributions towards the child as discussed above. There is also a sense that the behaviour is perceived to be unintentional and this is exemplified by a year 1 comment "***being off task may be a result of something happening at home***" and a year 4 comment, "***There may be other reasons for poor quality of work like issues at home so the child might not be purposefully putting no effort in***".

There is no indication that there are changes to the way in which attributions are made to the background as the preservice teachers develop.

There is acknowledgement that parents have responsibility for their children's behaviour, and misbehaviour can be attributed to the parents, as participants state, "***Some behaviour issues are completely out of the teacher's hands. You can't stop what's going on at home***", ***"If parents don't care it's hard to have behaviour management of a child"*** (year 2), and ***"they need to be dealt with early on by the parents"*** (year 3). These comments suggest that the parents are ultimately responsible. However, another year 3 participant comments, ***"parents should be involved***" indicating that the school and parents can work together, and it is about joint responsibility. Another comment which suggests that the responsibility is not attributed to one factor alone, "***very much a mixture of the child (and their background) and the relationship with the teacher that influences behaviour***" and this indicates that although the background may affect behaviour the teacher can also have an effect, as discussed in relation to the teacher.

Thinking about Underlying Reasons

Eight comments attributed children's misbehaviour to underlying reasons. Participants acknowledge that although children are all different and teachers need to respond to this in a general way, individual children's behaviour can change as a result of an event or situation which has recently occurred, and

comments illustrate this. "***Children may react to things differently on a daily basis this can depend on situations at home***" (year 2) and "***A child's circumstances can rapidly change and have an impact on a child's behaviour***". This suggests that even though participants acknowledge individual differences they also identify differences in behaviour within individual children. There seems to be a difference in how this is articulated, in different years. In year 1 participants tend to discuss it in terms of external influences such as the weather or time of day. "***Behaviour differs greatly depending on the time of day, the weather seems to make a difference too***". However, by the time they reach year 2, 3 and 4 they discuss these in terms of affective influences as stated by a year 2 participant "***current situations dictate behaviour (divorce, new baby etc.)***", a year 3 participant, "***Previous placement I had some very unpredictable behaviour. Often depended on how they came in in the morning***", and a year 4 participant ***"their mood may differ due to events that have happened prior to coming into class"*** The comments also seem to suggest that the teacher is responsible for identifying these changes in behaviour.

Attributed to the Context

Eleven comments were made for this aspect. A number of comments suggest that the context is important when appraising the extent to which behaviours are unacceptable/challenging. While shouting out or interrupting may be generally viewed as unacceptable there are times when this is an acceptable behaviour and this is acknowledged by all of the participants who commented. All comments across the years use the phrase "it depends". For example, "***depends on circumstances if there is an imminent problem interrupting may be acceptable***" (year 1), ***"it depends on the scenario***" (year 2), "***depend on circumstances e.g. shouting out (excited and engaged in a task)***" (year 3), and ***"Shouting out depends on the type of lesson"*** (year 4). These all indicate that there are times when behaviours which are generally viewed as unacceptable can be acceptable, and seems to indicate that it is challenging to

rate the statements categorically. There is no indication that the thinking changes over time.

Non-specific Attributions

Although the majority agree the behaviours in the questionnaire are unacceptable they all acknowledge that there are reasons for children's inappropriate behaviour. One comment states that the level of unacceptability will depend on the reasons but year 2 comments indicate that while there may be reasons, they still consider the behaviours unacceptable. "***There could be reasons*** *behind why children do the above however* ***regardless of that I agree that those behaviours are unacceptable***" (year 2), "***I agree that all of them are unacceptable however some of them can be more likely to be due to external factors***" (year 2).This contrasts with year 3 and 4 comments where they do not completely agree that the behaviours are unacceptable indicating a level of insight in suggesting that the level of unacceptability is not universal. The "***level of unacceptable depends on reason behind misbehaviours***" (year 3). "*Reflecting on the reasons behind some behaviours such as lack of attention, ignoring warnings/sanctions. While I feel* ***these behaviours are generally unacceptable there could be underlying issues with work-so the behaviours could partially be someone else's fault***" (year 4). There seems to be some evidence that thinking might change as the preservice teachers progress. However, due to the limited data this is not notable and on the whole there seems to be a level of reflection in all years.

Attributions Comments Summary

On the whole, the results indicate that, while inappropriate behaviour is attributed mainly to the child, it is discussed in relation to understanding the child's needs rather than indicating blame. Where the attributions are made towards the teacher, they suggest that effective teaching is an important factor in managing behaviour, and while inappropriate behaviour is not always deemed to be the teacher's fault the teacher does play a significant part in the behaviour of the class. This is consistent with comments relating to the other

themes and will be further discussed below. The results seem to indicate that there is development as preservice teachers progress in relation to the way they articulate their thinking. In year 4 there is reference to reflection as discussed above. This is not evident from year 1 comments, even though one participant acknowledges that the same children might behave well for one teacher and not for another. Contextual factors are acknowledged and responses seem to indicate that the context must be taken into account when thinking about causal factors.

Comments, related to individual children and underlying reasons for behaviour, suggest that the teacher's knowledge of the children is important, and the teacher's ability to adapt approaches for these individuals. This acknowledges the responsibility for the teacher in managing the behaviour. This also links to the question about the teacher employing different strategies as discussed in the quantitative analysis.

4.6.7 – Interview Responses – Attributions

For the analysis related to the attribution theme, six codes were identified (Appendix 12).

Attributed to the Teacher

In the main the interview responses reinforced the comments made by year 4 participants on the questionnaire in relation to factors attributed to the teacher. In year 4 there seems to be insight into the role of the teacher, such as teacher consistency, how the teacher responds, and the importance of effective relationships.

The Role of the Teacher

Consistent with the comments, the interviewed participants acknowledged the role of the teacher in taking responsibility for the behaviour, and this was discussed in relation to motivation, "***if teachers are not providing a stimulating environment and children are bored***" (P1), and "***it's dependent on the teacher, they need to be consistent, motivate the children***" (P3). It

was also discussed in relation to teacher behaviour, "***teacher is responsible in the way they talk to children…their demeanour. The teacher could set the mood***" (P2), and "***fairness of the teacher, consistency of the teacher",*** "***having high expectations that are shared with the children***" (P4). These responses indicate that there is an understanding at least by year 4 that the teacher plays a crucial role in creating the environment to promote positive behaviour.

Children's Motives

The second aspect is related to the children's motives and this gives some insights into the way some preservice teachers might think about children. Two participants discussed children's motives in relation to positive and negative behaviour. Participant 4 discusses this in respect of suspicion of the child's motives, stating "***When a child behaves well …I think they are doing this to draw attention to themselves, is it because I'm watching, is it for me?***" and "***sometimes they are driven by a need to be right. Motives are not necessarily good they are just doing it for praise or teacher approval***". These responses clearly indicate that preservice teachers believe that the children are aware of their behaviours, and gives some insight into what the teacher thinks about children. This is also evident in the responses from participant 3, "***kids exploit any weakness in teachers***" and "***don't get in a situation where they can look more powerful than you***". The fact that a child is perceived to be deliberately manipulative indicates that the behaviour is being attributed to the child and that the actions are deliberate. Participant 3, discusses this in relation to negative behaviour, and responses indicate that this participant views the child as manipulative and power seeking as discussed, and it is the responsibility of the teacher to be aware of and mitigate against this. These two individual perspectives contrast with ideas about relationships such as mutual respect and trust, and also with the attributions related to comments regarding the child's behaviour as unintentional.

These perspectives offer some insights into teacher attitude, and link to the responses in the emotions section, where they intimated that their emotional state was dependent on the child.

Attributed to the Child

Although, as discussed above, there was some indication that the child's motives were intentional, the responses in relation to attributing the behaviour to the child contrast with this. Although it is agreed that the child has some responsibility for their own behaviour, "***to some extent they should know the difference between right and wrong***" (P1), it is also recognised that that this might not be the case as a result of parenting. Participant 2 suggests that responsibility comes with age "***by P7 they should know what's acceptable, being respectful***", but again qualifies this by also acknowledging that "***challenging behaviour is not their responsibility***". Participant 3 also suggests that children are responsible but suggests that "***they don't always think or work things through***" and that "***they're more easily influenced***". This participant also states that "***can also be positively influenced by the teacher***", which is consistent with responses when the behaviour is attributed to the teacher. Participant 4 also relates the behaviour to the age of the child and suggests it is the degree to which it is intentional that is important. This again suggests that intentionality is a factor in determining the extent to which a behaviour attributed to the child is viewed negatively. It is notable however, that three of the four participants agree that age is a determining factor when attributing the behaviour to the child. They suggest that with age children should become more responsible for their behaviour, however, they also suggest that this is not straightforward and there are other factors to be taken into account, and this is further suggested in relation to attributions toward the parents/home life.

Attributed to parents/background

All participants attribute the child's behaviour in some ways to parenting/home life, and two participants discuss this in relation to role models. "***When they***

don't have positive role models" (P1), and "***home circumstances are where they learn behaviours***" (P4). It is interesting that participant 2 states that "***home is the main cause***" suggesting that behaviour is not attributed to the teacher, and yet acknowledges that the teacher can influence the child's behaviour as stated above in relation to teachers' responses and setting the mood. This seems to suggest that although the home is the cause, the teacher has influence, as stated by participant 3. This is also consistent with the comments from the questionnaire, where although some participants did not view the teacher as the cause, they attributed the solutions to the teacher, in terms of influencing the behaviour and using effective strategies to manage behaviour.

Underlying Reasons

In terms of underlying reasons, the interview responses suggest that it is important for the teacher to reflect on what might be the cause of the behaviour rather than just trying to deal with the outward expression of it. This links to the responses about relationships and knowing individual children, discussed in the relationship theme, below. Two participants use the word "think", "***I think about the context at the time***" (P4), and "***need to think about what is misbehaviour and what is an incident caused by something***" (P2), which might indicate that they are thinking about underlying reasons rather than making attribution independent judgements.

4.6.8 – Summary of Findings - Attributions

This section has considered the qualitative data related to the attributions that preservice teachers make for children's behaviour. Children's behaviour was mainly attributed to the child and the teacher, but this did not necessarily have negative connotations. When considered in relation to the teacher's responsibility the results indicate that the teacher can take responsibility for developing the relationships and positive ethos in the class. In the main, where attributions were made towards the child they indicated that the behaviour is unintentional, and that individual needs should be considered, although there

was reference to the level of responsibility in relation to the child's age. Where they questioned the motives of the child they tended to be suspicious and make negative attributions towards the child and this might be linked to the emotions and the impact the child's behaviour has on the teacher.

The following section will report and analyse the qualitative data regarding strategies as identified as a theme from comments within the attributions section of the questionnaire.

4.6.9 Theme 3 – Strategies

For this section, the comments from the questionnaire will be reported and analysed. The following research question and sub question were addressed.

RQ2 - What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?

SQ 2 – What are preservice teachers' perceptions about how they manage misbehaviour and to what extent does this change over time?

Although the comments below were responses to a question within the attributions section of the questionnaire they did not seem to directly relate to attributions but were more linked to strategies and therefore I created the theme of strategies to incorporate the codes which had been identified. (Appendix 13).

Individual Needs

In the main the responses indicated that individual needs must be taken into account when using strategies. For example, "***every child is different, not all strategies work for every child***" (year 1), "***the same strategies were boring for the children***" (year 2) and "***children's behaviour can change, sometimes daily, so we need a bank of methods***", "***each class is different. No strategies will work equally effectively***" (year 3). This suggests that there is little evidence to support the view that thinking changes over time.

Despite this general view, a comment from a participant in year 1 does state that "***Children react positively to positive praise"*** and one participant in year 2 suggests ***"I believe that being positive, giving praise when necessary***

helps the class overall behaviour". Both statements suggest that these participants view praise as effective in a universal way. However, a comment in year 3, perhaps illustrates development in terms of critical thinking about the pros and cons of positive reinforcement "***Pupils who misbehave are rewarded largely when they make tiny improvements where good behaviour gets unacknowledged because it is the norm for other pupils***". There is also acknowledgement by a year 4 participant that there is an underlying issue for some children and if the teacher recognises this she/he can respond appropriately. "***Depending on how engaged/interested the child is in the learning/situation. One pupil behaved very poorly in class but was rewarded for good behaviour by helping in the nursery. The child seemed like another child when he was in the nursery. Took it seriously and behaved very well.***" This seems to suggest an insight into what is needed for specific children, which is not evident in the responses from year 1 and year 2 participants, supporting the view that there is more refinement of thinking with progression.

Support from Others

In relation to support from others, although there are only two responses, there is evidence of change over time. The response from the second year participant suggests that management should be called when behaviour is too difficult to deal with "***if child is out of control… call for senior management***". However, the participant in year 4 demonstrates refinement in thinking stating that "***Behaviour in schools can be directly affected by the management of the school. If they are there and available when situations arise behaviour is managed a lot easier, if not the opposite***".

Consistency

Two participants in year 4 talked about consistency and there was acknowledgment that strategies need to suit individuals, but also that teacher consistency is important in managing behaviour. One participant states "***I do not think a host of strategies will work*** *In my opinion* ***you have to be***

consistent as children like routine" demonstrating an understanding of children**,** and while the other participant acknowledges that consistency is important, stating that "***I have stuck with the teacher's strategies as these are established and the children are trained in a certain way***", this participant is aware that there is more to managing behaviour than consistency and discusses the role of the teacher as well, "***it doesn't automatically work without the underlying authority***". Again, this suggests that strategies and approaches do not work in themselves, but the individual who is applying these can influence the success or failure of the strategy.

4.6.10 - Summary of Findings - Strategies

Overall the responses indicate development of thinking as preservice teachers progress. There is more articulation of thinking in the responses from year 4 when compared to year 1 and 2. In respect of how they think about strategies, by year 4 there is evidence to support the view that they are becoming more critical in their thinking and have an understanding of the various factors which can influence the approaches and strategies which the teacher might apply.

4.6.11 - Theme 4 - Relationships

For this section the following research question and sub question were addressed.

RQ3: What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing misbehaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

SQ4 – To what extent do they acknowledge and value relationships in supporting behaviour management and to what extent does this change over time?

The qualitative data were collected from the comments on the questionnaires and the interviews. General comments from the section on confidence and comments from the section of the questionnaire related to unacceptability and challenge were included where I identified them as relevant to the codes. Interview responses identified within the theme were also analysed. The

qualitative data from the comments (appendix 14) will be discussed first followed by the interview responses (appendix 15).

4.6.12 – Comments – Relationships

Two codes were identified within this theme (appendix 14), knowing individuals and rapport/affinity. These will be discussed below.

Knowing individuals

While it may be argued that knowing a child does not necessarily indicate a relationship, this code was included in the relationships theme. One reason for this was because in my experience, knowledge of a child can help support relationships and the other was that some of the comments directly linked knowing a child with relationships.

Fourteen comments related to knowing the child, and these were from participants in all year groups. While all participants agreed that getting to know children is important, there is some evidence of a more simplistic view which is based on organisational factors, in year 1 and year 2 responses, such as knowing where to position children "***who children are sat next to etc.***" (year 1) and specific activities for getting to know about the children as discussed by a year 2 participant.

The responses seem to indicate the importance of understanding that children are all different and knowing their differences, for example, "***getting to know pupils helps majorly with behaviour***" (year 2), "***potential triggers are only recognisable when you know the children"*** (year 3), "***the child is almost 'communicating' when acting out***" and "***each child is individual and different factors can affect the way in which they behave***" (year 4), and knowing what approaches are appropriate, as one participant in year 4 states "***I would handle each pupil and situation differently***". There seems to be some indication of refinement in thinking where by year 4 the participants articulate their thinking more clearly. In year 2 and 3 participants acknowledge that knowing children is important but by year 4 they are more critical in thinking, acknowledging that knowing children helps the teacher to respond on

an individual basis. However, one view from a year 1 participant is that the teacher needs to know the child in order to recognise when behaviour is unusual. "***Behaviour which is unacceptable varies from child to child in relation to their 'normal' behaviour"*** and "***all of the above are unacceptable but depending on the child depends on how unacceptable they are***" (year 2), indicating that the behaviour is being evaluated in relation to what the teacher knows about the child. This is also evident in the comment from year 2 participants, "***Underachieving/poor quality of work –*** (unacceptable) ***if you know they can do better***" and "***with a disruptive child if they are distracting others from their work it is unacceptable. If they are off task sometimes it's better to leave it and avoid an outburst***" (year 2). These comments suggest that decisions are being made based on what the teacher knows about the child rather than a universal opinion of behaviours. In the main the comments suggest that while there is some evidence that by year 4 preservice teachers have become more critical in their thinking, it is also evident that in all years preservice teachers acknowledge that knowing individuals is an important aspect of managing behaviour effectively.

Rapport and Affinity

The other main aspect identified in this theme was the importance of rapport and affinity. Although there were no comments made by year 1 regarding relationships, it is acknowledged by participants in all other years that positive relationships are key to managing the behaviour. For example, one comment states, "***relationships are really the key to improving/maintaining good behaviour***" (year 2), and this is consistent in responses in years 2, 3 and 4, indicating little change over time.

One participant in year 2 states that "***children are more likely to behave if they feel respected by their teacher***", and one in year 3 suggests, "***if ethos strategies, relationships are negative/ineffective, behaviour, learning is affected***". One comment, related to unacceptability and challenge, suggests that relationships are important in order to manage behaviour ***"unacceptable behaviour is challenging to deal with unless you have built a strong***

relationship with the class" (year 2). A participant in year 4 states "***The environment and relationship you build with children impact on the behaviour in class"*** and another suggests that, ***"when a strong relationship is created with children I believe there is less need for a behaviour management system".*** This seems to link to teacher responsibility where there is acknowledgment that the efforts and commitment of the teacher to the children is crucial, as a participant in year 4, in relation to attributions, states, ***"teachers need to consider … the way they cultivate their classroom ethos in order to develop good relationships and respect",*** and this is evident when the relationship is not positive as one participant in year 4 states in relation to attributions, "***At times I feel if the teacher is not interested in their class and the children do not have a relationship with their teacher this can cause behaviour issues***".

Summary

Overall, in all years, there is acknowledgement that effective behaviour management relies on the relationships between the child and the teacher. It is also evident that importance is placed on knowing individuals as this supports positive relationships. It is notable that in all responses there is an indication that the teacher is responsible for developing relationships through creating a positive ethos, and this links to the attributions they make in relation to the teacher as discussed in the attributions chapter.

4.6.13 – Interview Responses – Relationships

The following section will report and analyse the responses from the interviews for the four, year 4 participants. All responses are included in appendix 15.

Knowing Individuals

All participants agreed that knowing children was important for relationships, and they all reported implementing a variety of activities to help them to get to know the children, in terms of the children's interests inside and outside of school, and their individual needs. More specifically, it was stated that knowing

the children is crucial for managing behaviour. Participant 2, states that, "***It is challenging to know how to handle behaviour. I had a difficult pupil on my final placement…I spoke to her and she reacted unexpectedly because I didn't know her***" and participant 2 reports "***The first placement was most difficult with behaviour til I got to know them***". They all discuss relationships in terms of being proactive. Participant 1, discusses this in relation to 'getting to know you activities', participant 3 and 4 in relation to getting to know the children and their interests, and participant 2 in relation to identifying individual needs through speaking to the teacher, "***I speak to the teacher to find out about the children with behaviour issues. During observation week I build relationships with those targeted children. I find out about their interests.***" However, participant 4 acknowledges that sometimes gaining the teacher's view of a child can be detrimental and cause unconscious bias "***sometimes it's not good if you have preconceived ideas about the children, the teacher says 'watch out for the one', and you automatically watch out***". Despite this, there is evidence that they are able to reflect on the behaviours, as participant 2 states "***the first placement was difficult so I thought what I wanted from the second placement and started this***" and knowing the children helps them to do this, as participant 3 states, "***I think about the kid and what the next steps will be, like, what if I do this? What will he or she do next?***"

These responses support the comments from the questionnaires for year 4. There is also an indication that by year 4 at least, the participants are reflecting and thinking critically about the role of relationships, and their responsibility for responding to individual children.

Two additional codes, ethos/values and authenticity, which were not apparent in the comments from the questionnaire were identified and these are worth further discussion.

Ethos/Values

There was a sense that positive behaviour is crucial for learning to occur "***You need good behaviour for learning to go on***" (P1), "***If they are not behaving, low level, they are not learning***", (P2), "***if you don't have behaviour you can't learn***" and "***behaviour can prevent learning if the children are distracted not on task they are not learning. Better behaved children learn more***" (P4). This is achieved through the ethos within the classroom, and links to rapport. "***You need good behaviour for ethos***" (P1), "***class ethos, relationships between children and teacher, between children, high consistent but reasonable expectations***" (P4). Participant 3 also suggests that "***you have to relate to the kids***".

Responses indicate that the teacher has to have authority, and lead the class, setting clear expectations from the outset, as participant 3 states "***you have to establish authority first***". However, it is also evident that participants felt that the teacher has to show respect for the children, has to be able to understand the position from perspective of the child and has to model and teach the desired behaviours, in order to create a positive ethos. Participant 1 states "***Will keep getting inappropriate behaviour if we keep punishing, need positive relationships instead of being negative all the time, be positive, it's not good if teachers shout too much.***"

These insights suggest that by year 4, at least, the preservice teachers think about the way in which the attitude and approach of the teacher influences the behaviour. This links to the attributions theme and also links to authenticity, discussed below.

Authenticity

Authenticity was identified because some of the responses seemed to reflect the participants thinking about being a 'real' person rather than just a professional in their role as a teacher. This also links to affinity, where it is evident that there was a level of empathy with the child. Participant 4 discussed how she would give the children examples of the way she behaved in particular situations, which links to ethos in the sense of modelling behaviours "***when***

there is conflict between children I use my own experience and relate it to what's happening – 'that happened to me and this is what I did'". This is similar to the comment from participant 2 regarding putting himself into the child's shoes "***I always put myself in the children's shoes. I think about how I would have felt/ how could she have done things differently, the teacher***". However, there seems to be a distinction between the responses. The former conveys to the children what she as an adult would do, and the latter reports that he tries to see the situation through the child's eyes. This seems to show a distinction in the way they think about children, in the sense of trying to see what the child sees. Participant 2 comment also indicates that this approach is being used in order to understand what the teacher should do, where participant 4 seems to be using this approach to create affinity with the children and also to support them in managing conflict. It is interesting that, as discussed in the emotions section above, the first participant also discussed behaviour in terms of the personal impact it had on her rather than viewing it from the child's perspective, where the second participant's responses do not indicate any negative feelings toward the children, but does indicate that the teacher needs to think about the underlying reasons.

Participant 2 also discussed authenticity in relation to how the children view you, "***they know if you're genuine or faking it***", and also in relation to doing "***what you feel is actually right***".

Participant 3 suggests that it is important that children are taught to become responsible for their own behaviour through empathising with others. "***We need to teach empathy. Teach them to make their own decisions***" and participant 3, suggests "***they need to realise that appropriate behaviour is for themselves, looking at the future in relation to the way they are behaving, it's connected to intrinsic motivation***", indicating that children need to develop an understanding of the personal effect of their behaviour and the teacher is responsible for supporting them in understanding this. Participant 2 discusses this in terms of modelling "***Most important are setting an example***, ***respect, be the leader, talk to the children, compromise,***" and "***Learn behaviour definitely by example – the wee things***". Participant 4 discusses

this in relation to genuine communication "***I talk to them on their own level it's straightforward***".

4.6.14 - Summary of Findings - Relationships

The main responsibility was for the teacher to develop positive relationships and this was viewed as a main factor in creating a positive ethos to encourage positive behaviour, and responses indicated that confidence in building relationships develops as they progress. This is consistent with the attributions where positive behaviour management was mainly attributed to the teacher, and children's behaviour. While misbehaviour was not perceived to be the teacher's fault, it was perceived to be influenced by the teacher's approach. Furthermore, where the attributions are made towards the child there was an understanding that individual factors need to be considered.

4.6.15 - Theme 5 – Professional Learning

For this section qualitative data gathered from the comments from the questionnaire and the interview responses will be reported and analysed. This data was collected in order to explore the ways in which preservice teachers develop over time, and what experiences they value in supporting them with behaviour management. Responses from comments which related to developing skills and professional learning are reported first, followed by the interview responses.

The following research question and sub questions were addressed.

RQ3: What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing misbehaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

SQ1 – To what extent do they value practical experience in supporting them and how does this change over time?

SQ2 – To what extent do they value theoretical knowledge in supporting them and how does this change over time?

SQ3- To what extent does developing skills influence confidence?

4.6.16 Comments – Professional Learning

As with the other qualitative data, responses have been colour coded for ease of reference.

While the majority of the comments relate to practical experience, there are also comments related to school policies and confidence (appendix 16).

Policies

Both responses related to policies indicate that, in their experience, policies are not commonly used in schools and therefore they do not view policies as supporting their behaviour management, "***Some schools do not follow own policy***", (year 3) "***I find that the school policies are rarely used unless management are keen to implement. Only two out of six placements I have experienced this***" (year 4).

Confidence

In relation to confidence a comment from year 1, "***I think it's part of my innate quality. I have natural ability!***" suggests that managing behaviour comes naturally to her and that she is confident from the outset. This contrasts with a comment from two participants in year 4 who state that confidence comes from experience "***Because of the number of placements we have had I feel very confident***", and "***last placement very challenging. Has increased confidence significantly***". These comments support the view that as preservice teachers progress they become more confident and this is perceived to be due to practical experience. Practical experience will be discussed more fully below.

Practical Experience

Year 3 and 4 made comments related to practical experience and school practice. One comment from year 2 discussed experience of specific training which is not explicitly discussed in terms of experience in the classroom "***through my work I have CALM training and training on managing challenging behaviour***" but does suggest that the training is related to

practical work, indicating that this participant has experience of working with challenging behaviours.

Comments indicate that by year 3 and 4 at least, participants find practical experience in the classroom very effective. There are two main aspects identified, one relating to actual practical experience and one relating to observations. Responses relating to the actual practice of dealing with behaviour suggest that behaviour management is learned through practising it. A year 3 participant states "***my last placement has given me many opportunities to deal with confrontation and disruptive behaviour***" and year 4 participants suggest that "***you only know how to deal with challenging behaviour once you actually deal with it in the classroom***" and "***teaching practice and tough placements***" support learning. Comments related to observations indicate that while one participant in year 3 agrees that "***observing situations, by far, makes dealing with challenging behaviour easier***", the other comment suggests that observing one person's method of dealing with behaviour may not be useful for another person, indicating that observation is not entirely effective. "***Re observation – every person will manage behaviour differently therefore one method may not work for another***" (year 4). This seems to indicate some refinement of thinking as they progress.

Where a year 3 comment indicates that the support comes from practice in relation to learning from a more knowledgeable peer, "***discussion with class teacher is always the most helpful for managing behaviour***" in year 2 the comment suggests a dependence on the lecturer, "***Speaking to lecturers and sharing concerns before 2PP1 helped. Hearing their experiences/ways of dealing with behaviour***". This might support the view that as they progress they rely more on the teacher than the lecturer to learn about behaviour management.

Summary

Due to the number of comments, analysis is limited, but has given some insight into the beliefs about the most effective supports for managing challenging behaviour. Participants value practice as the most effective way of support learning. There seems to be some indication of development where in year 1 the participant sees it as innate ability perhaps indicating a naivety, in year 2 the participant values lecturers' knowledge and by year 3 and 4 the participants report that they value practical experience. The qualitative data from the interviews will now be discussed in order to identify any further insights (appendix 17).

4.6.17 – Interview Responses – Professional Learning

There were four codes identified within this theme (appendix 17) and they will be discussed in turn, below.

Confidence

In relation to confidence and knowing what to do, two participants suggested that knowing what to do comes with experience. Participant 1 suggests that "***Knowing what to do makes it less challenging"*** and participant 3 links confidence to emotions and experience, "***with experience you read situations better. Initially you feel let down if you've invested a lot in them. You think – why don't you just do it? – As confidence grows you get less anxious because you've got more experience of different situations***", and this supports the findings emerging in the emotions analysis, where participants reported that confidence and experience influenced the emotions.

Support

The findings indicate that the main support is from practical experiences and more knowledgeable peers, and this reinforces the comments from the questionnaire as discussed above. One participant commented directly in relation to practical experience and confidence, "***more confident…it definitely comes with experience on placements***", and discusses this in relation to

development**,** "***challenges help to reflect for the future***" and also acknowledges that textbooks give a basis from which to work, stating "***reading literature gives basics then you build on it through practice and experiences***".

The main comments were related to support and learning from a more knowledgeable peer. Participant 2 states that he has "***developed through learning from others***". There was acknowledgment of the importance of the experience of others. "***I have been reading online blogs, teacher's blogs, real life examples/tips, other people's examples"*** (P1), "***I learned from my mum cos she works with children with learning difficulties***", (P2), "***gain experience from experienced older teachers***", (P3) "***mostly talking to the teacher***" (P4).

However, it is also evident that the extent to which they are open to learning from others is linked to their level of respect for a teacher and their perceptions of the effectiveness of the teacher. For example, participant 2 states that he learns from the "***teacher if it works***" or from a "***staff member who is a good teacher***", and participant 3 states "***I respect someone who really knows the kids and school***".

Two participants discuss how observing helps them to learn how to manage behaviour. Participant 3 states "***through observing***", and participant 4 states that she learns "***through watching teachers and children, what children do with other teachers***". This indicates that she is not only watching what the teacher does but watching the children and how they respond in different contexts and with different teachers.

As discussed above, the participants suggest that learning comes from a more knowledgeable peer. There is also an indication that by year 4, at least, they are developing their own skills and autonomy, "***always go to the teacher, follow teacher's rules, but think what would I do if it was my class?***" (P1). "***I look to myself first"*** (P2). The participants discuss autonomy in terms of developing solutions "***teachers should get to try things out***" (P1), and links to the idea that practice is important in developing skills and learning from mistakes. This is consistent with one of the comments from year 4 in the

questionnaire, "***learn from the mistakes of others***". Other responses related to autonomy indicate that this comes with experience, "***in 3rd and 4th year you're making your own decisions…what would I do***" (P1) and "***Now in fourth year I'm doing it all on my own.***" On the whole by year 4 these participants value the knowledge and experience of others as well as their own experience, and they also indicate that they are becoming more autonomous as they progress.

Hindrances to Learning

The Participants also discussed hindrances to learning and this was mainly linked to not seeing good practice "***I didn't know what to do but I didn't think that what the school was doing was working***" (P1) and "***challenges for students when they haven't seen a teacher with good behaviour strategies***" (P2). This is consistent with the comments that the experience of others is crucial in helping the novice to develop skills as discussed in relation to practical experience. However, these responses are countered by a comment from participant 2 who suggests "***they can call on their own experiences from own school life or from other people's and reflect on it, when they don't see good BM from the teacher***", suggesting that it is the responsibility of the preservice teacher to find solutions, and also is consistent with the idea of autonomy.

Theoretical Knowledge

There is also some evidence that, while practical experience is the main factor in relation to support, support from academic texts is valued. Participant 1 states that reading enables reflection, "***learn from reading and reflect on it***" and this is consistent with her responses above in relation to reading and practical experience. Participant 2 states "***I would read academic texts***" indicating that he does not solely rely on practical experience. Participant 3 and 4 state that they do not gain support from reading. It is interesting, however, that participant 3 states that she gained support from completing her research

project, which would necessarily involve reading professional and theoretical material.

4.6.18 – Summary of Findings – Professional Learning

The findings of the qualitative data from the interviews and the questionnaire comments suggest that preservice teachers value learning from practical experience and from more knowledgeable peers. They believe that most of their support comes from their placements rather than from university courses, and while there is some limited evidence that professional reading supports them, they value practical experiences more. There is also evidence to support the view that they do not simply follow what they see in practice but are discerning in making decisions about which practices and teachers they perceive to be effective, and they model these. There is also evidence that by year 4 participants are becoming autonomous and have confidence in making independent decisions.

4.6.19 - Overall Summary of Qualitative Findings

The findings indicate that as they progress preservice teachers do develop in a number of ways in relation to the way in which they think about and manage behavioural issues in the classroom. There is evidence that their views of children and their own self-confidence in managing behaviour develops and this may in part be linked to their emotional responses, which become less negative and acute. This seems to be affected by their growing confidence which is a result mainly of their practical experiences within the classroom and their ability to critically reflect on these experiences, although there is also some indication that this is also due to their growing ability to link theory and practice. The findings from the interviews also suggest that, as they develop, preservice teachers value the experience of those they perceive to be more knowledgeable peers, and discussed this in relation to learning from more experienced teachers. Although the findings suggest that they do not notably change in the way they make attributions, they seem to become more aware of the context and nature of issues which children may be facing and are

sympathetic towards them, while also developing their understanding of the crucial part that the teacher plays in responding to behavioural issues. They seem to progress from a pathognomic to an interventionist view as described by Kyriacou *et al.,* (2007).

There is evidence when examining preservice teachers reported behaviour, that as they progress they are beginning to display attributes of expertise as identified in models of expert teachers, for example being more aware of the affective factors and personal and interpersonal knowledge (Eaude, 2014). They also seem to be flexible rather than rule bound as they progress (Berliner, 1988), and this may be because they are more insightful, in relation to Stenrberg and Horvath's (1995) model. Although it is not suggested that by the end of their study they have become experts, it could be argued that they have developed some aspects of expertise within the context of their preservice experiences in relation to their thinking and behaviour, as discussed in the findings.

It is tentatively suggested that the main factors affecting preservice teachers' development are contingent on the extent to which they can reflect critically, and this might be a result of the interaction between their developing experience and their understanding of contextual factors, such as the context of a child's misbehaviour. It could also be argued that their ability to critically reflect is influenced by their emotional state and their attributions which interact and influence each other. This is illustrated in figure 9 below.

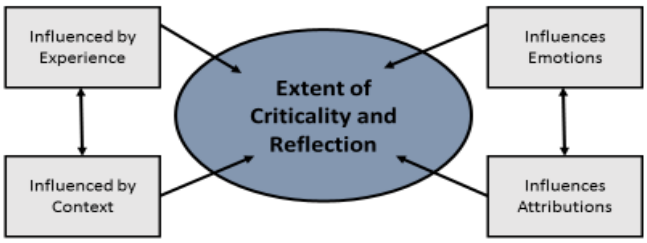

Figure 9 – **Model of influences on critical reflection**

Chapter 5 – Discussion

The main aim of the study was to explore changes over time, particularly in relation to appraisals and emotions, attributions, confidence and professional learning as preservice teachers progress from 1st to 4th year of their undergraduate study. The purpose was to build a picture of preservice teacher development in managing behaviour. As discussed, the study comprised two parts, study one and study two. Study one explored development, through a questionnaire which collected quantitative and qualitative data, of preservice teachers as they progressed. Study two used a semi-structured interview to collect qualitative data, with a small sample of year 4 preservice teachers.

The main aspects emerging from the analyses will be discussed in turn. Firstly, appraisals will be discussed, followed by emotions, then attributions and finally professional learning. The chapter will also discuss the limitations and implications of the study.

5.1 - Appraisals and Emotions

For this part of the study the following research question was addressed.

RQ 1- How do preservice teachers appraise classroom misbehaviours and to what extent does this change over time?

5.1.1 - Appraisals

The findings for the quantitative data indicate that behaviours which are most threatening, in relation to defiance of the teacher, are appraised as the most unacceptable and the most challenging despite the stage of the preservice teacher. On the other hand, behaviours which do not pose this level of personal threat are appraised as less challenging as preservice teachers progress. Furthermore, behaviours describes as distracted, those which do not disruptive the flow of the class or confront the teacher/pupils, are consistently appraised as least unacceptable and least challenging. There was no evidence that appraisals changed for the confrontational and distracted behaviours, but

evidence to suggest that as preservice teachers develop they find the disruptive behaviours less challenging to deal with.

The current findings suggest that preservice teachers do not change their appraisals for confrontational type behaviours as they gain experience. These findings invite comparison with earlier work by Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004), who found that preservice teachers in 3rd/4th year found these types of behaviours to be less serious than 1st year preservice teachers. There are a number of possibilities for the differences between the current findings and Kokkinos *et al's.,* (2004) work. One might be that the current study was longitudinal, where Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004) used a cross sectional design. The longitudinal design is a strength as it enabled the same cohort to be compared over the course of the programme which cross sectional designs cannot accomplish. Another possibility might be that this study focused particularly on behaviours which are directly defiant of the teacher and, in the case of fighting, are threatening physically to others, where Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004) included a wider range of anti-social behaviours, such as stealing. This enabled the current study to examine the responses in relation to appraisal theories where it is argued that the level of threat to the self can determine the appraisals. Given that the behaviours such as refusing to do what is asked or ignoring warnings and sanctions, are directly defiant of the teacher, one possibility for the findings might be that the preservice teachers viewed these as personal and therefore perceived them to be more unacceptable and challenging. This was indicated by their responses in the interviews where they discussed that they experienced negative emotions when they took children's misbehaviour personally. When they were able to recognise children's misbehaviour from a more critical perspective the influence on their emotions was reduced. This example can perhaps be explained in terms of Izard's (2009) arguments in the context of emotions and appraisals. When "the situation is personally or socially significant" (Izard, 2009, p.2) there is more impact on the emotions than when the situation is not personally significant. The participants who discussed the negative impact of emotions also discussed that they were less impacted by their emotions when they recognised that the misbehaviour was related to

issues for the child. This might suggest that they were able to detach from the personal significance of the misbehaviour.

The findings may also indicate a cultural difference between Scotland and Greece. Cultural differences within education can reflect the underlying values within society, in relation to attitudes about what is acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. This may be reflected in the way preservice teachers make sense of behavioural issues, and although there is no evidence in the current study to enable significant claims, it seems important to bear in mind that culture may have an influence on thinking.

In contrast to the confrontational behaviours, distracted behaviours were appraised as the least unacceptable and least challenging and this did not change as preservice teachers progressed. Again, this contrasts with Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004) who found that preservice teachers in year 3/4 recognised and became more attuned to these types of behaviours. One possibility for this might be that the focus of the current study was on behaviours which were related to learning, such as off task and lack of attention, where Kokkinos et *al's.,* (2004) study included what are described as 'inhibited/ reserved behaviours', which included behaviours such as being withdrawn. In the current study I was interested in examining appraisals of behaviours which specifically linked to learning, to explore whether these behaviours became more salient as preservice teachers progressed. It is concerning that they continue to be the least unacceptable and challenging for preservice teachers, even in year 4, given the focus on raising attainment in Scottish schools. However, these findings are consistent with the argument above that it is those behaviours which elicit negative emotions due to the threat to the self which will be deemed to be most unacceptable and challenging. There are two possibilities identified to explain the findings. One is that the behaviours which do not cause the teacher any threat or threaten the disruption of the class are not deemed to be unacceptable and challenging even in year 4. The other might be that behaviours which are linked to learning are thought of in a different way to other types of misbehaviour. They may not be viewed as misbehaviour because they do not cause any disruption to others.

For the disruptive behaviours the level of challenge decreased over time, but the level of unacceptability did not change over time for all behaviours. It seems that while some behaviours continue to be unacceptable they are not as challenging to deal with as preservice teachers progress. Consistent with Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004), these behaviours are not perceived to be as challenging as the blatantly anti-social behaviours, and in line with my argument regarding the emotional elements and impact on the self, one possibility for the findings, which Kokkinos *et al.,* (2004) did not discuss, is that the preservice teachers do not view these behaviours as serious because they do not impact emotionally on the self.

There were two disruptive behaviours where there was a notable decrease in the appraisals of unacceptability and challenge as preservice teachers progressed. For irrational outbursts there was an evident decrease in appraisals of unacceptability and challenge year on year. This is interesting in relation to the discussion that anti-social and aggressive behaviours are deemed serious and challenging and it might be suggested that this behaviour, although it could be viewed as anti-social and aggressive, does not directly involve others. Perhaps as preservice teachers progress they become more confident in knowing how to deal with this type of issue, as a result of experience. The other behaviour in this category where there is evidence of a decrease in the appraisals of unacceptability and challenge is 'continually leaving seat and wandering'. One possibility for this is that this behaviour does not necessarily disrupt others in the way interrupting or shouting out might.

These behaviours may be viewed as less unacceptable and challenging by the time preservice teachers reach the end of their programme, because at the beginning of the programme preservice teachers might be focused on all behaviours which potentially disrupt the flow of the classroom, or they may view outbursts as threatening. While it could be argued that these behaviours are very different in terms of their anti-social/aggressive nature, it can also be suggested that they do not necessarily involve an 'other', and in this respect they may become less concerning for preservice teachers as they gain confidence and experience. These findings, have built on Kokkinos, et *al's*.,

(2004) work in further exploring individual behaviours and possible reasons for the changes in appraisals and development of thinking in relation to confidence, and the extent to which behaviours which involve another might be deemed more challenging than those which do not. However, these are tentative suggestions and further study would be necessary to explore the reasons why different misbehaviours elicit different responses.

The participants discussed some of the misbehaviours as being dependent on contextual factors and this was identified in the questionnaire comments regarding shouting out and interrupting, where 4th year participants were less likely to appraise these behaviours as unacceptable and challenging and comments indicate that this may be linked to their understanding of context, and might be explained in relation to developing expertise. Berliner (1988; 2001) suggests that developing expertise involves being able to contextualise the problem.

Summary and conclusions

This section has explored findings regarding the appraisals of different types of behaviours and has suggested that the level of threat to the individual seems to influence the extent to which behaviours are appraised as unacceptable and challenging. Another interesting finding was related to the level of acceptability of the distracted behaviours. Despite the focus in Scotland on raising attainment, the distracted behaviours were appraised as the least unacceptable and challenging and this does not change over time.

The current findings have added insights by examining the perceptions of preservice teachers about behaviours in the context of appraisals and emotions. It could be argued that where children's inappropriate behaviours are threatening to the self, preservice teachers are unable to stand back and think critically about them. This was evidenced through the interview responses when three of the four participants discussed the emotional effect the children's behaviour had on them. When misbehaviour posed less of a personal threat, as evidenced in one response regarding development, they seem to be capable of responding on a cognitive level and thinking about what they could

do to help by critically examining the reasons and context for the behaviours. There was also evidence in the data from the questionnaire comments and the interviews that they reflect critically on the causes and influences of misbehaviour, where responses indicate that they are thinking about the role of the teacher and the underlying issues for the children. One possible argument might be that critical thinking is crucial for appraising and attributing children's behaviour and also that this is impeded when individuals are operating on an emotional level, and this will be discussed more fully in relation to emotions below.

5.1.2 - Emotions

This section will discuss the main themes which have emerged from the data. As discussed in the literature review, research on the emotional elements of teaching and the impact of the emotion on teachers is limited in the field of education (Frenzel *et al*., 2015; Uitto *et al*., 2015; Bahia, *et al.,* 2013; Chang 2009). This part of the study aimed to examine emotions specifically in relation to behaviour management and preservice teacher development. This section will firstly discuss personal impact, followed by relationships and finally individual differences.

Personal Impact

In terms of understanding their emotions there was evidence that as the preservice teachers developed they began to understand that their emotions impact on their own well-being as well as their ability to manage behaviours. Although the interview findings cannot be generalised to the population, the responses from the interviews suggest that where preservice teachers understood the impact of their emotions they were able to manage them through self-regulation, and this may be transferable to similar contexts. This was evident when the participants reported that as they developed they were able to cope with behaviours in a more confident way and that their emotions influenced their thinking less in year 4 than in year 1. They were able to look for solutions and change their own responses, and this was reported as a

positive way of managing behaviour and supports Eaude's (2014) model in relation to personal and interpersonal knowledge. Responses indicated that when reporting on their early experiences they demonstrated that their responses to children's behaviour indicated a lack of personal and interpersonal knowledge, which Eaude (2014) argues is crucial for becoming expert. As indicated above, the findings from the interviews, where participants discussed the changes in their emotions, suggested that they were capable of understanding that they could regulate their emotions. This invites comparison with Bahia *et al.,* (2013), who found that teachers had little understanding of their own emotions. Furthermore, where they did manage emotions they focused on regulating the teaching and learning and the children's behaviour rather than self-regulation. There may be a number of possibilities for the difference in the findings. Firstly, the current study was carried out with preservice teachers rather than fully qualified, and explored development. Secondly, it may be that because the current study was longitudinal the participants had been asked a series of questions related to their views and these may have primed their responses. Furthermore, Bahia's *et al's.,* (2013) study drew on participants from pre-school, primary and secondary settings, where the current study was limited to primary preservice teachers, which may have influenced the findings. Another possibility for the differences may be due to cultural differences, as discussed above in relation to appraisals.

As discussed above, there was evidence to suggest that the individuals are capable of understanding and regulating their emotions as they progress. However, there was also evidence to suggest that where emotions were negative, they questioned the motives of the child and this influenced the way in which they thought about the child, and this is a concern for both their own wellbeing and their ability to respond appropriately to behavioural issues. The findings suggest that when they took misbehaviour personally it had a notable impact on their emotions. However, in terms of development, three of the four participants reported that emotions became less acute as they developed and this seemed to be related to taking children's misbehaviour less personally as they progressed to year 4. This might be explained in terms of appraisals where

Izard (2009) suggests that there is an interaction between cognition and emotions. For example, having prior experience can influence emotions.

This might also link to the findings from the quantitative data which indicated that with progress preservice teachers are more confident in anticipating misbehaviour and identifying potential triggers, and this may be influenced by or influence their emotions in relation to worry. This supports Eaude's (2014) discussion of expertise in relation to anticipatory and proactive behaviour.

Teaching – a relationship driven profession

The notion of teaching being a relationship driven profession, I would argue, has both positive and negative implications. On the positive side it assumes, for example, a level of intimacy, closeness, reciprocity and mutual trust, and emotional involvement from the pupil and the teacher (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Eaude, 2014), and these are all important for developing a positive ethos within the classroom. The findings of the current study indicate that preservice teachers find that knowing children and establishing relationships are crucial in supporting them in managing behaviour. However, the negative side of relationships, it could be argued, is the emotional stake involved and this could have a detrimental effect when the relationship is not reciprocal (Giallo and Little 2003).

Within the current study the findings from the interviews suggested that, with inexperience, the responses to behavioural issues are linked to the self in terms of a need to be liked and accepted, and concern that if children are reprimanded they will not like the teacher. Although it could be argued that this is a general way of thinking for most people, it also seems to suggest that actions are linked to the emotions, and that non-reciprocal behaviour has a negative emotional impact.

Authenticity was an identified theme in year 4 interviews and it is evident at least by this stage of progress that they view being a 'real' person as crucial. This was not identified in the literature, but seems to be important when discussing relationships. In terms of relationships, where behaviour management breaks down it might impact on the 'real' person. Where emotions

are at the forefront, the idea of the ‘real’ person who has tried to build relationships being undermined when a child does not reciprocate, might have a detrimental effect on the self. This may have an effect on the individual in terms of personal impact which was discussed above.

Individual Differences

The findings from the interviews also found some evidence of individual differences. One participant discussed emotions differently from the other three. This may indicate a difference in personality, as discussed by Kokkinos *et al.,* (2005) but another possibility for the difference in responses might be gender related. There are two aspects to this. It may be that this participant was more able to regulate emotions, or it may be that this participant did not want to discuss emotions in the same way as the other participants. However, it is acknowledged that this was only one participant and further study would be needed to investigate the possibility that gender-related factors are at work here. Nevertheless, it is an interesting finding and worth further exploration.

Despite individual differences it was evident that as they progressed, participants did report becoming more solution focussed and less influenced by their emotions. They discussed humanistic ideals such as ethos, positive relationships and knowing the child as important factors in managing children’s behaviour.

The findings indicate that preservice teachers do not change their appraisals regarding behaviours which are the most defiant or those which are linked to inattention However, as they develop they may become more confident in managing behaviour. By the time they reach the end of their undergraduate programme, those who were interviewed reported that they understand the impact of their own emotional responses to misbehaviour and are able to regulate their emotions. Responses indicated that this enables them to manage the behaviour more effectively and confidently.

5.2 - Attributions and Confidence

This section will discuss the attributions and confidence in relation to the main ideas emerging from the analysis and within the context of the literature. As a reminder the following research question was addressed.

RQ2: What attributions do preservice teachers make about classroom misbehaviour and to what extent do attributions change over time?

Firstly, attributions made towards the teacher will be discussed, followed by a discussion of the way in which attributions are made towards the child. Finally, these will be discussed in relation to development.

Attributed to the teacher

The findings from the questionnaires indicate, that participants do not generally perceive the teacher to be the cause of children's inappropriate behaviour. However, they agree that the teacher can influence and contribute to preventing it and can use effective approaches to manage behaviour. This supports Grieve's (2009) findings regarding teacher characteristics, and Zakaria, *et al's.*, (2013) work where they found that even though preservice teachers did not attribute children's behaviour to themselves they did agree that the teacher could employ effective strategies.

The responses from the qualitative data indicate that the teacher is central to the behaviour in the classroom, and this was evident from the comments in the questionnaire and the responses from the interview. These insights suggest that by year 4, at least, some preservice teachers might be capable of thinking in depth about the way in which the attitude and approach of the teacher influences the behaviour. Weiner (2000) makes a distinction between locus of control and locus *and* control, and discusses the latter as being "two independent dimensions" (p.5), where the cause is internal to the person but is perceived to be controllable or uncontrollable. It seemed that when participants felt that the locus *and* control were within the teacher, and when they were not influenced by negative emotions, they were more confident in taking responsibility for managing the behaviour of the children. This might be explained in relation to intrapersonal theories of motivation (Weiner, 2000),

which claims that “increments of self-esteem require internal causality for success” (p.7) and that “personal feeling states influence which cause is selected,” (p.4).

The current findings might suggest a relationship between attributions and emotions especially in relation to impact on the self as discussed in the emotions section. Responses from three participants suggested that the emotional impact on them influenced the way they thought about the children. Two participants suggested that they questioned themselves when children behaved inappropriately and three participants discussed misbehaviour in relation to the personal impact it had on them. When preservice teachers blamed themselves their responses also suggested that this had an effect on their self-confidence and self-belief. This is indicated in the responses from one participant in terms of feeling helpless and questioning their own abilities, and one participant in relation to self-blame. In terms of attribution theory, where the cause of a negative outcome is attributed to the self and perceived to be uncontrollable and stable, guilt and shame are experienced and this leads to feelings of hopelessness (Weiner, 2000). However, as they progressed, in the main when they made attributions towards the teacher it seemed to be in a positive way, not only with regard to influencing the behaviour but for finding the solutions. They viewed the teacher as potentially having a positive or negative influence. When positive, the children’s misbehaviour was perceived to be more manageable, and when negative it was perceived to have a negative effect on the children’s behaviour.

The findings from the qualitative data also indicated that these preservice teachers showed empathy and discussed approaches in relation to helping behaviours. Although participants did not agree that children behave consistently they discussed this in terms of the issues which a child might be facing, and in terms of the teacher’s responsibility for knowing the child, recognising changes and implementing effective strategies to deal with them. This is consistent with Poulou and Norwich’s (2000) work, which found that where teachers felt that the child was not in control of their behaviour they would be more supportive and engage in helping behaviours. Although Poulou

and Norwich (2000, 2002), did not explore development and focused on fully qualified teachers, there is evidence in the current study that preservice teachers develop their thinking over time and this will be discussed more fully below in the section on development. The current study has also built on Poulou and Norwich's (2000) research by collecting qualitative data as well as quantitative, which the authors suggest would be worthwhile in subsequent studies in order to gain further insights.

As discussed above, in the main, the attributions made towards the teacher indicated that preservice teachers recognised that they were a key factor in developing positive behaviour in the classroom. This indicates that they understand their responsibilities and are proactive in encouraging positive behaviours. This is a pleasing finding as it seems to indicate that the internal attributions made by the teacher are not only about successes but also about their contribution to changing children's behaviours. This perhaps can be explained in terms of Weiner's (2000) interpersonal theory of motivation, where he suggests that prosocial attributions, which result from perceiving the actions to be 'uncontrollable' by the agent, have a positive impact on teacher's responses and will elicit sympathy and pro-social behaviours.

Attributed to the Child

The main cause of misbehaviour, in the current study, was attributed to the child and this is consistent with Zakaria et *al's*., (2013) work, which also found that over half of the participants claimed that they would use punitive methods to manage behaviours. However, in the current study, although the findings are based on limited comments, participants did not discuss punitive methods. One possibility might be that although they attributed the children's behaviour to the children they did this is a non-blame way perhaps indicating that they were more sympathetic towards children than Zakaria *et al.,* (2013) found. It was evident in the current findings, from the comments and the interview responses, that when participants made external attributions they generally viewed these as unintentional on the part of the child and seemed to understand some of the issues that a child may be facing. Comments in the main discussed the child in

the context of individual aspects rather than simply attributing the blame to the children. Interview responses suggested that although children have some responsibility for their own behaviour, there are reasons why they might not be responsible. Poor parenting, children's lack of thinking about their behaviour, their age and being influenced by others, were some of the causal factors identified.

Therefore, it might be argued that the important factor is how the attributions are understood, and where they are understood to be. In respect of the cause or agent, intentionality seems important rather than the attribution, per se. Where misbehaviours are viewed as unintentional positive attributions are likely, as discussed above in relation to interpersonal theories of motivation (Weiner. 2000).

Development

In relation to development there is some evidence to suggest that preservice teachers refined their thinking as they progressed. Although attributions do not change notably over time there is evidence to suggest that the responses to them do. This finding builds on Atici's (2007) study which did not discuss development in relation to preservice teachers' attributions. However, this aspect seems to be important in our understanding of development especially in relation to how this might impact teachers' perceptions and approaches to behaviour management. The findings suggest that as preservice teachers progress they are capable of understanding the needs and issues for the child and the influence of the teacher. In all years, comments from the questionnaire suggest the preservice teachers take individual needs into account when discussing attributions, although there are some comments which attribute the cause to the child's attitude. Furthermore, within the current findings there is some evidence to suggest that as they progress, preservice teachers are more discerning and more critical in their thinking about the unacceptability and challenge of misbehaviours. This was evidenced in their responses within the attributions section where in year 4 they commented more in relation to individual needs than in year 1. It is also evidenced in the comments regarding

the teacher's fault, where in year 4 responses indicated that they had more understanding of how the teacher can influence and manage misbehaviour. This might be explained in relation to models of expertise, where teachers become more able to make connections, and can see the classroom in terms of the whole rather than individual aspects (Berliner, 1988), and models related to being able to interpret situations (Berliner, 1988; Eaude, 2014). It might also be explained in relation to cognition, where, when there is no threat they are able to think more critically about behaviours, rather than responding on an emotional level. This will be discussed more fully below in relation to models of expertise.

Despite research which found no effect of experience on feelings of control (Mavropoulou and Padeliadu, 2002), the results of the current study do suggest that experience is linked to confidence in terms of classroom management.

The responses indicate that by year 4 there is evidence of insight into the role of the teacher, such as teacher consistency, how the teacher responds, and the importance of effective relationships. This is consistent with models of expertise in relation to Sternberg and Horvath's (1995) arguments that as teachers progress they become more insightful. By year 2 they seem to be thinking more about the underlying issues for the child in relation to their misbehaviour rather than external factors, such as weather, which cannot be changed. This seems to indicate some refinement in thinking and also a developing understanding of their own responsibilities and influence. This also supports Eaude's (2014) model in relation to interpersonal knowledge, where more expert teachers are aware of their own and others affective states.

Summary

Overall, the findings indicate that there is little change over time in relation to the way in which behaviour is attributed, but there is evidence to suggest that as preservice teachers progress they become more understanding that children's behaviour can be inconsistent and that this can be related to contextual factors. However, this is not viewed negatively as they progress. They seem to recognise the teacher's responsibility and also that the teacher

can influence the behaviour in a positive or negative way. Furthermore, where the attributions are made towards the child there is evidence that this can be viewed as caused by uncontrollable factors rather than the child being an intentional agent. However, findings also indicated that when preservice teachers are in an emotional state, their attributions towards the child are negative. The current study is consistent with the interactive nature of attribution theory, as discussed by Weiner, in understanding the links between how preservice teachers' internal thoughts and emotions link to the thoughts about the pupils in their class. An example of this was indicated by two participants in the interview where their attributions seemed to relate to their negative emotions and the impact of these, and how this transferred to their perceptions and descriptions of the children's motives.

5.3 – Professional Learning

This section will discuss the theme of professional learning from placement, followed by a discussion of strategies then critical thinking and finally autonomy and confidence. All aspects will be discussed in relation to development. This part of the study aimed to examine the way in which preservice teachers believe they develop their skills in managing behaviour.

As a reminder the following research question was addressed.

RQ3: What are preservice teachers' beliefs about how they develop skills in managing misbehaviour and to what extent do these beliefs change over time?

Support

The findings suggest that the preservice teachers attribute their support to what they learn in placement, in relation to learning from a more knowledgeable peer and in relation to direct personal experience, and this supports Peter's (2012) findings. In the current study there was little evidence to suggest that they would simply use behaviourist approaches or quick fix strategies. Responses from comments indicated that they were capable of thinking about strategies in relation to the appropriateness for the child or the situation rather than discussing strategies in relation to 'one size fits all'. Furthermore, as they

progressed there is evidence to suggest that they became more discerning in their thinking and reflected upon approaches in relation to which strategies would be suitable for each child. For example, two comments in year 1 suggest that positive praise is effective, where by year 4 comments suggest that they have more insight into individual children and their needs, and that they are capable of thinking critically about the effectiveness of different approaches. This contrasts with Peters (2012) who found that most of the management techniques used were more in line with behaviourist principles, and this has been attributed to the quick success of behaviourist approaches.

The current findings from the qualitative data also indicated that they did not simply follow what the teacher was doing, and by year 4, at least, they showed insight in terms of the way they build their knowledge, for example through watching and talking with teachers whom they perceived to be effective. It was evident, through responses, that they make considered choices about which examples to follow. They also seem to become more autonomous and indicated that they think about the way they themselves would approach the behaviour rather than just following the teacher. They were aware that observation was about more than imitating the teacher's approach but was a way of reflecting on the effectiveness of approaches, and how they, as teachers, would approach a similar situation. It seems then that as they progress they do become more reflective and critical in their thinking offering some empirical evidence to support Eaude's (2014) model in terms of personal and interpersonal knowledge. The findings also support the work of McNally *et al.,* (2005) who suggest that as teachers progress they become more autonomous and Sternberg and Horvath (1995) who suggest that experts are insightful and can identify patterns and connections between behaviours.

Taking Responsibility

The findings also suggest that they take more responsibility for their own professional learning as they progress, indicated by the findings where they became less dependent on lectures for professional learning, and more reliant on their own experiences and professional reading. This might suggest that

preservice teachers in year 1 expect to learn how to teach through lectures, while in year 4 they recognise that there is not a set recipe that can be taught and that they have to take greater responsibility for their own professional learning and development. There is also evidence, as discussed in the literature and in the emotions section, that experience affects emotional responses to stimuli (Izard, 2009). Therefore, it seems important that it is acknowledged that practical experience will be greatly beneficial to preservice teachers, not only in terms of building a repertoire of responses but also in enabling them to understand and manage their own emotions. This might explain in some way why they find it the most effective support for behaviour issues. Perhaps it is also important to acknowledge the benefits in terms of learning from more knowledgeable peers in relation to Vygotsky's theories of development (1978), and direct experience in relation to Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (1977) as there seems to be some evidence that preservice teachers construct knowledge through observing and learning from more knowledgeable peers, and through direct experience. If preservice teachers can actively engage in the learning and learn from a knowledgeable peer (the teacher) as they do on practical experience then they may be gaining vital professional learning in respect of how to manage behaviour, rather than only being able to understand this from a theoretical point of view or only able to apply strategies which they have learned about in relation to the most established approaches. However, it is acknowledged that practices in schools may not reflect philosophies taught in programmes, as Hamilton (2015), suggested, and this could result in inadequate professional learning.

Autonomy and Confidence

The findings of the interviews suggest that as preservice teachers progress they become more autonomous, and while they agree that most of what they learn is from practical experience, there is evidence to suggest that they begin to draw on their own experiences as they develop. This supports models of expertise in relation to memory, where they are able to select from a repertoire of responses (Berliner, 2001; Eaude, 2014) but also able to act in novel ways

(Glaser, 1999). These findings also suggest that they respond on a cognitive level rather than an emotional level, and is consistent with the findings in the emotions section.

The interview responses also seem to indicate that as preservice teachers progress they begin to demonstrate some of the skills identified in models of expertise. However, this is not to suggest that by year four of an undergraduate programme preservice teachers have become experts, but there are elements of their reported practice and opinions/beliefs that suggest they are progressing towards gaining insights and understanding of classroom dynamics, their own and others emotions, individual differences, critical reflection and confidence in their own autonomy.

Critical Reflection

Perhaps it is not the practical elements, of behaviour management, which are taught that are important for preservice teachers per se, but the ability and opportunity to reflect and be critical. There seems to be two aspects to this. One is that the preservice teachers are gaining knowledge through practical experience but more importantly they are using this knowledge critically and applying it within the context of the situation. This was discussed in the qualitative responses in relation to the way in which they think about their role and the individual children's needs. The findings support Sternberg and Horvath's (1995) model. These findings also support Eaude's (2014) typology where the important factors are that the teacher can use knowledge in different situations by drawing on past experience and selecting appropriate approaches for the current situation. This is also consistent with Berliner (1988) who discusses it in terms of interpretation, indicating that as they progress they are functioning at a different level of cognition (see also Berliner 2001).

The qualitative data suggested that preservice teachers understand the complexities of children and children's behaviour as they progress and realise there is no 'off-the-peg' approach for managing behaviour. This contrasts with Bromfield (2006) who found that teachers wanted a recipe for managing behaviour, but supports McNally *et al's.*, (2005) findings which suggests that

preservice teachers understand that “there is no ready-made response” (p.174) because they realise that children’s behaviour is complex and needs to be understood within current and wider societal contexts.

The qualitative findings also suggest that, as they progressed, the preservice teachers were aware of the classroom dynamic and the interpersonal aspects of the classroom, and this enabled them to reflect more fully on what was happening in specific situations. They were able to critically reflect on the situation within the specific context, evident through responses which suggested that they are using their experience from the past, learning from mistakes, learning about individual children and learning from challenges, and this enables them to choose from a repertoire of strategies and approaches (Berliner 1998; Eaude, 2014).

The responses from the qualitative data suggest that there is development where the preservice teachers not only understand what is happening in the classroom but are also able to critically reflect on their own contribution to this, both positively and negatively. This is consistent with Sternberg and Horvath’s (1995) arguments that knowledge alone is not sufficient but the way in which teachers can apply knowledge is crucial. Although the authors discuss this in relation to learning and teaching, it also seems appropriate in the context behaviour management.

As stated above, responses suggested that they understand that the attitude of the teacher can influence the ethos of the classroom. Individuals also expressed the view that children need to become intrinsically motivated in order to be able to regulate their own emotions, and this is consistent with Eaude’s (2014) model in relation to the expert understanding others emotions. This was also suggested in relation to the findings in the emotions and attributions sections.

Summary

While there might be concerns that preservice teachers mainly value practical experience in developing their knowledge and skills given the discussion of current practices in schools (Hamilton, 2015), as they progress they seem to

identify the relationship between theoretical and practical knowledge and value both in supporting their professional learning. They seem to rely on their own judgements and experiences rather than relying on university modules or lectures to teach them what to do. There is evidence that they are also critically reflective and discerning when discussing their choice of strategies and approaches, rather than simply following the class teacher's approach. Findings suggest that as they progress they report that they would use a variety of approaches, and these are dependent on the child, the context and the confidence of the preservice teachers themselves, rather than taking a universal approach, following a recipe type method or having a fixed notion of the nature of children.

5.4 - Limitations

It is acknowledged that there are a number of limitations in the present study.

Firstly, there were limitations of the longitudinal study in relation to the questionnaires. Once they had been administered the questions could not be changed, although a limitation was identified in one of the questions. The pilot did not highlight the problem, and a more extensive pilot would have been worthwhile. The question used the phrase "teacher's fault" and this may have impacted the responses as the word 'fault' may have negative connotations, in respect of blame. It was evident that in responding to this question, few participants agreed with the statement, and yet the qualitative responses indicated that some participants at least did acknowledge that the teacher has significant responsibility for the behaviour in the class. A better alternative to this question would be to reword the question with a focus on the responsibility of the teacher rather than indicating that the teacher is to blame. To minimise the impact of this limitation both the quantitative and qualitative responses were explored and both were used to gain an understanding of the extent to which the participants felt that misbehaviour was their responsibility.

Furthermore, although the study was longitudinal, data was analysed at the cohort level (macro level), but because the questionnaires were anonymous, analysis could not be undertaken at the individual level (micro level). Micro level

analysis would have given more insight into individual development and potentially given a greater understanding of development in relation to individual differences. However, this was not feasible for ethical reasons as discussed in the methodology chapter. Therefore, interviews were also carried out at the end of the undergraduate programme, once preservice teachers had completed their studies and assessments, to explore aspects of development at the individual level. In doing this, the sources of data would be complementary, and help to mitigate the threat to validity.

Secondly, part of the study aimed to explore the emotions of preservice teachers in managing behaviour in the classroom. The initial questions regarding appraisals of behaviours were able to indicate the extent to which preservice teachers changed their appraisals of behaviours. However, the design did not allow direct links to be made between the appraisals and the emotional responses for different misbehaviours. On reflection, an alternative would have been to give opportunities for the participants to rate the behaviours and also to offer a corresponding emotion to each of the misbehaviours. For example, by either having a box at the end of each question or by asking a question in comments box, such as, '*of the behaviours you find most unacceptable/challenging, and least unacceptable/challenging, please explain why, and how they make you feel?*' This would have enabled an exploration of explicit links between appraisals and emotions in relation to misbehaviours. However, this could have resulted in the questionnaires becoming too complex and might have affected the response rate.

Thirdly, the limitation of the self-report is acknowledged. There would be value in observing preservice teachers dealing with behaviour issues in the classroom. However, this would have both practical and ethical implications. For the preservice teachers it would add additional pressure as they were being assessed on placement, and practically it would involve arranging observations when both preservice teachers and tutors are under significant time pressures. In order to minimise the effect of the self-report, they were asked to answer as honestly as possible. They were informed that their responses would help to understand the difficulties for students so this was directly relevant to them.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that working with my own students has potential implications and can influence the findings. One of the of the main reasons for choosing these participants was because I wanted to directly use the findings to influence our teacher education programmes, as well as producing findings which would be transferrable to similar settings.

Although the questionnaires were anonymous, the interviews were not, as discussed in the methodology section. It is acknowledged that I was in a position of power and the participants may have been inclined to respond favourably. In order to mitigate against this, as discussed in the methodology section, I was very clear about the findings of previous research in this area and explained that it is acknowledged that behaviour management is an area that affects preservice and teachers, therefore their responses would help us to understand this more fully and enable us to consider ways of supporting preservice teachers within this aspect of practice. I explained that their responses would not affect their progress in any way.

The vast majority of the assessment in our institution is anonymous, but I ensured that there were no participants interviewed whom I had previously assessed on placement or in any assessment where they were not anonymous. Furthermore, I ensured that those interviewed had already completed and received the results of all assessments.

Finally, although the questionnaires enabled an exploration of development over the preservice years, the interviews did not, as the responses relied on retrospective recall. Interviewing a selection of the same preservice teachers over the course of the programme would have given a clearer picture of their perceptions at different stages of progress rather than their reported development retrospectively. However, the interviews did focus the respondents' perceptions of how they had changed over the four years and it is hoped that the honest responses provided valuable insights into development.

Despite the limitations, this study has enabled some valuable insights to be gained in relation to preservice teachers' development in relation to their

perceptions of, and beliefs about, behaviour management and has highlighted some areas which would be worth further study.

5.5 - External Validity

As discussed in the methodology, external validity can be described in different ways depending on the research approach. Within a quantitative design this is defined as generalisability. Within a qualitative design this is described as transferability, where the focus is on what can be done with the knowledge gained, rather than its universal applicability, or generalisability (Guba and Lincoln, 1984; Maxwell, 1992).

In terms of generalisability, it seems reasonable to claim that the findings from the questionnaires are applicable to the wider population of primary preservice teachers in initial teacher education institutions, within a Scottish context. Undergraduate programmes nationally, follow a similar pattern and duration of practical placements, require similar academic qualifications for entry to programmes and the nature of programmes is broadly similar. All preservice teachers in Scotland also have to meet the national standards set by the GTCS. Furthermore, there is no evidence to suggest that the cohort is significantly different from other teacher education institutions in Scotland. Additionally, the sample was the whole cohort of undergraduates studying on the programme and therefore the study gained the view of the wide majority, rather than a select sample. It would therefore seem reasonable to suggest that other groups of preservice teachers might respond in a similar way to the participants in the current study.

On the other hand, in relation to the qualitative data, the aim was not to generalise, but to gain insights into the specific perceptions of the participants (Maxwell, 1992), and to explore the extent to which the findings might be transferable to other similar communities. It could be argued that despite the sample size, the findings might be transferable within a similar context, where preservice teachers are beginning to develop their skills and understanding of children and the teacher's role within the classroom. It is anticipated that the transparency of the findings and the analysis will enable readers to determine

whether this might be the case and come to their own conclusions. Furthermore, the discussion has offered propositions for developing future research studies to investigate some of the qualitative findings further (Punch, 2014).

Through applying a mixed method approach the data sets complement each other (see Morgan, 2007, for a discussion of pragmatic approaches). The quantitative date have enabled an understanding of preservice teachers' perceptions regarding behaviour management and the extent to which this changes as they progress. The qualitative data from the comments and the interviews, it could be argued, have added a richness to the quantitative data. Firstly, through giving more in depth understanding of the way in which the emotions influence beliefs and perceptions and why this might be the case. Secondly, by offering insights into the reasons why preservice teacher may value practical experience over university courses/inputs. Thirdly, insights have been gained regarding the reasons why some behaviours are perceived as more challenging than others. Finally, the qualitative data added insights into the ways in which preservice teachers think about children and behavioural issues, and how children's misbehaviour is understood within the classroom context as the preservice teachers progress.

5.6 - Overall Summary

The main aim of the study was to explore changes over time particularly in relation to emotions, attributions, confidence and professional learning as preservice teachers progress from 1st to 4th year of their undergraduate study to build a picture of how preservice teachers develop in managing behaviour. Overall the findings suggest that as preservice teachers progress they do develop their thinking in relation to managing behaviour in some respects. The quantitative data suggest that although they do not change their appraisals of confrontational or distracted behaviours they do change the way they think about disruptive behaviours. There was also evidence from the quantitative data that they find practical experience more valuable than university

experiences or professional reading. The qualitative data indicated that this was because they had opportunities to practise skills and learn from others.

The findings from the interviews suggest that they seem to be capable of understanding that their thinking is based on their own appraisals rather than the reality of the situation and that this can influence their thinking and practice.

The findings from the interviews also suggest that emotions play a significant part in how preservice teachers appraise children's misbehaviour and this can have a negative impact on them personally and also the way in which they think about children. There is also evidence to suggest that as they gain experience they are more able to understand and critically reflect on their own influence on the misbehaviour and the context of misbehaviour and this positively influences their emotions and attributions.

The current study has contributed to research in the field of teacher development and has added insights specifically into preservice teacher development, especially in relation to emotions, attributions and confidence, and the ways in which these change over time. It has identified some of the implications of this for preservice teachers' perceptions of how they learn about and manage children's behaviour. The study has also supported theoretical perspectives in relation to attribution and appraisal theory and has contributed to understanding how theory can help explain teachers' perceptions and how they develop, in the context of behaviour management. It has also drawn on models of expertise to examine preservice teacher development, and while it could be argued that this is making assumptions that preservice teachers are experts, there are some indications that in their final year they are beginning to demonstrate some of the attributes identified in the models. In this way the study has contributed to theory through using empirical evidence to support theoretical models.

The current study has also contributed to the professional field, in particular through examining preservice teachers' emotions and perceptions of their development. Chang, (2009) suggests that there has been little research into "the emotional aspects of teachers' lives in the field" (p.195). This was therefore identified as an area worth further study. The current study has also contributed

to the profession as there may be lessons to learn in relation to what and how we teach preservice teachers about behaviour management within ITE institutions.

Chapter 6 - Implications

The current study has identified some aspects of preservice teacher development. This has implications for teacher education and future research. Four main aspects were identified in this study. Firstly, the quantitative findings suggest that the ways in which preservice teachers appraise disruptive misbehaviours changes over time. This is not evident for confrontational and distracted behaviours. Confrontational behaviours continue to be the most challenging and distracted the least challenging. Secondly, as evidenced from the interview responses, emotions seem to play a significant part in preservice teachers' perceptions of children's misbehaviour and their responses towards this. Also, the extent to which they can be critical and reflective seems to influence their emotional responses. Thirdly, relationships are perceived to be an important aspect of behaviour management as suggested by the comments and the interview responses. Finally, as evidenced by both the quantitative and qualitative findings, preservice teachers value practical experience, over university/theoretical experience in supporting their professional learning.

6.1 – Originality and Contribution to Knowledge

This study has added to the body of knowledge in the area of preservice teachers' beliefs about behaviour management, specifically in relation to appraisals, attributions and development, through providing more data from a Scottish sample. While the findings support some views they also call some into question and point to some new issues and new directions.

Conceptual

The focus was on the concepts of appraisals and attributions and specifically in relation to Izard's (1993) characteristics of cognitive functioning in relation to emotion, identified as appraisal and evaluation; comparison, categorisation; inference and judgment/decisions; attribution and belief; and memory and anticipation. These characteristics were studied within the context of preservice teacher development.

I also explored Lazarus' (1991) concepts of primary and secondary appraisal in the context of preservice teachers' emotional development when managing misbehaviours.

Methodological

The longitudinal, mixed methods design method used in the current study has not been applied before in relation to preservice teacher development. Research of preservice teacher development in relation to appraisals, attributions and development. Furthermore, research in this area has not been carried out within the context of Scotland and therefore adds to the national and international body of research.

Findings

The findings suggest that beliefs about preservice teacher development may not be as straightforward and/or as universal as previous work has suggested. For example the findings of the current study indicated that preservice teachers do not change the way they appraise confrontational or distracted behaviours as they progress. If preservice teachers do not view distracted behaviours as unacceptable or challenging then this has implications in relation to the Scottish Government's drive to raise attainment.

A surprising result of the current study was that preservice teachers changed their appraisals of irrational outbursts, finding them less unacceptable and challenging to deal with as they progressed, and it has been suggested that this may be explained in relation to threat, as discussed in the emotions section. This is a new finding which has not been reported previously, and is worth further investigation.

New knowledge has been gained in relation to preservice teacher development. As well as those mentioned above, in relation to appraisals of behaviours the current study has indicated that the role of the emotions may be more important than has previously been highlighted. In the context of preservice teacher development it may answer some questions in relation to why preservice teachers who claim to have humanistic views follow authoritarian and behaviourist practices. The findings suggest that 'emotional hijacking' may be an issue, especially for preservice teachers at the beginning

of their studies. Although this is purely suggestive, it is worth further investigation.

Implications for Practice

The current study suggests a new emphasis in teacher education programmes on preservice teacher learning in relation to the role of the emotions in their appraisals and decision making. The findings gave some indication of the reasons why preservice teachers find practice more valuable than academic study, and this suggests that programmes might bring theory and practice together more effectively by using preservice teachers' practical experiences as a source for discussion of emotions and practices, both on a practical and a theoretical level.

This study has highlighted some alternative views and suggested some areas which are worth considering for further study. It has also focused on preservice teachers in Scotland and this is a new area of study in Scottish educational research.

6.2 - Teacher Education

In terms of emotions, there is evidence that preservice teachers are capable of understanding the impact of their emotions as they progress and this enables them to take a more objective perspective. However, it was also evident that where the emotions are at the forefront, preservice teachers may have a negative view of children and question children's motives. Within teacher education programmes it may be worthwhile focusing on emotions in order to support preservice teachers as they progress. Explicit teaching about emotions, appraisals and emotional responses, as well as the link to attributions, may enable preservice teachers to think critically about how they respond to behaviours on an emotional level and may also support them in regulating emotions. As the current study suggested, there is evidence that individuals respond in different ways, some of which are more adaptive than others and through explicitly exploring this within initial teacher education programmes preservice teachers may be supported as they begin to understand and deal with their own reactions to classroom misbehaviour. This

is also be important in relation to the concerns about how negative emotions seem to influence perceptions of children's motives. Explicit exploration of these factors may enable preservice teachers to reflect on the impact that emotions have on them but also on the way they think about children. Programmes should incorporate specific modules or opportunities for preservice teachers to understand the theories of emotions and attributions, but should explicitly develop knowledge and understanding of how the emotions can influence appraisals, attributions and teacher perceptions. Through taking a developmental approach, programmes can begin to introduce theories, progressing to a focus on theories within teaching practices and developing this in relation to individuals and their feelings and actions. As discussed below, this can be developed through micro teaching approaches.

Another aspect which was identified in this study was the importance of relationships. It was argued that although preservice teachers consider relationships to be crucial for managing children's behaviour, the findings suggested that where relationships were not reciprocal, this could have a negative emotional impact. There may be opportunities for exploring interpersonal relationships, especially asymmetrical ones, within initial teacher education programmes in order that preservice teachers not only understand the emotional aspects of relationships, but understand the potential impact of children's negative responses on relationships and teacher wellbeing. In developing programmes for teacher education, an understanding of how relationships work in a reciprocal way should be explored and this can be developed in relation to teacher-pupil relationships, and the notion of teaching as a relationship driven profession. Specific knowledge and exploration of relationships and how this can influence emotions should be developed through modules, and, as preservice teachers progress. Beginning with their own understanding of relationships and developing their knowledge of professional relationships may support them in understanding the differences between personal and professional relationships.

The findings suggest that there are important aspects which contribute to preservice teachers' understanding of behaviour issues and their ability to

manage them. As tentatively suggested in the discussion chapter, their ability to be critical and reflective might influence this. When preservice teachers are able to analyse their own perceptions and the children's misbehaviour within the context of the immediate situation, which results from prior experiences, there is some evidence that they are able to regulate their emotions and make positive attributions. One important factor identified was that they need experiences in order to be able to do this, and one aspect which should be considered is that their abilities and thinking will be developmental. However, it seems important for initial teacher education programmes to help support this development through giving opportunities within the programmes for vicarious experience of various contexts, related to behavioural issues, in order to give opportunities for critical reflection, where potential emotional responses and the attributions can be explored.

Opportunities for critical analyses of specific incidents, may support preservice teachers within the classroom, and this would also give them the opportunity to experience real life issues, which the current research study has indicated they value highly. As they progress, many preservice teachers do have opportunities to 'live' the experience through practical placements. There may be further opportunities within programmes to utilise these to enable preservice teachers to share with peers in critically considering specific situations or incidents. A controlled environment, where the preservice teachers are able to explore incidents from a detached viewpoint rather than when they are directly involved in a situation might enable them to explore them more objectively. It would also give those who have not experienced certain types of misbehaviours to reflect on how these might affect them.

In developing initial teacher education programmes it seems important, given the findings of the current study, that a focus should be on developing understanding of teachers' emotions, relationships and criticality, as discussed above. Programmes should highlight these aspects of teaching, giving them the same status as subject/curricular areas.

Through taking a micro teaching approach, preservice teachers could be supported in focusing on real life experiences (Ball and Forzani, 2009), taken

from their own or peers' practice to critically analyse and reflect on aspects of their practice in relation to the ways in which they respond to misbehaviour. This would enable them to engage in experiential learning which can authenticate their own experience (Whetten and Campbell Clark 1996). Lampert (2010) suggests that an important aspect of "learning teaching" (p.21) is engagement with practice in relation to learning while doing and analysing practices in the context of theory, (see also Darling-Hammond, 2006 for a discussion of the value of coursework and fieldwork being studied concurrently). However, Kurz and Batarelo, (2010) found that preservice teachers report that they do not always know what to look for when examining scenarios, therefore the support of education tutors is crucial to aid analysis in order that the preservice teachers can identify important factors. Although it is acknowledged that it is important that preservice teachers understand the theoretical underpinnings of their practice, by focusing on the practical elements, they can then be given opportunities to think about this in relation to theoretical perspectives, through practising and critically analysing what they have learned (Darling-Hammond, 2006). This may enable them to more confidently identify the relationship between theory and practice and bring them together to support their professional learning.

Within our institution's education programmes, these opportunities can be offered through seminars, where preservice teachers can examine their own practices, but can also be given opportunities to observe and examine the practices of experts. This is important in relation to them learning to identify errors as well as identifying quality teaching (Kurz and Baratelo, 2010). It is also important that they are given opportunities to observe experts as placement experiences are variable or they may not have seen or experienced quality teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hamilton, 2015). Although it is acknowledged that this style of teaching can be time consuming, within the current setting of our initial teacher education programmes we have the technology and staff expertise to develop these opportunities. At the moment these are utilised for teacher educators to develop their skills, but could be used within programmes to support preservice teachers.

The current study found that preservice teachers perceive confrontational behaviours to be far more challenging than distracted behaviours. This seemed to have implications for their focus on these types of behaviours rather than the learning related behaviours such as inattention and underachieving. Within initial teacher education programmes it is important to explore different notions of misbehaviour, and the implications of these for classroom management, but also to focus on inattention type behaviours which may impact on the children's ability to learn. In developing programmes it is important that preservice teachers are aware of the potential impact on learning when pupils have difficulty attending to lessons. An initial focus on how to gain and maintain attention is important for beginner teachers in order to develop their confidence in managing these types of behaviours. However, perhaps more important is that preservice teachers gain an appreciation of the importance of this for learning and attainment. As they develop they need to become more aware of their responsibility for children's learning, and a focus on the relationship between focused learning and attainment needs to be highlighted within subject-based and professional theory modules.

In light of the areas which have been identified, it seems important that programmes are explicit in highlighting the role of the teacher and that preservice teachers have opportunities to consciously practise their skills. Although deliberate practice was not a focus of the current study, it seems, given the value placed on placement experiences suggested by the current study, that it may be worth exploring this more fully in relation to practical experiences in the context of behaviour management. This might be an area to develop within initial teacher education and through future research. Although the current study has no evidence to suggest that preservice teachers intentionally engage in deliberate practice, it does suggest that practice is perceived to be crucial for them in developing skills, and it may be worthwhile using this to develop programmes which focus on practical experience, in order to develop skills.

Deliberate practice enables a novice to practice and critique practice (Ball and Forzani, 2009) in order to develop expertise. The notion of the practice being

deliberate and sustained seems important, as it ensures that there is a focus on developing particular skills through explicitly and intentionally practising them (Eysenck and Keane, 2010; Ericsson, 1993). Ericsson (1993) identifies behaviours which are necessary to constitute deliberate practice and subsequent research by Dunn and Schriner (1993) applied these to teaching (figure 10).

Behaviours
Teachers should perceive the behaviour as highly relevant to improving teacher effectiveness
Teachers should acknowledge that considerable effort is required to initiate and maintain the behaviours over time
Teachers should perform these behaviours frequently
They need not find the behaviours enjoyable in themselves

Figure 10 Deliberate Practice Behaviours for Teachers adapted from Dunn and Schriner (1999, p.634)

In relation to teacher education, preservice teachers are given opportunities to practise their skills during practicum placements. These placements allow the preservice teachers to not only gain content and pedagogical knowledge but enable them to observe experts in the field of behaviour management and also practise these skills on a daily basis. Within the Scottish context preservice teachers undertaking a four year programme will spend up to 30 weeks on placements practising their teaching skills. Although the skills are being practised the notion of deliberate practice may not be made explicit, as intimated above, in relation to the behaviours identified by Dunn and Schriner (1999), even though, in Scotland, they are encouraged to reflect on their practice and set developmental goals.

In relation to deliberate practice, then, it is important that the practice is focused and consistent, and the assumption is made that the novice recognises the skills as important for improving practice and wants to practise the skills. Dunn and Schriner (1999, p.633) suggest that “at the foundation of the notion of deliberate practice is the fact that deliberate practice refers to an activity that provides optimal opportunity for learning and skill acquisition” and this seems

important in relation to the arguments that experience and expertise are not necessarily the same.

Dunn and Schriner's study is important in that it identified the activities teachers engage in which can be related to the behaviours which constitute deliberate practice (figure 10), but these are mainly procedure related, for example planning, preparation and evaluation.

In the case of behaviour management it is perhaps important for teachers to take opportunities to explicitly focus on developing skills rather than just continuing to follow the same procedures even when they are not effective or by simply changing the strategies. It may also be important for the developing practitioner to focus on developing memory structures, and reflecting on the attributions they make and the emotions they feel.

It seems then that practice might be made more explicit in relation to it being deliberate in order to support and develop preservice teachers' skills, and this is the focus of a recent study by Bronkhorst, Meijer, Koster, and Vermunt, (2013), who suggest that preservice teachers can be given opportunities to explicitly focus on developing skills and will benefit from being the agents of their own professional learning in relation to deliberate practice.

6.3 - Future Research

This study has drawn on psychological theories of appraisal and attributions to explore some of the aspects which might contribute to effective management of behaviour. However, other theoretical perspectives might be a focus. For example, social psychology may offer insights in relation to group dynamics and social belonging, and the impact on preservice teachers and pupils. If preservice teachers understand these theories they may be able to critically examine their own and the children's position in the classroom. This may enable them to develop an appreciation of the classroom where belonging is key and the impact and consequences of marginalisation are understood.

Although the current study examined the group over the period of their undergraduate study, a longitudinal study at the micro level may give further insights into development. Research could also examine emotions of

preservice teachers more fully, with a focus on individual differences in the context of gender. This might give further insights, especially in the current climate where there is a concern regarding the under representation of males in primary teaching.

I plan to continue research in order to gain specific insights into the thoughts and beliefs of individuals and the way in which this influences their actions. More specifically, there are a number of areas of particular interest to me. In the main, I am interested in the impact and influence of emotional responses and individual differences, as intimated above. My immediate plan is to develop this through examining this area more fully, using a qualitative design with a focus on preservice teachers as they transition into fully qualified practitioners.

In relation to initial teacher education, I plan to undertake work to explore aspects of our programmes with regard to practical experience and examine ways of integrating theory and practice more effectively, through studying the notion of deliberate practice in teacher education more fully. As discussed in the implications section, although preservice teachers engage in practice on placement, a study focused on using practice in a deliberate way in relation to managing behaviour, may offer further insights into development in this area.

A study to explore the impact of micro teaching opportunities and critical analysis of real classroom incidents, may prove insightful in building on the value preservice teachers place on practical knowledge and experience, as discussed above in relation to the findings and implications of the current study. I am specifically interested in studying how micro teaching can be utilised to focus on aspects of behaviour management particularly in relation to how preservice teachers respond physically and emotionally. This would involve giving opportunities for participants to view and analyse their own behaviours within the classroom.

I am also interested in furthering my research experience through developing a deeper understanding of qualitative research approaches. Throughout this study I have been more inclined to view that qualitative research can give rich insights into the thoughts and beliefs of participants. I believe that this is crucial for a full understanding of how people behave and their motives for doing so,

and would enable greater insights into the perceptions and practices of preservice teachers as they progress.

I plan to explore research design, further, in relation to, feminist approaches, in terms of power relationships, and postmodern ideas in relation to rejecting grand narratives and objective reality. I feel that this would give me more insight into alternative ways of thinking about and constructing research studies.

Chapter 7 - Concluding Remarks – Reflection

On reflection, through undertaking this professional doctorate, I have developed a number of skills and attitudes. I have developed my skills in critical reading and thinking, my questioning of current ideas and my practical skills as a researcher. I have also developed my attitude towards research especially in relation to the subjective nature of knowledge.

The journey has been a very challenging one. At the beginning I felt that, to some extent, I already possessed the skills necessary to conduct a research project and was confident in beginning my journey. However, as I progressed I found many challenges along the way.

Initially I think I was too ambitious in believing what I could achieve and perhaps this is reflected in the breadth of what I tried to research. Although the areas I wanted to explore did not change, I did initially overestimate what I was able to achieve. I had planned to collect both qualitative and quantitative data at the end of each year of preservice teachers' study, through questionnaires, collecting weekly reflections from a sample of participants and through interviews at the end of year 2 and year 4. I realised that this was too ambitious and would result in too many data sets, and that I needed to focus rather than having such a wide range. Thus, I decided to limit the data sets to the questionnaire and the interviews at year 4. I also felt at the analysis stage that there was one set of data which did not readily fit coherently into the whole picture in terms of appraisals and attributions. Therefore, I decided that these data would be better utilised in a separate study, and will therefore be reported in a separate article.

I also feel that initially I had more of a limited view of research and felt that I could achieve my aims fairly confidently. At the outset I thought that the research would be straightforward in relation to collecting and analysing data. I feel that I underestimated that the subjective nature of social research results in untidiness. Initially I feel that I had more of a positivist view of research until I read more widely and considered different philosophical perspectives in relation to notions of knowledge. Furthermore, through taking a mixed method

approach I realised that the analysis of the data was complex and I found it challenging to bring the qualitative and quantitative findings together.

I realise now that I had underestimated the challenge of the work I was undertaking. This coupled with working full time in a very demanding position, meant that I had limited opportunities to give prolonged attention to my doctoral work, and this proved particularly challenging in respect of developing a cohesive understanding of the topic. In order to overcome this I found that I had to really focus on different aspects of the topic. I used the limited time I had to read and digest the arguments related to different factors of preservice teachers' development and to engage in writing and synthesising ideas as I progressed through the literature. This initially resulted in limited criticality in relation to individual findings from research; I feel I had a firm overview but lacked the critical engagement. However, with focused time I was able to hone in on specific articles and critically analyse these in depth to refine my thinking. Within the literature review I critically reviewed a number of articles enabling me to explore research design and methodology more fully, and this led me to critique and question methodology. For example, as discussed in the literature review, Prosen *et al's.,* (2011) study used first year preservice teachers to observe teacher behaviours in the classroom. Given the literature on expertise regarding the limitations of novices to see the whole picture and to interpret what they see, I found the methodology of this study to be limited, but also recognised the strengths. I was also surprised to find that although I had assumed that cultural differences might be evident in preservice teachers' perceptions and practices, this was rarely the case. When examining a range of international research studies similar perceptions and practices were evident across a range of cultures.

I also became increasingly aware of the complexity of social and educational research; that there is not necessarily a clearly defined line from previous to current research. I realised that within my study I was not simply trying to confirm or refute a theory/idea, with a clear hypothesis which could be tested. This proved to be challenging for me in trying to build an overall picture and to sharpen my focus, especially when I embarked on the discussion section. On

reflection, I think that I was initially viewing research as a hypothesis driven process and trying to 'fit' my study into this shape. As I progressed I realised this is not always the way to proceed. I think it was really about me changing my attitude towards research design, and learning more about the range and diversity of different approaches. It was also about becoming more realistic about the limits of my study in terms of what it was able to claim. Therefore, through challenging my own thinking in relation to what research should and can do, and by focusing on specific relevant studies I believe I was able to sharpen my focus and develop a clearer picture of how my study has built on other work in the field.

In relation to research design, reading has certainly influenced the way I now think about the purpose and aims of research. I feel that I have progressed to viewing research as not only a way of presenting the objective world, but to viewing it as also a way of understanding the reality of individuals and their experiences. This is consistent with my understanding of the nature of subjective reality in relation to the psychological theories presented. Furthermore, through reading I have gained a clearer understanding of the subjective, rather than the objective position of the researcher within the research process. Throughout the process I have recognised more fully the importance of acknowledging my own views and perceptions as a practitioner as well as a researcher, so necessarily positioning myself within the research. I feel that I initially thought that the more objective or neutral I could be, the better my research would be. This not only overlooked my own subjective experiences but also the subjective experiences of the participants, and can prevent a reflexive approach to the research. However, in developing my skills as a researcher I recognise the importance of my own position within the research, as acknowledged and discussed within the methodology chapter. I also recognise more fully that the findings are an interpretation and exploration of individual perceptions. Although, within some research, generalisability may be important, it is not always the purpose of research. Qualitative data can also be important in giving insights into individuals' subjective experience and within this context generalisability is not always the main aim.

In relation to developing writing, the notion of writing as learning, as opposed to writing as the end product (Punch, 2014), particularly resonated with me. I have always found the act of writing to be enabling in relation to developing thinking and ideas. Although I personally felt this, it was interesting to begin to understand this in relation to writing within a social research context. I feel that I have really used writing as a tool for my learning. Drafting and redrafting has enabled me not only to develop ideas more succinctly, but to develop my criticality and reflexivity through engaging in the process of writing. This has given me confidence in progressing as a researcher, where these skills can be utilised in the future.

Furthermore, I have learned the importance of careful planning, from the initial idea to the completion of an extensive piece of work. I feel that for future projects I will be more attuned to, and aware of, the potential pitfalls and will plan better informed investigations.

I now feel, that although I have still much to learn, I am more confident in thinking a project through from beginning to end. I also feel that I am more informed of different research approaches, and the philosophical underpinnings of these. This will enable me to think critically about, and confidently justify, the design of future projects. Furthermore, having learned of the range of different types of analysis, I feel more confident in choosing an approach which best suits the topic I am exploring and which meets the project aims. Having examined the nature of knowledge and how it is understood, I am committed to exploring aspects of people's behaviour from their subjective perspective rather than solely relying on a positivist approach in my thinking. Although my position has not fundamentally changed from when I began my project, I now feel much more committed to this philosophy particularly in relation to educational research.

Summary

On the whole this endeavour has enabled me to further develop skills in reading, critically analysing and synthesising literature, and also in developing a systematic approach to research. It has enabled me to explore and question

research design and approaches and to develop my skills in writing an extensive piece of work.

In conclusion, I feel that I have developed significantly, not only in relation to my skills as a researcher, but also in understanding my own limitations and remaining positive about this. I have always been confident in my ability to undertake and complete tasks competently. However, I feel that this work has challenged that confidence at times, especially in relation to the level of criticality required to complete such a major piece of work, and also when pressures of work and limited time have reduced opportunities for me to have extended periods of focused time for thinking and writing. However, support and continued constructive feedback and counsel from my supervisors has encouraged me to think more deeply, question more acutely and develop more critically. This has given me the confidence and motivation to continually challenge myself. On reflection although challenging, for me, completion of this work, and the skills I have developed in doing so, has been a significant achievement and enabled me to develop both as a practitioner and researcher. The knowledge and skills I have developed will most definitely impact on my own thinking but also on my capacity to further support preservice teachers within the institution.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 - Stage model of developing expertise (Adapted from Berliner, 1988)

Stages	Characteristics	Behaviours
Novice – First year beginner teachers	• Rule bound • Each element of task is labelled and learned • Taught context free rules such as give praise for right answer • Inflexible • Conforms to what has been learned about procedures • Learn objective facts • Gain practical experience • Little sense of what is important • Respond rather than actively determine events through personal action • Take little responsibility for events	**Rational**
Advanced Beginner - Second or third year of teaching	• Similarities across contexts are identified • Experience and knowledge are integrated • Episodic memory is developed • Strategic knowledge is developed – breaking rules depending on individual pupil/ context • Still little sense of what is important • Respond rather than actively determine events through personal action • Take little responsibility for events	**Rational**
Competent - Third or fourth year of teaching	• Make conscious choices about what to do • Accept personal responsibility because of ability to make choices • Set goals and have means of reaching them • Know what is important because of experience • Have more personal control – not detached from the situation • Develop flexibility • Vivid memories of successes and failures	**Rational**
Proficient – Fifth year of teaching	• Experience becomes holistic • Know-how develops • See similarities between disparate events • Still analytical and deliberate	**Intuitive**

Expert – Few members reach this level	• Intuitive grasp of situations • Sense what to do in non-deliberate and non - analytical way • Do things effortlessly – automatic • Know what to do at the right time • Do not consciously choose what to attend to or what to do	**Arational**

Appendix 2 - "Contents of the Expert Teaching Prototype" (Sternberg and Horvath, 1995:15)

Characteristics	**Example of practice**
Knowledge:	
Content Knowledge	Expert knows principles of coordinate geometry
Pedagogical Knowledge • Content - specific • Content - non-specific	 Expert knows lesson plans or agendas for teaching principles of coordinate geometry Expert knows routines for distributing and collecting homework with minimal disruption
Practical Knowledge • Explicit • Tacit	 Expert knows school-district criteria for special-education services Expert knows to whom to speak to obtain special-education services for a student who does not fit standard identification criteria
Efficiency:	
Automisation	Expert supervises collection and distribution of homework while thinking ahead in lesson plan
Executive Control • Planning • Monitoring • Evaluating	 Expert anticipates difficulties in the execution of a lesson plan Expert detects students' failures of comprehension or interest during the execution of a lesson plan Expert revises a lesson plan for future use, based on difficulties encountered
Reinvestment of cognitive resources	Expert uses the distribution and collection of homework as an opportunity to observe and evaluate the conduct of a particular student
Insight	
Selective Encoding	Expert notes that students are having trouble plotting points outside the upper right quadrant of the Cartesian grid
Selective Combination	Expert notes that trouble with plotting points outside the upper-right quadrant and trouble in calculating interpoint distances together reflect a failure to master the concept of negative numbers
Selective Comparison	Expert employs an analogy between negative numbers and moneys owed in debt to clear up students' misunderstanding

Appendix 3 - "A preliminary typology of teacher expertise in the primary classroom" (Eaude, 2014:15)

Aspects of Knowledge (generic)	Desired Purposes (age-related)	Expert Teacher Attributes (age and context related)
Domain Knowledge of:		
Content/subject	Deep representations of content and barriers to learning to enhance selection of activities	Breadth and depth of knowledge of subject and progression
Potential links between subject areas	Provision of coherent curriculum offer with appropriate balance, breadth and depth of experience	Ability to meet multiple objectives
Child development theory	Match of activities and experiences to individual and group needs	Understanding how theories reflect and may affect practice
Relationship between cognition and affect	Appropriate balance of pace/space, challenge/nurture, structure/freedom, intellectual/affective needs	Ability to plan activities taking account of cognitive and affective aspects interact
Links between types of knowledge and aims and purposes	Coherence of immediate and long term aims	Match between aims and purposes and actions
Craft Knowledge (how):		
Setting, and awareness of classroom ethos, climate and mood	Appropriate match of activities and experiences to current state of mind of class	Authoritative relationship based on values such as trust and fairness, care and challenge
Setting of performance and learning objectives/goals	Differentiated level of challenge for individuals and groups	Match of challenge to a wide range of children's needs
Testing of hypothesis and strategies, recognising interaction between self and context	Adaptation of objectives/goals and activities and experiences in response to information feedback	Ability, and confidence, to plan, self-monitor and adapt plans in the moment
Monitoring of children's learning through observation, listening and other means	Gathering of information to inform both feedback to children (and others) and planning	Emphasis on varying aspects of child's learning to inform feedback and planning
Processing and providing feedback	Provision of varied feedback according to task, child and 'next steps'	Match the type of feedback to the needs and likely responses of learners

Personal and Interpersonal knowledge:		
Sensitivity to context	Awareness of how prior and current experience affects children's learning	Attunement to children's prior experience and current emotional state
Modelling appropriate values through actions	Development of appropriate learning and other behaviours	Enactment of values in practice
Recognition of, and care for, diverse backgrounds and needs	Respect for children's differing needs and responses	Authenticity of responses to different groups
Assessment of children's interests and responses, strengths and weaknesses	In-the-moment selection from a repertoire of appropriate strategies	Confidence backed by informed judgement

Appendix 4 - Excerpts from the Standards in relation to assessment of behaviour management

The following standards came into effect on 1st August 2013

General Teaching Council for Scotland (2012) *Standards for Registration*

3.2.2 Develop positive relationships and positive behaviour strategies

Student teachers:

- Show awareness of educational research and local and national advice and demonstrate the ability to use a variety of strategies to build relationships with learners, promote positive behaviour and celebrate success
- Apply a school's positive behaviour policy, including strategies for understanding and preventing bullying
- Know how and when to seek the advice of colleagues in managing behaviour
- Demonstrate the ability to justify the approach taken in managing behaviour

Prior to the new Standards the following Standards were used to assess preservice teachers:

General Teaching Council for Scotland (2006) *Standard for Initial Teacher Education*

By the end of the programme of initial teacher education, student teachers will:

2.2.2 Manage pupil behaviour fairly, sensitively and consistently by the use of appropriate rewards and sanctions and know when it is necessary to seek advice.

- Show awareness of national advice and demonstrate the ability to use a variety of techniques to encourage pupils, promote positive behaviour and actively celebrate success
- Know how to carry out a school's discipline policy, including strategies for preventing bullying and sharing responsibility with colleagues for managing pupil behaviour in and around the school
- Know how and when to seek the advice of colleagues in managing pupils' behaviour or in identifying and responding to a pupil whose behaviour may show distress or the need for support
- Demonstrate that they can justify the approach which they take to managing pupils
- Role-model positive behaviour and communication from which pupils can learn.
- Support pupils to develop positive social skills

Appendix 5 – Study One – Questionnaire Schedule

Rating Scale for all parts of the study

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Unsure**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**

Part one of the study – Appraisals of Unacceptability and Challenge

These Behaviours are unacceptable (Please add to the list)	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
Shouting out					
Refusing to do what is asked					
Irrational outbursts					
Being off Task					
Arguing with staff					
Fighting - within or out with the class					
Interrupting					
Distracting others					
Lack of attention					
Continually leaving seat and wandering					
Ignoring warnings/sanctions					
Underachieving/Poor quality of work					
Additional Comments					

These Behaviours are very challenging (Please add to the list)	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
Shouting out					
Refusing to do what is asked					
Irrational outbursts					
Being off Task					
Arguing with staff					

Fighting - within or out with the class					
Interrupting					
Distracting others					
Lack of attention					
Continually leaving seat and wandering					
Ignoring warnings/sanctions					
Underachieving/Poor quality of work					
Additional Comments					

Part two of the study - Attributions and Confidence

Consider the statements below and state the extent to which you agree with them	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
Children usually behave the same way most of the time and in most situations in school					
If children are not behaving it is the teacher's fault					
The teacher can employ different strategies effectively for managing behaviour					
Additional Comments					

Consider the statements below and state the extent to which you agree with them	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
I don't worry about confrontations because I can deal with them					
I can deal with low level disruptions confidently					
I can see potential triggers before a challenging situation occurs					
I get to know children quickly					
Additional Comments					

Part three of the study - Knowledge Acquisition

These have helped me to deal with challenging behaviour	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
Professional Reading					
School Policies					
Lectures					
Practical Experiences					
Observations					
Additional Comments					

Additional Comments - Beliefs about Behaviour

Is there anything else you wish to add about your beliefs about behaviour?

The following question was asked on the questionnaire but has not been included in the analysis as discussed

List below some of the behaviour management strategies you have seen used/used (e.g table points; time out; restorative discussion etc.) **To what extent do you agree that they are effective?**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
Additional Comments					

Appendix 6 – Study Two - Interview Schedule

Research Behaviour Management

Status:	Gender:	Year of Study:	Age:

Main Aspects	Questions	Responses
1. Relationships	• Which Classes have you taught? • How have you developed relationships with the children? • In what ways, if any, has this supported your class management?	
2. Behaviour Issues	• What kinds of behaviour would you see as being inappropriate/appropriate? • What are the main challenges for student teachers in practice? • What would you see as the most/least challenging behaviours?	
3. Cognitive and Affective reactions	• What do you think when a child(ren) behaves inappropriately? • What do you think when a child(ren) behaves appropriately? • How do you feel emotionally when a child(ren) behaves inappropriately? • How do you feel emotionally when a child(ren) behaves appropriately?	
4. Behavioural reactions	• What do you do when a child(ren) behaves inappropriately? • What do you do when a child(ren) behaves appropriately? • How do you deal with behavioural issues/ which strategies would you use? (proactive/reactive)	
5. Attributions / causes for inappropriate behaviours	• What do you see as some of the main causes of inappropriate/appropriate behaviour? • In what ways might a child/children be responsible for their behaviour? • In what ways might the teacher be responsible? • What support would you seek in dealing with issues?	

6. Personal Views	• What would you say are the most important aspects of behaviour management? • In what ways. If any, would you say that learning and behaviour are connected? • Can you tell me about some of the ways you have developed your knowledge and understanding about behaviour management?	
7. Additional comments	• Is there anything you would like to add?	

Appendix 7

Example of interview responses - initial themes and analysis (Participant 4)

Identified Themes

Appropriate/Inappropriate	**Most/Least Challenging**	**Emotions**	**Attributions**
Relationships	**Strategies**	**Learning**	**Confidence**

Research Behaviour Management Participant 4

Status: Student Teacher	Gender: Female	Year of Study: 4th year	Age: 25

Main Aspects	Questions	Responses	
8. Relationships	• Which Classes have you taught? • How have you developed relationships with the children? • In what ways, if any, has this supported your class management?	P5, P6, P2, Nursery Developing Relationships through having an interest in the children's lives outside school, show and tell, working with small groups to focus on getting to know the children, talking to them at the beginning of the day. I tell them a bit about myself and they seem to remember this. It makes me more personable not a stranger. This helps when there is conflict between children I use my own experience and relate it to what's happening – 'that happened to me and this is what I did' This has supported the class management because you have to build	*Relationships important for BM, empathy seems to be important.* *Seems to be about building mutual respect and not wanting to let the other person down – maybe this links to reciprocity in relationships*

		respect. We were doing friendships and I talked about what I like in a friend and how my friends have helped me relating it to my own life. Because they respect me they don't want to make me feel bad or disappointed. I talk to them on their own level it's straightforward.	
9. Behaviour Issues	• What kinds of behaviour would you see as being inappropriate/appropriate? • What are the main challenges for student teachers in practice? • What would you see as the most/least challenging behaviours?	Bad manners, interrupting each other, putting other children down that quite upsets me, disrespect to each other, not listening. Constantly forgetting to bring things that annoys me, being off task annoys me. I've changed because in first year I wanted them to be quiet all the time but it's less about control now It's more about the work being done even when they are a bit noisy. I feel uncomfortable when children are being pushy. I hate when they clipe-tell tales. Main challenge – keeping children on task, children listening long enough, if they don't listen they don't know what they are doing then that's been a waste of time. I used to be quite lenient in case they didn't like me, now I know they still like you, it was a lack of confidence in first	*Inappropriate linked to the personal and to emotions* *Development/confidence* *Inappropriate being linked to personal emotion* *Discusses on task in relation to children's learning*

		year. In first and second year I had a problem with consistency because I would say the next person who shouts out will get a warning then a child who never usually shouts out will shout out the answer and I would say well done then the others said it wasn't fair and it wasn't. Most challenging, all out defiance where do you go from there. Least challenging fidgeting, looking out of the window if I feel confident they are attending but this has been picked up by my tutors and teachers, they say they should have pencils down and looking at the teacher.	*Development but linked to emotions wanting them to like me and linked this to lack of confidence* *Most challenging is linked to confrontational behaviour* *Least challenging linked to distracted behaviour* *The link is related to confidence most challenging where do you go, least challenging, I feel confident*
10. Cognitive and Affective reactions	• What do you think when a child(ren) behaves inappropriately? • What do you think when a child(ren) behaves appropriately? • How do you feel emotionally when a child(ren) behaves inappropriately? • How do you feel emotionally when a child(ren) behaves appropriately?	I think about the context at the time – is it after playtime where something might have happened, wonder if there are other reasons like home issues, diet, sleeplessness, or are they testing me because I'm new. When a child behaves well, say is helping someone I think they are doing this to draw attention to themselves, is it because I'm watching, is it for me?	*Seems to be linking positive behaviour to the child wanting to be seen as good* *When bad behaviour thinks about the context what might have caused it but when good behaviour thinks about the chid in terms of the child doing it for outward recognition.* *Starting to analyse behaviour – what are the children's reasons/motives?*

		How I feel depends on the child – are they usually like this, maybe this isn't very professional but a bit hurt. There was one child in P2 and I was very nice to him and involved him maybe I was showing favouritism but when I told the children I was leaving he said "good" and I felt emotional, I was hurt because I thought he didn't like me and I had tried so hard. I blamed myself and feel sad and upset. When I go home it doesn't matter about how the rest of the day went, if I had a really good lesson or not I feel upset that this has been a bad day. I tend to look on the negative side. When they are good I feel I owe them something. I feel like I want to give them a reward. I think I feel more warm towards them I like them a lot more. I feel grateful.	*Feels negative toward the children and the whole negative incident takes over to make the whole day seem negative when positive then feels positive towards the children.* *Attributions to the self when negative behaviours but then when positive the attributions are not directed towards the self.* *Seems to be real impact when taken personally trying to work out what has happened, blames self*
11. Behavioural reactions	• What do you do when a child(ren) behaves inappropriately? • What do you do when a child(ren) behaves appropriately? • How do you deal with behavioural issues/ which strategies would you use? (proactive/reactive)	I tell them I'm not happy. I ask them to tell me why they have done what they did. Restorative – I watched the teacher and this is what she does. If they do something to another child I ask them how they think the child feels and why they did it. I give warnings and consequences. I emulate the teachers. I think it's best to do that so the children have the same routine and they know the expectations.	*Showing that she observes and reflects on what the teacher does*

		When they are behaving I give them praise lots of praise but I try not to do too much praise, I give rewards like games at the end of the day for ten minutes like heads down thumbs up. Maybe I shouldn't but I say **thank you to them.** Proactive/Reactive- sometimes it's good to do a bit of both. I like to be proactive but I would like to be more proactive. Cos sometimes you don't know what's affecting me like if I feel bad I might not give them the rewards where if I feel good, happy I might give more rewards where if I was more proactive I would be able to plan ahead better.	*Links to above I feel grateful* *Seeing that the emotional reactions are linked to the way she feels personally, so when I feel bad I react badly and when I feel good I react positively, Linking this to proactive approaches, if they are in place it won't matter if I feel bad or good I will respond in the same way.*
12. Attributions/causes for inappropriate behaviours	• What do you see as some of the main causes of inappropriate/appropriate behaviour? • In what ways might a child/children be responsible for their behaviour?	Main causes are how much the children respect the teacher and each other, fairness of the teacher, consistency of the teacher, children's home life, mood, diet, time of day. Child responsibility – changes with age need to start taking responsibility for	*Teacher, home life, other factors, child but is dependent on age of child. No clear attributions it depends on a number of factors.*

	• In what ways might the teacher be responsible? • What support would you seek in dealing with issues?	own behaviour. If they know the expectations and still do the wrong thing then that's bad. Deliberate and planned is very bad. Predetermined is very bad but spontaneous reactions are not so bad. It's the motive that's important. Children with a bad home life get away with more. Appropriate behaviour – If a child shows empathy towards another child that's an indication of good behaviour. Sometimes they are driven by a need to be right. Motives are not necessarily good they are just doing it for praise or teacher approval. Teacher responsibility what I've already said. Having high expectations that are shared with the children, if I can't control sometimes it's the child, can't always blame the teacher.	*Differentiating between deliberate misbehaviour and unintentional – depends on child's motives* *Seems to be quite suspicious about children's motives whether they behave appropriately or inappropriately*
13. Personal Views	• What would you say are the most important aspects of behaviour management? • In what ways. If any, would you say that learning and behaviour are connected? • Can you tell me about some of the ways you have developed your knowledge and understanding about behaviour management?	Class ethos, relationships between children and teacher, between children, high consistent but reasonable expectations, good knowledge of all children, but sometimes it's not good and you have preconceived ideas about the children – the teacher says ' watch out for that one' and you automatically watch out.	*Showing some level of critical reflection*

		behaviour can prevent learning if the children are distracted not on task they are not learning. Better behaved children learn more. Home circumstances are where they learn behaviours, mostly not all the time there can be other factors. Own knowledge and understanding – mostly talking to the teacher talking to peers about their experiences and actions, through observation watching teachers and children, what children do with other teachers. I haven't really read anything because we haven't had an essay on it.	*Linking good behaviour to good learning* *Sees learning as mainly linked to learning from practice, learning from a more knowledgeable peer. Linking professional reading to writing an essay rather than using knowledge in practice*
14. Additional comments	• Is there anything you would like to add?	In first year I felt nervous, self-conscious about behaviour management, felt like I was playing at it, using teachers' phrases, lack of confidence in front of teachers. By third/fourth year I was more confident. In first year if I had to speak to a child I would go right up to them and say it very quietly in their ear so the teacher wouldn't hear me. By third year you feel more confident. It's better when the teacher isn't there.	*Development related to confidence and emotions such as nervousness, self consciousness*

Appendix 8

Responses related to inappropriate/appropriate; most/least challenging behaviours

Appraisals	Year/ Participant	Responses
Acceptable/ Unacceptable	**Year 1**	***Some of these behaviours such as lack of attention will not cause disruption to others***
Appropriate	**Participant 1**	• asking good questions, being open, listening to others, respecting others opinions. Being on task, enthusiastic, following your own rules.
	Participant 2	• showing respect
Inappropriate	**Participant 1**	• ***refusing to do tasks***, violence to staff and children, bad language. ***Shouting out is most annoying.***
	Participant 2	• lack of respect and rudeness, ***children telling the teacher what to do is very inappropriate*** Very challenging behaviour is different because there is a reason for it.
	Participant 3	• ***ignoring***, not listening, ***not being on task, shouting out, aggressive behaviour***, bullying, being nasty.
	Participant 4	• Bad manners, ***interrupting each other***, putting other children down ***that quite upsets me***, disrespect to each other, not listening. Constantly forgetting to bring things that annoys me, ***being off task annoys me.***
Least Challenging	**Participant 1**	• when I know what to do. When I think about it beforehand. • ***When it is recognised by the school and others so there's more support***. Others will bring it up like parents and other children when a child is disrupting or hurting others
	Participant 3	• The least challenging is ***keeping them on task with time it becomes easier.***
	Participant 4	• Least challenging fidgeting, looking out of the window if I feel confident they are attending but this has been picked up by my tutors and teachers, they say they should have pencils down and looking at the teacher.

Most Challenging	**Participant 1**	• ***blatantly refusing to do work. Takes all the attention and the onus is on the teacher***. You try to give choices but it might not work. • ***Violent child, it depends on the support from DHT/HT onus is often on the whole school with clear steps to take***
	Participant 2	• there are steps you can take but ***low level persistent behaviour is more challenging to deal with.*** • ***Children not doing their work is most challenging***
	Participant 3	• Challenges are different in different schools
	Participant 4	• ***keeping children on task,*** children listening long enough, ***if they don't listen they don't know what they are doing then that's been a waste of time.*** • Most challenging, ***all out defiance where do you go from there?*** • ***little disruptive things such as shouting out or being cheeky/answering back are more challenging than bigger scale issues such as storming out of class/throwing things***

Appendix 9
Comments from questionnaire related to emotions

Appraisals	Year/ Participant	Responses
Negative Behaviour linked to negative emotion *(code 2)*	**Year 1** **Year 2** **Year 3**	• **I worry about confrontations despite being able to handle most situations relatively well** • Confrontations question – not okay with a parent who is arguing • **I still worry about behaviour management situations.** • Confrontation question – It depends on the extent • **I think all teachers feel worried about certain confrontations as each child is different you never know what to expect** • **I worry but when they arise I can deal with appropriately** • Confrontation question - **Much easier in a rural school**
Impact *(code 3)*	**Year 2 – Unacceptable** **Year 2 – Challenging** **Year 3 – Unacceptable**	• ***I find it very frustrating when pupils talk over other pupils.*** *I would always stop the pupil who is talking and ask them to wait till everyone else is listening because the rest of the class is rude.* • *Some behaviours can be dealt with quite simply –* ***if a child is distracting others they could be moved. However, behaviours such as arguing with staff can be a lot more difficult to deal with and can feel quite personal at times*** • ***when other children are affected by the certain behaviours it can become unfair and create a negative learning environment***

Appendix 10
Responses to interview question regarding *'Cognitive and Affective Reactions'*

Appraisals	Year/ Participant	Responses
Positive behaviours inked to emotions *(code 1)*	**Participant 1**	• When children are behaving appropriately you feel **satisfied, nice, happy**
	Participant 4	• When they are good **I feel I owe them something**. I feel like I want to give them a reward. I think I feel **more warm towards** them **I like them a lot more**. **I feel grateful**.
Negative behaviour linked to emotions *(code 2)*	**Participant 1**	• When they are not behaving appropriately I feel **angry, emotional, feel I can't get through I cry** how do I deal with this. I look for solutions. **I feel helpless.** • Refusals – I feel **totally stressed out**, what will other people think • I think how is it impacting on his learning? It's really frustrating. • Most challenging behaviours – blatantly refusing to do work. Takes all the attention and the onus is on the teacher. You try to give choices but it might not work causes stress because of what others might think, • One class I had a kid threw a chair, when I was in second year. I had to think on my feet and follow procedures **I was scared for the children**
	Participant 2	• When it's low level, I feel **annoyed, frustrated and angry** • With challenging behaviour I think I need to make sure no one gets hurt, get the others away. I think of how to stop it like raising my voice. Think about dealing with the other children and then deal with it. I go through steps, give instructions sanctions. I **don't get angry I act calm,** so I regulate my emotions
	Participant 3	• Inappropriate behaviour - initially when inexperienced **I react emotionally, get angry**. I Feel **worried, angry, frustrated**; initially get **anxious** about what will happen next
	Participant 4	• Bad manners, interrupting each other, putting other children down that quite **upsets me**, disrespect to each other, not listening.

		• Constantly forgetting to bring things that **annoys me**, **being off task annoys me.** • I feel uncomfortable when children are being pushy. • I hate when they 'clipe'-tell tales.
Emotions linked to reactions / thoughts / impact on the self *(code 3)*	**Participant 1**	• He doesn't like me • If you **take it personally then you get more emotional and negative**. • Is there something I'm doing wrong? **It's hard not to take it personally**. (Not really emotions but taking it personally) • Not just cos I'm male but **I'm quite calm. I found out the root cause then deal with reason.**
	Participant 2	• **How I feel depends on the child** – **are they usually like this, maybe this isn't very professional but a bit hurt.**
	Participant 3	• There was one child in P2 and I was very nice to him and involved him maybe I was showing favouritism but **when I told the children I was leaving he said "good" and I felt emotional, I was hurt because I thought he didn't like me and I had tried so hard. I blamed myself and feel sad and upset**
	Participant 4	• *Related to when children don't respond positively* - **When I go home it doesn't matter about how the rest of the day went, if I had a really good lesson or not I feel upset that this has been a bad day. I tend to look on the negative side.**
Development linked to emotions *(code 4)*	**Participant 1**	• **in first year felt more angry, why don't they like me, why are they doing this to me by 4th year don't take it personally** think what can I do to help **It was worse in first year but with more experience you realise it's not always you**. **You take things personally in first and second year by third year you** realise this is what it is going to be like – **realise it's not personal**. You start to realise there are things going on for the child. • First I think I don't like him, **he doesn't like me**. **In first and second year you want the kids to like you and you're too soft. By third and fourth year you're harder, more confident in your decisions**. • **In first year I felt more angry** less trying to find solutions. **Feeling I hate the kids I**

		don't like them take it personally, why are they doing this to me and why don't they like me, by fourth year you don't take it personally I feel like what can I do to help them. Like I said confidence comes with experience.
	Participant 3	• **I changed from first year**. I was scared just don't know what to do, how to manage kids – but **I'm not scared now in fourth year** I'm doing it all on my own. • **The first time it's embarrassing but you learn to deal with it and become more confident.** • **Initially you doubt yourself and take it personally, initially I cried. In first and second year but then you are more confident and don't take it personally** • **With experience you read situations better**. Initially you feel let down if you've invested a lot in them. You think – why don't you just do it? – **As confidence grows you get less anxious because you've got more experience of different situations.**
	Participant 4	• **I used to be quite lenient in case they didn't like me**, **now I know they still like you,** it was a **lack of confidence in first year**. In first and second year I had a problem with consistency because I would say the next person who shouts out will get a warning then a child who never usually shouts out will shout out the answer and I would say well done then the others said it wasn't fair and it wasn't. • **In first year I felt nervous, self-conscious** about behaviour management, felt like I was playing at it, using teachers' phrases**, lack of confidence in front of teachers. By third/fourth year I was more confident**. In first year if I had to speak to a child I would go right up to them and say it very quietly in their ear so the teacher wouldn't hear me. By third year you feel more confident

Appendix 11

Attributions (Theme 2) Comments in response to the statements "Children usually behave the same way most of the time and in most situations within school" and "If children are not behaving it is the teacher's fault"

Appraisals	Year/ Participant	Responses
Attributed to the Teacher *(code 7)*	**Year 1**	• *It can be the **teacher's fault if they are bored/disengaged** (took this as meaning the children are bored/disengaged)* • *Behaviour changes depending on what activity/ task.*
	Year 1 – Unacceptable	• *It is the **role of the teacher** to support and overcome it*
	Year 1 – Challenging	• *Feel **quality/achievement could be improved/assisted by teaching***
	Year 2	• ***Sometimes the teacher can be at fault** for behaviour (e.g the **setting up of a task)*** • ***Sometimes it can be the teacher's fault** other times not* • ***Pupils would behave amazingly with one RCT teacher but not another*** • *The **teacher is not always responsible** for the behaviour but **can be a factor***
	Year 2 – Unacceptable	• *There may **be a reason on behalf of the teacher** that causes a child to be off task and having lack of attention – **work is not relevant and engaging***
	Year 4	• ***If a child behaves for another teacher but not for you then you need to be reflective in why this may be*** • ***Children can behave very differently depending on the teacher they have – if a teacher is seen as 'soft' they will take advantage and misbehave*** • ***teacher If lessons are not engaging can lead to misbehaviour*** • ***Sometimes it is the teacher's fault*** • *At times I feel **if the teacher is not interested in their class** and **the children** do not have a relationship with their teacher this can cause behaviour issues.* • ***Could be that the lesson is not engaging and therefore it is the teacher's fault,** but could also be a variety of circumstances*

		• ***Re teacher's fault – relates to needs of class and support, but mainly lies with the teacher*** • *For the **teacher's fault – it** **depends – you should be able to act on issues but some may be very deep seated and so have long term issues to cope with!*** • ***Teachers need to consider their attitude*** • ***If you provide children with stimulating lessons then disruptions and challenging behaviour is less likely to occur***
	Year 4 - Unacceptable	• ***Depends on the lesson are the pupils motivated?*** *If not then behaviour more likely to happen* • *I feel that **being off task or having lack of attention may relate more to the teaching**/learning than behaviour*
Attributed to the child *(code 8)*	**Year 1 – Unacceptable**	• *Underachieving – **depends on** circumstances and **the child*** • Often the quality of the work means pupils require more support so ***this is not an unacceptable behaviour unless it's deliberate***
	Year 2	• *There were days on my placement when the children behaved differently for no apparent reason.* • *Why should a child be rewarded for acting the way they should be? Then how do we reward the children that always behave well?*
	Year 2 – Challenging	• *Ignoring warnings and sanctions is very challenging **when they have no respect** for the system in the school* • *All of these **depend on** the circumstances and **the child***
	Year 3	• *I feel it is very much a mixture of **the child** (and their background) and the relationship with the teacher that influences behaviour*
	Year 4	• *child also has responsibility for their behaviour*
	Year 4 – Unacceptable	• ***Depends on the child**/situation*
	Year 4 – Challenging	• ***When the behaviours are dependent on the child's attitude*** *I do find that challenging as that is hard to change.*

Individual needs	**Year 1 – Unacceptable** **Year 2 – Unacceptable** **Year 2 – Challenging** **Year 3 – Unacceptable** **Year 4 – Unacceptable**	• ***Depends on the child*** • *The behaviours which I have ticked in the unsure box are due to the fact there may be **underlying circumstances for a child** to do these I think* • *I feel that it depends on individual circumstances **every child has different needs** and it may not be intentional that they act in this way* • ***For many members of an upper stage class this is unacceptable** however factors such as background/**conditions/ADD/ADHD** etc. should be taken into account* • *This can depend on the child as some children may have **additional needs** or issues that may trigger these behaviour issues* • ***I believe the above are unacceptable however there could be reasons behind the child acting this way therefore you need to manage every child according to their needs*** • *This is dependent on different pupils* • *Depends on **individual child's** situation/**needs*** • *Depends on the **class/age/stage*** • *It depends on the circumstances, **what can be seen as unacceptable for one child can be seen in a different light for another child** especially with **additional support needs** and issues at home* • *Some of the behaviours may be due to **additional/specific needs*** • *I have chosen unsure for a lot because it depends on the situation and the individual child. **Underlying causes/ conditions** should be taken into account* • ***My answers are based on a general opinion, however answers would vary depending on the individual child and their specific needs*** • *Circumstances under which the behaviours occur and the **individual person must be considered*** • ***All opinions are based on individual children there are no generics***

		• *All answers may be different **depending on specific needs*** • *There may be **additional factors** (home life, **medical etc**.) which may have an influence* • *Most of these behaviours will depend on the **child as an individual*** • *Might be dependent on the child. **Children with particular needs you may expect certain behaviours*** • ***some children may have conditions which cause them to do some of the above***
	Year 4 – Challenging	• For under achieving – it's challenging depending on the pupils as circumstances are so individual
Attributed to the background parents/home *(code 9)*	**Year I – Unacceptable**	• *Despite recognising that these behaviours are unacceptable I do realise that some children have reasons – not excuses – for their behaviour i.e. **challenging family background*** • *I believe that some behaviour has underlying problems and it is important that the teacher is aware of these. For example **being off task may be a result of something happening at home***
	Year 2	• ***Some behaviour issues are completely out of the teacher's hands.** You can't stop what's going on at home* • *If parents don't care it's hard to have behaviour management of a child* • *Home factors out with the school can affect a child's behaviour throughout the day (lack of sleep, worry)*
	Year 2 – Unacceptable	• *For many members of an upper stage class this is unacceptable however factors such as **background*** • *I believe that **children all have different backgrounds so different behaviours should be expected from each child** although this should not be made obvious to the class*
	Year 3	• ***Parents should be involved*** • *There are many factors to challenging behaviour that are not always apparent, **home**, friends etc.* • *They **need to be dealt with early on by parents***

	Year 3 – Unacceptable **Year 4 – Unacceptable**	• *Although I agree they are unacceptable consideration needs to be given to the circumstances and the* ***background*** *the child may face* • *Some depend on* ***home environment – learnt behaviour*** • *I agree with the majority, but feel that a lot of these behaviours may be subject to other factors in a child's life (home background)* • *There may be additional factors (home life, medical etc.) which may have an influence* • ***Depends on the background*** *or issues the children may be facing is a result of their behaviour* • ***There may be other reasons for poor quality of work like issues at home so the child might not be purposefully putting no effort in***
Thinking about underlying reasons ***(code 5)***	**Year 1** **Year 2** **Year 3** **Year 4**	• ***Behaviour differs greatly depending on the time of day, the weather seems to make a difference too*** • *Children may react to things differently on a daily basis this can depend on situations at home etc* • ***Current situations dictate behaviour (divorce, new baby etc.)*** • ***Previous placement I had some very unpredictable behaviour. Often depended on how they came in in the morning*** • *If children are motivated and on task, behaviour is not an issue* • ***A child's circumstances can rapidly change and have an impact on a child's behaviour.*** *Teachers should therefore look out for this.* • *Each child is different and* ***their mood may differ due to events that have happened prior to coming into class*** • *Certain situations can change this (talking about the rating for each one) e.g. home, playground etc,*

Attributed to other factors (code 10)		
Attributed to the Context	Year 1 Unacceptable	• ***depends on the circumstances. If there is an imminent problem interrupting may be acceptable***
	Year 2 - Unacceptable	• *Some of these could be okay in a classroom –* ***it depends on the scenario*** • *I think a number of them* ***could depend on the context*** *i.e debates, emergency, additional support needs etc*
	Year 3 - Unacceptable	• *Some of these behaviours* ***depend on circumstances e.g. shouting out (excited and engaged in a task)***
	Year 3 – Challenging	• *It depends on the circumstances and the support that is available in each individual school*
	Year 4 - Unacceptable	• ***Depends on the situation*** • ***Shouting out depends on the type of lesson****. If I ask a class in a lesson sometimes answering without putting up hand is acceptable* • *It* ***depends on the circumstances*** • ***Depends on the*** *child/****situation***
	Year 4 – Challenging	• ***Depends on the situation*** • *It* ***depends on the circumstances***
Other factors non-specific	Year 2 – Unacceptable	• ***There could be reasons*** *behind why children do the above however* ***regardless of that I agree that those behaviours are unacceptable*** • ***I agree that all of them are unacceptable however some of them can be more likely to be due to external factors*** *rather than just being badly behaved* • ***Being off task may not be the child's fault***
	Year 3 – Unacceptable	• ***Level of unacceptable depends on reason behind misbehaviours*** • ***There is always a reason*** *for doing any of these actions*
	Year 4	• *sometimes it is out of their control and they are dealing with/managing and controlling the behavioural effects of others*

	Year 4 – Unacceptable	• *Reflecting on the reasons behind some behaviours such as lack of attention, ignoring warnings/sanctions. While I feel* ***these behaviours are generally unacceptable there could be underlying issues with work-so the behaviours could partially be someone else's fault***

Appendix 12

Responses to interview question regarding 'Attributions/Causes of inappropriate behaviours'

Appraisals	Year / Participant	Responses
Thinking about underlying reasons *(code 10)*	**Participant 2**	• I found out the root cause then deal with reason. • ***Need to think about what is misbehaviour and what is an incident which is caused by something.*** • Could be to show off to friends or older kids – peer influences.
	Participant 1	• Things outside of class, personal things – there's always a reason.
	Participant 2	• ***I think about the context at the time*** – is it after playtime where something might have happened, wonder if there are other reasons like home issues, diet, sleeplessness,
	Participant 4	• mood, diet, time of day.
Thinking about children's motives *(code 11)*	**Participant 3**	• ***Kids exploit any weakness in teachers*** • I try to be low key and ***don't get in a situation where they can look more powerful.***
	Participant 4	• are they testing me because I'm new? • ***When a child behaves well, say is helping someone I think they are doing this to draw attention to themselves, is it because I'm watching, is it for me?*** • Predetermined is very bad but spontaneous reactions are not so bad. It's the motive that's important. • Sometimes they are driven by a need to be right. **Motives are not necessarily good they are just doing it for praise or teacher approval.**
Attributed to the teacher *(code 12)*	**Participant 1**	• ***If teachers are not providing a stimulating environment and children are bored***– more confident in 3rd and 4th year. • If they are doing group activities they might be too quiet, but in maths I think this is good if they are quiet everyone is doing what they should be it's a good lesson. On reflection you take credit for it and have a

		sense of satisfaction. This is great when you're being observed and get feedback.
	Participant 2	• it's my responsibility if a child is swinging on their chair and they fall off it's my responsibility • ***Teacher is responsible in the way they talk to children how they deal with situations, their demeanour. The teacher could set the mood***
	Participant 3	• 70% they see the weak link in the teacher, so it's mainly due to the teacher. ***It's dependent on the teacher they need to be consistent, motivate the children. It's how the kids respond to the teacher.*** • It's down to the teacher. • The teacher is mainly responsible, there are exceptions for really challenging kids, but it still depends on the way the teacher responds.
	Participant 4	• Main causes are how much the children respect the teacher and each other, ***fairness of the teacher, consistency of the teacher*** • Teacher responsibility what I've already said. ***Having high expectations that are shared with the children***
Attributed to the child *(code 13)*	**Participant 1**	• ***To some extent they should know the difference between right and wrong*** but not always, cos of bad parenting • I've used this from 1st to 4th year (*getting to know you activity*) but sometimes it doesn't work and they don't care what they've said.
	Participant 2	• Sometimes it just comes down to the child • ***By P7 they should know what's acceptable, being respectful***, ***but challenging behaviour is not their own responsibility***
	Participant 3	• Children are responsible but ***they don't always think or work things through*** they do pick what to do, choose what to do but ***they're more easily influenced***. So parents have influence and attitudes but kids ***can also be positively influenced by the teacher.*** • The age of kids brings more capacity to make their own choices.
	Participant 4	• Child responsibility – changes with age need to start taking responsibility for own

		behaviour. If they know the expectations and still do the wrong thing then that's bad. Deliberate and planned is very bad. • if I can't control sometimes it's the child, can't always blame the teacher.
Attributed to the parents / home ***(code 14)***	**Participant 1**	• Home life, ***when they don't have positive role models,*** when they need attention cos they're not getting it at home. No boundaries at home, bad language comes from home.
	Participant 2	• ***Home is the main cause.***
	Participant 3	• I think it's about 30% background
	Participant 4	• children's home life, • ***Home circumstances are where they learn behaviours***, mostly not all the time there can be other factors.

Appendix 13

Strategies (Theme 3) Comments in response to the statement "the teacher can employ different strategies effectively to manage behaviour"

Appraisals	Year/ Participant	Responses
Depends on the child *(code 11)*	**Year 1** **Year 2** **Year 4**	• ***Every child is different, not all strategies work for every child,*** *try everything and never assume there's nothing left to try* • *I feel that* ***the same behaviour strategies were boring for the children*** *and didn't have a great impact on the children* • *I think behaviour management is one of the most difficult things about teaching.* ***Children's behaviour can change, sometimes daily, and so we need a bank of methods to deal with this****.* • ***Depending on how engaged/interested the child is in the learning/situation. One pupil behaved very poorly in class but was rewarded for good behaviour by helping in the nursery. The child seemed like another child when he was in the nursery. Took it seriously and behaved very well.*** • *All responses are based on the average class however* ***I would handle each pupil and situation differently in the most appropriate manner***
Depends on the class *(code 12)*	**Year 1** **Year 4**	• *It* ***depends on what works for that class*** • ***Each class different. No strategies will work equally effectively*** *in two separate classes*
Support from others *(code 13)*	**Year 2** **Year 4**	• *Read school behaviour policy* ***if child is out of control or call for senior management*** • ***Behaviour in schools can be directly affected by the management of the school. If they are there and available when situations arise behaviour is managed a lot easier, if not the opposite***

Consistency ***(code 14)***	**Year 4**	• ***I do not think a host of strategies will work.*** *In my opinion* ***you have to be consistent as children like routine.*** • *Depends, in my experience* ***I have stuck with the teacher's strategies as these are established and the children are trained in a certain way****. However, it* ***doesn't automatically work without the underlying authority***
Positive reinforcement ***(code 15)***	**Year 1** **Year 2** **Year 3**	• ***Children react positively to positive praise*** • ***I believe that being positive, giving praise when necessary helps the class overall behaviour*** • *Schools do not take enough reinforcement of positive behaviour management.* ***Pupils who misbehave are rewarded largely when they make tiny improvements where good behaviour gets unacknowledged because it is the norm for other pupils***

Appendix 14

Relationships (Theme 4) Comments in response to the statements "I can see potential triggers before a challenging situation occurs", "I get to know children quickly" and general comments from section on confidence and comments from the questionnaire regarding unacceptability and challenge

Appraisals	Year / Participant	Response
Knowing individuals *(code 16)*	**Year 1**	• ***who children are sat next to etc***
	Year 1 – Unacceptable	• *I feel that some of the behaviours children cannot help that they do that* • ***Behaviour which is unacceptable varies from child to child in relation to their 'normal' behaviour***
	Year 1 – Challenging	• *They are challenging but also expected. Children are struggling to develop their own personalities in the structure of education*
	Year 2	• *On placement this year I made an* ***extra effort to get to know the children and this really helped to build positive relationships*** • ***Getting to know pupils helps majorly with behaviour*** • *A* ***getting to know lesson/activity worked very well.*** *The children can learn about you and you can get to know the children*
	Year 2 – Unacceptable	• *I have found that on placement that* ***with a disruptive child if they are distracting others from their work it is unacceptable. If they are off task sometimes it's better to leave it and avoid an outburst*** • ***Underachieving/poor quality of work – (unacceptable) If you know they can do better*** • ***All of the above are unacceptable but depending on the child depends on how unacceptable they are***
	Year 3	• ***Potential triggers only recognisable when you know the children*** *in the class*

	Year 4	• *There's always a root cause – **the child is almost 'communicating' when acting out*** • ***Each child is individual and different factors can affect the way in which they behave*** • ***I would handle each pupil and situation differently***
Rapport/Affinity *(code 19)*	**Year 2**	• *I feel I manage to build a bond with the classes I have been in so far. From this bond I earned the children's respect* • ***Relationships are really the key to improving/maintaining good behaviour*** • ***Children are more likely to behave if they feel respected by the teacher*** *and have an effective relationship with the teacher and class* • *I believe that behaviour occurs when the teacher has lost control and confidence and respect of the pupils, I believe it's a two way system if children know what is expected of them from the outset*
	Year 2 – Challenging	• *All **unacceptable behaviour is challenging to deal with unless you have built a strong relationship with the class***
	Year 3	• *If **ethos**, strategies, **relationships** etc. **are negative/ineffective, behaviour/learning is affected*** • *I tend to build a good rapport with children but can struggle to be assertive* • *I feel it is very much a mixture of the child (and their background) and the relationship with the teacher that influences behaviour*
	Year 4	• ***The environment and relationship you build with children impact on the behaviour in class*** • ***When a strong relationship is created with children I believe there is less need for a behaviour management system*** • ***Teachers need to consider*** *their attitude and **the way they cultivate their classroom ethos in order to develop good relationships and respect***

Appendix 15

Responses from Interviews Relationships

Appraisals	Year / Participant	Response
Knowing individuals (*code 16*)	**Participant 1**	• When I am building relationships as soon as I go into the class I give the kids an All about me sheet a getting to know you activity – what do you do in your community, what makes a happy classroom. I do this on every placement. I use it to remind them of what they said before about a happy classroom when they're not behaving. They can reflect on it individually if they are not behaving too.
	Participant 2	• ***I speak to the teacher to find out about the children with behaviour issues. During observation week I build relationships with those targeted children. I find out about their interests.*** • ***The first placement was difficult so I thought what I wanted from the second placement and started this.*** I wanted a good relationship with children. • I've never had behaviour management issues I put in the effort to know children. ***The first placement was most difficult with behaviour issues til I got to know them.*** I found out if they enjoyed the lessons. I began to have strict boundaries, but getting to know them in the main.
	Participant 3	• ***You have to relate to kids***, get to know them their interests. This develops as time goes on. • You need to think about the individual kids. Find the ring leaders and make sure they like the teacher. • Subtle praise, know the kids and give rewards to suit. • Respond to individuals rather than syndromes, like ADHD. • If you know the class then none of it should bother you. • ***It is challenging to know and learn how to handle behaviour. I had a difficult pupil on my final placement. I took it personally. I spoke to her and she reacted unexpectedly because I didn't***

		know her. I needed to speak to her later. I found out she loved negative attention. I think you need to know which battles to pick, and which to deal with later. Her behaviour didn't change but I reacted differently. • ***I think about the kid and what the next steps will be, like – what if I do this? What will he or she do next***
	Participant 4	• Developing Relationships through having an interest in the children's lives outside school, show and tell, working with small groups to focus on getting to know the children, talking to them at the beginning of the day. I tell them a bit about myself and they seem to remember this. It makes me more personable not a stranger. • good knowledge of all children**,** ***but sometimes it's not good and you have preconceived ideas about the children – the teacher says 'watch out for that one' and you automatically watch out.***
Ethos/Values *(code 17)*	**Participant 1**	• ***Will keep getting inappropriate behaviour if we keep punishing, need positive relationships instead of being negative all the time, be positive, it's not good if teachers shout too much.*** **It's better to build a relationship** • ***Most important – having mutual respect***. Establishing your authority. • ***You need good behaviour for learning to go on, you need good behaviour for ethos.*** • You need behaviour to be right for anything to work for anyone.
	Participant 2	• There was a fight in the class the last day and I never had to raise my voice. • You could create ethos without these *(strategies),* start by using rules and boundaries after that it's more about relationships. • ***If they are not behaving, low level, they are not learning,*** they are doing nothing.
	Participant 3	• Learning and behaviour are 100% related, you need both ***if you don't have behaviour you can't learn*** • ***You have to establish authority first,*** don't be friendly too soon or they are overfamiliar.

	Participant 4	• Because they respect me they don't want to make me feel bad or disappointed. • ***Class ethos, relationships between children and teacher, between children, high consistent but reasonable expectations,*** • ***behaviour can prevent learning if the children are distracted not on task they are not learning. Better behaved children learn more***
Authenticity *(code 18)*	**Participant 1**	• ***They need to realise that appropriate behaviour is for themselves, looking at the future in relation to the way they are behaving, it's connected to intrinsic motivation.***
	Participant 2	• ***I always put myself in the children's shoes. I think about how I would have felt/ how could she have done things differently, the teacher.*** • ***They know if you're genuine or faking it.*** • There's always a reason for behaviours. ***Important to do what you feel is actually right.*** • ***Most important are setting an example***, ***respect, be the leader, talk to the children, compromise.*** Talking is the most important. • ***Learn behaviour definitely by example – the wee things.***
	Participant 3	• ***We need to teach empathy. Teach them to make their own decisions.***
	Participant 4	• Maybe I shouldn't but I say thank you to them. • This helps ***when there is conflict between children I use my own experience and relate it to what's happening – 'that happened to me and this is what I did'*** • This has supported the class management because you have to build respect. We were doing friendships and I talked about what I like in a friend and how my friends have helped me relating it to my own life. • ***I talk to them on their own level it's straightforward.***
Miscellaneous	**Participant 3**	• Most important relationships, consistency, boundaries.

Appendix 16

Learning (Theme 5) Comments related to question 'These have helped me to deal with challenging behaviour'

Appraisals	Year / Participant	Response
Confidence / knowing what to do *(code 20)*	**Year 1**	• ***I think its part of my innate quality. I have natural ability!*** • ***When they behave appropriately I think I question it, are they too quiet? Are they interested enough?***
	Year 4	• ***Because of the number of placements we have had I feel very confident.*** • ***Last placement very challenging. Has increased confidence significantly***
Practical Experience *(code 22)*	**Year 2**	• ***Through my work I have CALM training and training on managing challenging behaviour***
	Year 3	• Participating and ***observing situations, by far, makes dealing with challenging behaviour easier*** • ***My last placement has given me many opportunities to deal with confrontation and disruptive behaviour***
	Year 4	• Sometimes **learning from the mistakes of others** • ***You only know how to deal with challenging behaviour once you actually deal with it in the classroom*** • ***Teaching practice and tough placements*** • ***Re observation – every person will manage behaviour differently therefore one method may not work for another***
Professional support more knowledgeable others *(code 24)*	**Year 2**	• ***Speaking to lecturers and sharing concerns before 2PP1 helped. Hearing their experiences/ways of dealing with behaviour***
	Year 3	• ***discussion with class teacher is always the most helpful for managing behaviour***

Hindrances to learning ***(code 21)***	**Year 3** **Year 4**	• ***Some schools do not follow own policy*** • ***I find that the school policies are rarely used unless management are keen to implement. Only two out of six placements I have experienced this***

Appendix 17

Interview responses related to, theme 5, Learning

Appraisals	Year / Placement	Response
Confidence / knowing what to do *(code 20)*	**Participant 1** **Participant 3**	• ***Knowing what to do makes it less challenging*** • You can ignore them but sometimes ignoring bad behaviour too much doesn't help. ***In first year I sometimes turned a blind eye cos I didn't know what to do.*** • ***With experience you read situations better. Initially you feel let down if you've invested a lot in them. You think – why don't you just do it? – As confidence grows you get less anxious because you've got more experience of different situations***
Hindrances to learning *(code 21)*	**Participant 1** **Participant 2**	• ***I didn't know what to do but I didn't think what the school was doing was working.*** You have to put up with school strategies. • ***Challenges for students – when they haven't seen a teacher with good behaviour strategies. They can call on their own experiences from own school life or others people and reflect on that***
Practical Experience *(code 22)*	**Participant 1**	• ***Challenges help to reflect for the future.*** • We could make our own behaviour management systems in groups • ***Reading literature gives basics then you build on it through practice and experiences.*** • ***More confident*****,** what would I do, ***it definitely comes with experience on placements.***
Academic knowledge *(code 23)*	**Participant 1** **Participant 2** **Participant 3**	• ***Learn from reading and reflect on it.*** • ***Reading literature gives basics then you build on it through practice and experiences.*** • We could do with more lectures. • ***I would read academic texts.*** • Not so much from books. • my research project

	Participant 4	• I haven't really read anything because we haven't had an essay on it.
Professional support more knowledgeable others ***(code 24)***	**Participant 1**	• ***I have been reading online blogs, teacher's blogs, real life examples/tips, other people's examples*** • We could talk about a misbehaviour then look for solutions or systems
	Participant 2	• ***I learned from my mum cos she works with children with learning difficulties.*** • ***I follow the class teacher if it works*** • Support – I look to myself first, what am I doing wrong and try to fix it, then ***other staff member who is a good teacher.*** • ***Developed through learning from others,*** my own beliefs such as caring, maybe it's coming from Christian beliefs.
	Participant 3	• Can ***gain experience from experienced older teachers.*** • speak to an experienced teacher on the same wave length as you. ***I respect someone who really knows the kids*** and the school – more likely to find the right management way. • ***through observation,*** speaking to teachers. The main thing is getting the teacher on your side. Ask for help from the teacher, ask for advice. Follow what the teacher does.
	Participant 4	• ***mostly talking to the teacher*** and talking to peers about their experiences and actions, • ***through observation watching teachers and children, what children do with other teachers.***

Autonomy ***(code 25)***	**Participant 1**	• Teachers – difficult if they have to follow a whole school policy, ***teachers should get to try things out***. • It depends on age and experience whether teachers are open to let me do my own things. • In first year you are thinking what would the teacher do but ***in 3rd and 4th year you're making your own decisions*** more confident, ***what would I do*** • ***always go to the teacher see how they deal with it. Even if you don't agree follow the teacher's rules. But you would think, what would I do if it was my class?***
	Participant 2	• ***I look to myself first, what am I doing wrong and try to fix it***
	Participant 3	• ***Now in fourth year I'm doing it all on my own***

Appendix 18 – Module 1 (Previously Assessed)

A Critical Comparison and Analysis of Qualitative and Quantitative Research Approaches

Social and educational research can employ either qualitative or quantitative approaches or indeed a combination of the two, to enable a complete understanding of phenomena to be studied. It is argued that, while quantitative approaches can produce statistically robust results which allow hypotheses to be tested and conclusions to be made in order that the fields can gain greater insights into human behaviour and its causes, it is not without its limitations in relation to the subjective nature of human action. On the other hand qualitative research is able to produce descriptive data which can enable a more in-depth analysis of intentionality but may, nevertheless, lack some of the security that can be gained from statistical analysis of data. As a consequence of the limitations of both approaches, mixed methods will be posited as an alternative to arguing for research paradigms as either qualitative or quantitative. Arguments for all approaches will be discussed in the context of ontology and epistemology, suggesting that research approaches are underpinned by philosophical assumptions.

Approaches to research are based on two philosophical assumptions, ontology and epistemology. Ontology is interested in the nature of reality. The ontological question of whether reality is out in the world and is fixed or whether reality is a subjective experience, is multiple and can only be understood from the point of view of the onlooker, has long been debated. The ontological viewpoint will determine and guide the way in which research is approached. In relation to research these two distinct views are understood in terms of realism and interpretivism. (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Opie, 2004). From the realism perspective, reality is external to the individual. It exists outside of the individual's experience (Burrell and Morgan, 1979 cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). On the other hand interpretivist views claim that reality is a construct of the individual or group experience and exists within the individual and is therefore subjective.

Ontological assumptions will influence and determine epistemological assumptions. (Opie, 2004; Morgan, 2007; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Given the view of reality it is important to have an understanding in relation to how that reality can be known. In other words what is the nature of knowledge and what can the knower know? From a realism perspective knowledge is something out in the world that can be found and understood. It is objective and stands out-with the onlooker's interpretation of it. However knowledge for the interpretivist is constructed and interpreted from the perspective of the onlooker. (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

Given these two distinct perspectives of the nature of reality and how it can be known, it seems apparent that the choice of research approaches and methodology will reflect the ontological and epistemological point of view of the researcher. Research is not "neutral" (Punch, 2009) or just a technical exercise. It is influenced by our values and perspectives (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011) and our assumptions about human nature (Burrell and Morgan, 1979 cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). With this in mind it seems that the main difference in choices made are philosophical rather that methodological (Trochim, 2001) based on different epistemological assumptions.

In relation to research in terms of realism, the positivists claim that there is only one reality (Punch, 2009) which can be tested through experimental means to find an answer or prove a fact. Humans are controlled by their environment according to this determinist point of view. Interpretivism claims that there are multiple realities, which can only be tested and understood in relation to a more qualitative approach to research, where the values and beliefs of the subjects are the focus for interpreting events and behaviours (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Opie, 2004).

Different perspectives, then, will lead to an understanding of research as a way to uncover objective truths or as a way of revealing subjective understanding and how that influences behaviour. From an objective stance, the world and nature of research is understood as something that can be viewed objectively and that knowledge is "built on demonstrable facts" (Opie: 2004: 7) and that events can be measured through employing experimental methods and the scientific approach to research. However not all phenomena can be measured in this way, as the interpretivism perspective argues, and while the experimental approach may be "successful in the field of the natural and physical sciences " (Opie, 2004: 7) it may not be as useful in other disciplines such as the social sciences, where research is interested in, and focused upon an understanding of the subjective experiences of the participants and how they behave as a result of their thinking, rather than looking for a set of laws or rules which may be appropriate in the physical or natural domains. (Opie, 2004, Burrell and Morgan, 1979 cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

So, it has been argued that our understanding of the nature of knowledge, subjective or objective, will determine the approach which we take in carrying out research, whether through quantitative research and methodology or through qualitative measures. However, there is another way of thinking about research from the perspective of the nature of the question we are trying to answer or explore, rather than from the philosophical point of view which we hold in relation to ontology and epistemology. The first two paradigms will be discussed in relation to the positivist/interpretivist, objective (determinist)/subjective (constructivist) distinctions, and the third in relation to a pragmatic paradigm.

First the two paradigms, with an understanding of paradigm as a set of shared beliefs or world views that guide enquiry (Kuhn, 1970; Morgan, 2007), will be described, considering the philosophical assumptions which underpin them. Then the strengths and limitations of both approaches in relation to social sciences and educational research will be discussed. The main differences between methods have been identified by Wellington (2000) as the data collection methods, the data analysis and the world view, resulting in a "quantitative versus qualitative distinction" (Wood & Welsh, 2012: 57).

Quantitative Research

Before considering the nature and purpose of quantitative research it is assumed and claimed that quantitative approaches reflect a positivist view of the world based on ontological and epistemological realism, where there is reality and knowledge out in the world which can be tested empirically through experimentation, and social research should use this quantitative research and methodology to test theory in the same way as the natural and physical sciences (Wellington, 2000 Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). It is also

underpinned with the “normative view that human behaviour is rule governed and should be investigated through the scientific method” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: p17) in order to demonstrate universal laws related to human behaviour.

The physical and natural sciences have long held the view that the scientific method, by testing a priori hypotheses through systematic controlled experimentation is the most effective way of carrying out research, enabling universal laws to be determined, tested and re tested in a bid to find truth through statistical analysis. These notions have influenced research in the social sciences, where research and methodology have traditionally tried to emulate the scientific approach to research through quantitative methodology (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) in order that the research may be perceived with the same prestige as the physical and natural sciences (Wellington,2000). However, Wellington (2000) argues that this has led to the ‘lab’ approach to social sciences and educational research which has often been unethical as a result of controlled experiments.

This view seems to be changing as constructivist (Guba and Lincoln, 1994), interpretivist (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Opie, 2004), and pragmatic perspectives (Morgan, 2007) have emerged, and developed in the second half of the 20th century. Furthermore, arguments have been put forth for the recognition that qualitative and quantitative methods are not as distinct as many opinions would suppose, and claims made that the terms cannot account adequately for the wealth of research methods available (Wood & Welch, 2012). The former argument will be further developed when considering the nature and purpose of qualitative research and mixed methods research, but the latter is out-with the scope of this work and will not be discussed further, although it is acknowledged. Firstly, we will consider the traditional scientific approach and methodology in relation to quantitative research.

As already posited, quantitative research reflects a positivist world view, where theory can be tested empirically to produce valid reliable results, which can prove facts or find universal truths. It is objective and a priori hypotheses can be verified through analysis of data, which can be generalised to societies and populations. However, there is an issue with the positivist view, as verification is not rigorous enough to ensure that a truth or universal is in fact provable. Instead of finding data to verify the theory it is important to attempt to falsify the hypothesis as “absolute truth can never be found” (Creswell, 2003:8), leading to post-positivism which has enabled falsification of the hypothesis and thus allows the results of analysis to be more valid and clear. So post-positivist research is essentially carried out in the same way but the hypotheses are being falsified instead of verified, giving more meaningful results.

The positivist/ post-positivist approach is identified in relation to quantitative research using scientific methods and principles (Wellington, 2000; Creswell, 2003), where quantitative data is collected, or data is recorded, in numerical form, a priori hypotheses are tested through statistical analysis of numerical data (Guba and Lincoln,1994; Opie,2004) and the social scientist / researcher observes and tests social reality in a similar way to the researcher in the physical and natural sciences.(Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

Research in the early days of social research then, was carried out through the experiment where data is controlled and manipulated. These measures enable reliability where the

results can be tested and re tested to add strengths to the results and offer validity as they measure phenomena by controlling variables. Until the end of the 20th century, within the field of research there was still a “widespread conviction that only quantitative data are valid and of high quality” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994: 105), so perhaps it is not surprising that for social and educational research to be viewed with the same high regard as the physical and natural sciences, researchers may take the positivist view and test social phenomena using quantitative measures.

There are three aspects of quantitative research according to Punch (2009)

1. It conceptualises reality in terms of variables
2. It measures these variables
3. It studies the relationships between the variables

So variables are central to quantitative research (Punch, 2009) and if social and educational research is to follow the quantitative methodology then they must also follow the conventions in relation to controlling, measuring and finding causation between variables, and also in relation to statistical analysis of the data through;

1. Descriptive statistical analysis – gaining a ‘feel’ for the data, where the data is described, considered from multiple perspectives and summarised to give a full picture
2. Inferential statistical analysis – where inferences are made about the data in relation to what the data means, going beyond description to find patterns and themes (Opie, 2004, Miles and Huberman, 1994 cited in Punch 2009)

This analysis of the data is carried out using standardised tests which enable the researcher to ‘read’, describe and interpret the data, giving an objective understanding of the results through mathematical means, and thus are held in high regard in relation to their validity and reliability, as opposed to data which is analysed through qualitative methods. Statistical analysis can produce very clear messages about the likelihood of an event or phenomena occurring and enable the researcher to have clarity and surety about the results occurring (Opie, 2004; Punch, 2009).

Quantitative research then is about being objective. One aspect of this is when the researcher watches / observes and records phenomena in order to understand it without influencing or changing anything, as in non-interventionist research. Another aspect is where the researcher carries out a controlled experiment, with control and experimental groups where the latter is manipulated in some way to test the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable, as in interventionist research (Punch, 2009). In this type of research the independent variables are manipulated and the changes in the dependent variables as a result are studied. Confounding variables, that is those variables which may influence the outcome, are controlled and minimised as much as possible in order that the results can be clearly derived from the experiment rather than as a result of other variables which may account for the changes in the phenomena, thus yielding reliable results which can be replicated (Opie, 2004; Punch, 2009).

Quantitative research enables generalisations to be made through parametric statistical tests which extrapolate to the wider population (Opie, 2004; Morgan, 2007) working on the premise of determinism, where causation can be determined and laws can be formulated to explain events. These can then be used to make predictions about how phenomena will behave in the future or in the population as a whole given the same set of circumstances (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). While this enables theory to be tested and gives a general picture of how particular circumstances may produce specific behaviours and actions, it does not account for human agency, which, it could be argued, is at the centre of any behaviour or action (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

It seems though, that the experiment is not comprehensive enough to produce the kinds of data which are entirely useful in understanding human behaviour as the social sciences and educational research seek to do.

Alongside the experiment are also the quasi experiment and the non-experiment (Punch, 2009) which lie on a continuum from interventionist to non-interventionist and may enable a more complete picture to emerge for the social scientist. However, although quantitative research can incorporate this range (Punch, 2009) by either employing an experimental design to gain insights into the behaviour of phenomena or by study phenomena in their natural environment, it tends to be deductive in nature where facts are deduced from the data via a priori hypotheses which is verified or falsified as a result of the investigation. (Trochim, 2001; Morgan, 2007; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Furthermore, there will still be confounding variables but these can be identified and controlled through “physical and statistical” measures, such as “randomisation”, “restriction” and “stratification” (Punch, 2009: 228-229) to ensure that the results are as unbiased as possible.

Quantitative research can test theories and laws systematically and thoroughly and make predictions about what will happen in terms of how phenomena will behave in the future given similar circumstances thus demonstrating the universality of the theory (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), through focusing on reliability and validity;

1. Reliability is the extent to which the results can be replicated in subsequent research
2. Validity is the extent to which the methods actually test what they are supposed to test
   (Wellington, 2000).

Data collection in quantitative research within the fields of social and educational research tends to be in the form of questionnaires which often use the Likert scale to generate numerical data, or in the form of observations where frequency of events is recorded numerically. This enables statistical analysis of the data and conclusions to be made. (Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). However, this approach tends to be reductionist and may be at the risk of losing rich data and significant information (Punch, 2009).

Although there are limitations in using quantitative methods in relation to positivism and reductionism, quantitative research has many strengths. It is objective and it enables comparisons between groups or phenomena to be analysed and reported on within a strictly controlled environment or enables experimental design to be employed to find correlations

and causality. The researcher is objective in that he or she stands 'outside' the study and observes and records what is happening when the independent variable is manipulated. Questions about natural and physical 'realities' can be measured systematically, described objectively through statistical analysis, and comparisons, frequency and causality can be explained. Furthermore, variables can be controlled to give a clearer picture of how phenomena behave in a given situation (Punch, 2009).

However, there are challenges to this approach in relation to social and educational research, where, as already argued, the behaviour of human beings cannot always be successfully reduced to numerical data and studied objectively, as a positivist perspective would observe (Punch, 2009). If quantitative research is a reflection of a positivist / post-positivist point of view then perhaps qualitative research reflect an interpretivist or constructivist perspective.

Interpretivism is concerned with differences between people rather than necessarily trying to find laws, truths and universals. It focuses on how the world is interpreted by individuals and groups. It understands the world in relation to the subjective rather than the objective view. (Wellington, 2000; Trochim, 2001; Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). In terms of ontology, the interpretivist perspective argues for multiple realities (Opie, 2004; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011) rather than one truth, contesting the traditional positivist view (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 2007), where reality is constructed rather than pre-determined. In epistemological terms it acknowledges that knowledge is a construction, the subjectivity of experience and of different perspectives on reality based on the values, beliefs and experience of the individual or group (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2009), and reflects the world view of multiple realities and subjectivity

From a research point of view, the researcher is also a subject within the research and is therefore influenced by his or her own interpretation and construction of the world within the research itself. (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Shenton, 2004; Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

This perspective acknowledges the role and agency of the individual, where realism and positivism "regard human behaviour as passive, essentially determined and controlled" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011: 15). In contrast, interpretivist and constructivist views, regards it as active, constructed, and that humans are the agents and producers of their actions and behaviours, as a result of their interpretation of their world, and thus the world can only be understood from the viewpoint of those within it (Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). This perspective tends to employ an approach which reflects the ontological and epistemological understanding of the world. Within the social sciences, then, if 'truth' is subjective and reality is not 'fixed', and if knowledge is constructed by those who hold it, as determined by their beliefs, values and experiences, then measures of what can be known cannot necessarily be understood through quantitative analysis of data and statistical analysis, and although it may demonstrate frequency and causality it would lose the richness of the experiences of the participants and an understanding of their behaviour in relation to their subjective or constructed knowledge. (Guba and Lincoln, 2004; Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

The development of qualitative research in the social and educational field has allowed the qualitative approach to enjoy the status of quantitative research which was dominant within the field until the 1980s (Morgan, 2007). This paradigmatic change, initially advocated by Kuhn (1970) in his identification of the elements for paradigm change, has enabled change and given qualitative research popularity and credibility within social and educational research. Furthermore, it reflects the changing ontology and epistemology of the 20th century, where postmodern ideas in relation to reality and knowledge, as multiple and constructivist have emerged and developed (Morgan, 2007).

In relation to research in this world, qualitative research is able to explore, investigate and systematically probe phenomena within the context as a function of the values, beliefs and experiences of the participant. (Wellington, 2000; Trochim, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Punch 2009). Insights into the nature of human behaviour can be gained which can in turn enable hypothesis to be generated from observation and research (Creswell, 2003; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Therefore, it could be argued that social and educational research does not need to be driven by the scientific method and positivist notions of the world (Wellington, 2000). Through a qualitative approach, interpretivist and constructivist principles can be taken into account.

Qualitative research originates from the discipline of Anthropology and has been employed successfully to understand people and measure behaviour within a natural context. Within Anthropology the researcher becomes completely immersed within the cultures of the social group and studies behaviour from within to give a real understanding of the values and beliefs and how that shapes practices and actions. Although social and educational research cannot be completely immersed in the whole life of the participants like the Anthropologist, the qualitative approach has been extended to the social sciences and educational research and enables the researcher to use similar measures to understand human behaviour within its social context (Trochim, 2001; Seale, 2002; Tewksbury, 2009).

Qualitative research allows the researcher to understand the world from the viewpoint of the participants gaining an emic (insider's view) through an understanding that people act intentionally (Bloomer, 1989 cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), they actively construct their worlds (Becker, 1970 cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), events and behaviours are contextual and fluid and single events have multiple perspectives and interpretations (Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

This understanding underpins qualitative approaches and methodology which explore, through analysis of narrative data, the way in which participants interpret their world and how this explains their behaviour in given situations and may also predict their behaviour in the future given similar circumstances. Qualitative research is also carried out in natural settings rather than under laboratory conditions giving a picture of 'real life' or natural behaviour (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Wellington, 2000; Punch, 2009) which should ensure validity as the researcher is more likely to be measuring what he / she intends to measure (Wellington, 2000), rather than removing the participants from the context and trying to make sense if the behaviour in isolation.

Given these postulations, what methodologies are appropriate for research to be effectively carried out when we want to collect rich, descriptive data in a real life setting (Wellington, 2000; Opie, 2004)? This is achieved by employing descriptive methods and narrative analysis through analysis of, observations, interviews, documents and transcripts which are interpreted through looking closely at the subjective understanding of the participants. Wellington (2000) suggests that this can be achieved through;

- Immersion (listening to the data)
- Reflection (standing back from the data)
- Analysis (decontextualising the data, taking it apart and looking closely at it from a number of perspectives)
- Synthesis, Relating and Locating (identifying themes, patterns and contrasts)
- Re-contextualising and Integration (relating the new knowledge to that which is already known and understood about the subject in relation to established theory and research)

Miles and Huberman (1994) offer a similar framework for analysing qualitative data in relation to "data reduction – summarising and finding themes and patterns, data display – presenting data in tables, graphs diagrams and drawing and verifying conclusions – making and verifying propositions." (Miles and Huberman, 1994 cited in Punch, 2009: 174-175)

These analyses of the text (for example, interview transcriptions) are done through content analysis where the researcher looks for and identifies themes and patterns within the text to develop an understanding of the behaviours and actions of the participants in relation to their values and beliefs (Trochim, 2001). However, this is not without challenges, as already suggested. Because the researcher is also subjective in the analysis of the data (Trochim, 2001; Shenton, 2004), steps must be taken to ensure that bias is kept to a minimum through rigorous analysis and confirmation from other researchers and multiple analysis from different perspectives.

There is also a danger that key words used by participants may be misinterpreted when taken out of the context. So, for example the fact that a particular word used frequently, may lead to an interpretation that the word reflects a particular way of thinking, when in fact, contextually, it means something different (Trochim, 2001). However, through effective and careful, tried and tested analysis of the data (Shenton, 2004), by acknowledging researcher bias and misrepresentation (Trochim, 2001; Punch, 2009), and by random sampling where appropriate (Shenton, 2004), the data generated can give a clear and holistic understanding of the 'reality' of the participants and lead to a clear understanding of their behaviours (Trochim, 2001; Punch, 2009).

Before further analysis of the strengths and limitations of qualitative research, it is appropriate to offer a description of the different qualitative approaches which can be employed within social and educational research. As already posited the main feature of qualitative approaches is that the data is not recorded numerically or analysed using statistics. Qualitative research tends to be inductive and exploratory (Trochim, 2001; Morgan, 2007) and yields data which are rich and descriptive. The subjective perspectives of the participants are recorded in written form, giving the researcher an in depth

understanding of what people think and believe, enabling detailed exploration of issues and actions (Trochim, 2001). Some of these approaches identified by Trochim (2001) and Punch (2009) will be considered below.

Ethnography – associated with Anthropology, where the researcher becomes immersed within a culture and measures the actions of the culture from within using observation and field research to develop a clear understanding of the culture. This, as aforementioned, is related to Anthropological research. The premise is related to a constructivist understanding that knowledge is socially and historically constructed (Creswell, 2003), and the researcher explores "the symbolic meaning and significance of the behaviour within that context" (Punch, 2009:129). There is no predetermined hypothesis.

Phenomenology - the research aims to gain an understanding of the subjective nature of people and how this determines their behaviour.

Field Research – where the researcher observes the participants within a natural setting and analyses the behaviour within this context.

Grounded Theory – developed in the 1960s by Glaser and Strauss, where theory is generated and developed from observation and analysis of data rather than a priori hypotheses being postulated. Grounded theory starts with the exploration of a question and through qualitative analysis of the data, theories emerge. These are then tested to develop new theories and so on.

Case Study – can be the exploration and investigation of one case, one person's viewpoint, or a case study of a group or population. The case study involves in-depth analysis of a number of perspectives in order to construct a clear picture of phenomena. Case studies, unlike the traditional scientific method, often end with rather than begin with, a hypothesis.

The approaches all use similar methodology and instruments to carry out and analyse the data. Data is qualitative in nature, in the form of interviews, narratives, reports and documents, and observations, which are analysed qualitatively as already discussed, enabling triangulation, and thus producing more robust, meaningful results. (Wellington, 2000; Shenton, 2004)

On further consideration of different approaches to qualitative research it is apparent that there are similarities between the research approaches and the ontological and epistemological perspectives, which reflects the similarities in the methodology. Furthermore, it seems that qualitative methodology is focused on theory generation and development rather than theory verification or falsification (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative research is flexible in that it is applicable to a range of situations and can ask a wide range of questions. Furthermore, it can be modified as the study progresses, where, for example, interview questions can be clarified and elaborated upon as the research is happening. It enables phenomena to be studied in a natural environment, in real life contexts and can give an understanding of the underlying beliefs and values which determine and guide actions and behaviours (Punch, 2009).

If qualitative research is useful for interpreting and analysing behaviour and actions in relation to the subjective viewpoint, and enables us to understand and gain knowledge of these experiences and actions in relation to the notion of multiple realities, it might be criticised on the grounds that it may lack the reliability and validity of its quantitative counterpart, where statistical analysis can prove hypothesis, variables can be controlled and studies can be replicated to give reliability of results (Shenton, 2004).

Qualitative research, though, is perhaps interested in different aspects of understanding, as aforementioned. While the scientific approach is concerned with laws and universal truths, the qualitative approach is interested in interpretations and perspectives, thus replication is not necessarily a major issue (Shenton, 2004). How though can the qualitative researcher trust the data analysis without controlling the variables and the environment, and interpret it with the rigor which is obtained through statistical analysis? One of the values of qualitative research is that it generates rich, qualitative data which can be considered from a variety of perspectives, resulting in triangulation, making the analysis trustworthy and credible (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Wellington, 2000; Shenton, 2004). Through analysis of interviews, observations and reports of the same situation, multiple perspectives of the same phenomena, a whole picture can emerge. So while it may be argued that there are limitations to qualitative research, in relation to subjectivity, reliability, the nature of the data, narrative rather than numerical, and the subjective nature of interpretation of the data (Trochim, 2001; Shenton, 2004) there are also strengths. This has enabled in-depth analysis of phenomena to be analysed successfully, in relation to human experience and understanding (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Shenton, 2004; Punch, 2009), leading to renewed understanding of phenomena in the fields. Nevertheless, it could still be argued that relying on one research method at the expense of the other is to lose the opportunity to gain and develop the most sophisticated understanding of any field of enquiry and therefore it may be more constructive for social and educational research, to consider a mixed methods approach (Morgan, 2007; Punch, 2009).

Although it would seem that the distinction between realism and constructivism is so great that research has been forced to use one approach or another, qualitative or quantitative (Morgan, 2007), it has been argued that, in order to fully carry out effective research and data analysis to extend the knowledge of the social world and humans understanding within that world, both quantitative and qualitative methods need to be justified and applied. At first this may seem straight forward enough in that we can use qualitative methods and analysis to derive a rich narrative understanding of phenomena and quantitative measures to validate and support the qualitative results or vice versa (Punch, 2009). A questionnaire, for example, with additional space to qualify the choices made by the participant, would enable fuller analysis of the data than the numerical information or narrative information alone. Furthermore, interviews may be analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively to give a full understanding of how phenomena is understood, valued, perceived and interpreted, while also identifying and considering the frequency of particular viewpoints, or categorising themes and subsequently making comparisons, or finding correlations through reducing data to a numerical form and employing quantitative data analysis. This ‘methodological pluralism’ results in research which is superior to only using one method or another (Trochim, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This is consistent with the ideas of Creswell (2003) and Punch (2009) who suggest that a mixed method approach

allows the researcher to gain the most from each method and compensate for the weaknesses of both, claiming that researchers need to value both approaches, recognising the strengths of each and developing robust theories in social research, rather than employing an either/or way of thinking (Punch, 2009).

Although these postulations recognise and value mixed approaches it can be difficult to argue for it from a philosophical perspective (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003). How can both quantitative and qualitative methods be combined when the underlying philosophical principles are in opposition? From the realism perspective, in terms of quantitative research, ontological assumptions claim that what can be known is achieved through finding reality and facts and takes and objectivist's viewpoint in relation to the epistemological understanding of how knowledge can be 'known'. (Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). On the other hand the constructivist or interpretivist approach in terms of qualitative research assumes that ontologically what can be known is relative and therefore subjective in relation to epistemological perspectives (Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). So, this "incommensurability" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) can cause problems when arguing for combined methods in research.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Morgan (2007) argue that a different approach should be defined based on a pragmatic perspective. Should a paradigmatic approach then, be dismissed in relation to social research in order that mixed methods can be legitimately endorsed? Or can we argue for an alternative paradigm? It is argued that one can hold both perspectives of the world and reality as fixed while simultaneously holding the belief that subjective interpretation of those facts and realities will vary depending upon the perspective of the viewer (Morgan 2007).

However, this needs to be considered in terms of how we understand the paradigms in relation to shared world views. Pragmatism as a paradigm claims that it is the practical which should be the focus rather than the philosophical (Kuhn, 1970; Seale, 2002; Morgan, 2007;).The question being asked, what we want to find out, should determine the approach, design, method and analysis chosen rather than the ontological and epistemological beliefs of the researcher (Seale, 2002; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007; Punch, 2007). It is about a practical approach where the focus is on "what works in getting research questions answered" (Punch, 2009: 291).

Recent research carried out by Garbarino and Holland (2009) reflects this thinking. The study called for a mixed method approach in order to gain an in-depth insight from a range of perspectives to the phenomena being studied. Garbarino and Holland argue that qualitative and quantitative data can be complementary where the quantitative data produces statistics in relation to probability and frequency, and qualitative analysis allows a more in-depth probing of the data. For Garbarino and Holland's study both research approaches were equal in developing a holistic view of impact evaluation. The qualitative data described 'what is' while the quantitative data described 'how much of what is' (Garbarino and Holland, 2009: 11). This ensured that interpretation of the data was not lost as can be the case through quantitative analysis alone (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

This perspective justifies and enables qualitative and quantitative research to sit side by side comfortably, rather than in opposing camps where their philosophical basis prevents a marriage of the two (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007). Methods are combined effectively to examine and explore phenomena within social sciences research. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2003) identify three dimensions for collecting data through mixed methods.

1. Timing Dimension – focuses on the order of collection, for example, qualitative then quantitative or vice versa. This enables the researcher to use one type of data to support the analysis of the other through collecting numerical data then using interviews to support, confirm, explain, and elaborate on the results in order to gain a wider perspective.
2. Weighting Dimension – the researcher makes decisions about relative importance of the data in answering the question. This will be dependent upon the question being asked and the extent to which the researcher needs to qualify quantitative data and vice versa.
3. The Mixing Dimension – relates to the way in which the qualitative and quantitative data will be mixed. This allows the researcher to merge the data collection methods or keep them separate (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2003, cited in Morgan, 2007).

For Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) quantitative and qualitative 'purists' who argue for the superior nature of their preferred perspective are prevented from understanding the value of mixed method approaches, advocating the "incompatibility thesis" which posits that qualitative and quantitative research cannot be merged or mixed. However, the former claim that a third paradigm situated in between the qualitative and quantitative continuum enables a superior way of understanding phenomena and carrying out research.

It seems then, that mixed methods can achieve what neither qualitative nor quantitative research can do alone, and in relation to philosophical assumptions it has been argued by researchers that a pragmatic approach enables a third paradigm, the combination of approaches (Morgan, 2007).

In this essay it has been argued that both qualitative and quantitative research are appropriate depending on the field of study and that they are necessarily underpinned by two distinct ways of understanding the reality of the world, in terms of ontology, and how knowledge can be known, in terms of epistemology. A description of the main characteristics of the research methods has been discussed and the strengths and limitations of both have been critically analysed. Both paradigms have been considered in relation to mixed methods approaches and have been discussed in relation to recent research in relation to pragmatic approaches to research, which claims to account for and alleviate the challenges of philosophical assumptions as a function of research methodology.

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Research Report and Learning Plan

"I worry about confrontation"

A study into the role of psychological factors as a function of student teachers' response to behaviour management

Literature Review

Perceived inability to deal with behaviour in the classroom has been identified as a major concern and cause of stress for teachers and students teachers (Kokkinos, 2004; Bromfield, 2006; Clunies-Ross, Little and Kienhuis, 2008; Grieve, 2009; Reupert and Woodcock, 2011) and in some cases has led to practitioners leaving the profession (Spilt, Koomen and Thijs, 2011).

Behaviour management continues to be an issue for student teachers at the beginning of their teaching practice and sometimes beyond. Studies have shown that many students view disruptive behaviour as challenging to manage and they worry about this aspect of teaching (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; McNally, *et al*., 2005; Clunies-Ross et al, 2008; Koutrouba, 2013). it is interesting to note, however, that disruptive behaviour is also identified as a challenge for more experienced students who are at the end of their programme, where research has found that they are still pre occupied with behaviour management, (Kaufman and Moss, 2010), as well as among qualified teachers (Clunies-Ross, Little and Kienhuis, 2008). Surveys in Scotland suggest that this is an ongoing issue and has been identified from 2006 and before. (Scottish Executive, 2006). The Scottish surveys (Scottish Executive, 2006; Scottish Government,2009; Scottish Government, 2012) found that the main causes of concern for teachers is low level disruption, identified as behaviours such as talking out of turn, shouting out and distracting others . Although many initiatives and training have been put in to place it is still apparent that low level disruptive behaviour is a concern within Scotland and also internationally (Giallo and Little, 2003; Kokkinos, 2004; Atici, 2007; Kyriacou et al, 2007; Koutrouba, 2013) where low level disruptive behaviours such as shouting out inappropriately, distracting others and defiance are an issue in the classroom. If experienced teachers, then find this a challenge, it is perhaps not surprising that the novice does too.

Kokkinos *et al*., (2004) found that students were more concerned about what the researchers identified as 'externalising behaviours', those which disturb/ disrupt the classroom and other pupils, than 'internalising' behaviours, those which are internal to the pupil such as being off task or distracted. Merritt and Wheldall (1984) cited in Giallo and Little (2003) identified disruptive behaviour as that which interferes with the child's own learning, another's learning or the teacher's ability to teach. It seems that it is the latter two which constitute what Kokkinos *et al*., (2004) identifies as externalising behaviours and are the ones which are of most concern to the novice. Furthermore, Atici (2007) identifies three main characteristics of inappropriate behaviour as identified by students, and these can also be identified as externalising, in that they are behaviours which disrupt others. It seems then that the student teacher is most concerned with behaviours which are disruptive and/or distracting rather than those which are internal, such as disengagement or distracted behaviours.

It may be that the level of confidence in dealing not only with the behaviour but also in delivering the required lessons could cause anxiety in relation to keeping in control of the behaviour (Giallo and Little 2003; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003). Lack of self-belief may prevent students from dealing competently with behaviour issues. Other factors may be related to the feelings of negative emotions which are experienced when pupils' behaviour is disruptive (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Spilt, Koomen and Thijs, 2011). This in turn may lead to ineffective management, where the misbehaviour causes stress and results in negative responses, which add to the stress (Clunies Ross et al, 2008). In this situation reactive rather than proactive approaches are employed. Reupert and Woodcock (2011) report similar findings, where student teachers tend to focus on low level corrective strategies when dealing with misbehaviour and use reactive measures rather than proactive approaches.

Although there are similarities across cultures there are also some differences in the perceptions. Most of the international research in Western Europe, Australia and Canada identifies the same disruptive behaviours which challenge and concern teachers and students. These are mainly low level, such as shouting out, distracting others and talking out of turn. Similarly, there is consistency in international research in relation to how students perceive these behaviours, that they cause concern and anxiety. Furthermore, research has indicated that development of skills and experiences enable students to deal with these behaviours more competently as they become more confident (Atici, 2007)

However, there have been differences found in the behaviour management strategies employed, from proactive to reductive approaches and in the time it takes for students to develop skills. (Kyriacou *et al*., 2007)

Research has also suggested that, in Greek schools, the attributions that teachers make about student misbehaviour do not involve the teacher taking responsibility for the behaviour. Rather it is the education system or the pupils that are held responsible. This will have implications for the teacher's responses or level of perceived responsibility for inappropriate behaviour in the classroom. (Koutrouba, 2013). These findings are consistent with other international research, which reported that pupils' behaviour was attributed to pupil factors rather than the teacher (Ho, 2004; Atici, 2007).

There seem to be a number of factors which contribute to the students' concern. Spalding *et al*., (2011) argue that teaching involves an emotional, human element which "includes a large number of complex, dynamic and contextually bound and independent variables" (page 3). Behaviour management is not then, just a matter of putting particular strategies into place, or applying certain principles, (Bromfield, 2006; Reupert and Woodcock, 2011) but is about an emotional interaction between the teacher and pupil/s (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003). This understanding reflects the complex nature of managing children in the class and seems to suggest that this may be attributed to a number of psychological factors (McNally *et al*., 2007) and the interaction nature between what teachers think and feel, and how they respond as a consequence of this. Furthermore, it suggests that relationships are important in developing confidence and perceived ability to manage classroom behaviour. McNally *et al*., (2007) suggests that, because the student teacher is learning about so much in relation to teaching and learning and about children in general, that the management of the class

cannot be reduced to a number of strategies. The complex nature of relationships needs to be considered.

Sutton and Wheatley (2003) argue that the "teacher focuses on discipline problems because the emotions triggered by non-compliance of pupils are negative" (p344), intimating that emotional elements are important aspects of the teacher's responses. It may not necessarily be the behaviour itself, then, which is causing concern but rather the feeling of confidence in dealing with that behaviour. Furthermore, it may be a function of what the student feels about the loss of control within the classroom when disruptive behaviour occurs.

Cognitive Factors

As already discussed, challenging behaviour can result in stress for students and they can become anxious about effectively managing inappropriate behaviours. This is related not especially to the actual behaviour which is displayed but to the students' perception and interpretation of that behaviour. It is the way the student responds on a cognitive level which seems to determine how they think about the behaviours, and this in turn can affect the way they act or respond to those behaviours on an emotional as well as a physical level.

Kokkinos *et al*., (2004) explored student teachers' perceptions of the seriousness of undesirable behaviour. The study focused mainly on the cognitive aspects of the student teachers' perceptions, but also indicates that cognitive and emotional elements are connected.

What the student thinks about the behaviour will also have an effect on how they deal with it (Kokkinos *et al*., 2004). If a behaviour is deemed to be non-disruptive, then the student may not perceive this to be a challenge, as it is not questioning or confronting the authority or control of the teacher or disrupting others in the class. Kokkinos found that external behaviours were perceived to be more serious than internal behaviours. So those behaviours which were outwardly disruptive were viewed more negatively than those behaviours which were not disruptive. Lack of confidence in dealing with these outward, or external displays of inappropriate behaviours may also influence the way the student behaves when confronted and where confidence is low, they may respond emotionally (Kokkinos *et al*., 2004).

On a cognitive level the student may be drawing on previous similar experiences and where these have been negative the student may become anxious in dealing with similar issues. Furthermore, the student teacher will not have a repertoire of different strategies to deal with disruptive behaviours in the way that their more experienced counterpart may, (McNally *et al*., 2005; Clunies Ross and Little, 2008) and therefore they may resort to behaviourist techniques when trying to deal with the behaviour, (Atici, 2007; Reupert and Woodcock, 2011).

Affective Factors

As Kokkinos work suggests, the cognitive and emotional seem to be linked, he suggests that, "cognitions are assumed to drive behaviours" (P110). The perceptions one has about a given situation will influence the responses. A feeling of anger and annoyance that the

pupils are not conforming to the acceptable behaviour reflects the physiological response, where the individual feels threatened by the lack of control, and this can influence cognitive functioning (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003). When confronted with this type of behaviour the student may operate on an emotional level, feeling embarrassed, angry, frustrated or incompetent (McNally *et al*., 2005; Koutrouba, 2013) and resort to defensive behaviours or completely retract from the situation. This feeling of threat may prevent the student from dealing with the situation appropriately, leading to further feeling of lowered self-confidence and belief, and the responses may be inappropriate as a result of frustration or "heightened emotion" (Elliot *et al.,* 2011, p100).

Giallo and Little (2003) found that student teachers are more prone to stress than their experienced counterparts. This again suggests that they may respond on an affective level, feeling angry, frustrated or threatened which may lead to emotional responses and feelings of stress. In relation to Kokkinos *et al's*., (2004) research, this emotional response may be why the students feel more concerned about the "externalising" behaviours as these affect them or their authority in the classroom. It confronts them, whereas "internalising" behaviours do not confront or question the authority of the teacher and neither do they disrupt the flow in the classroom. Furthermore, the negative emotions connected with disruptive behaviour may also contribute to our understanding of why students are so focused on behaviour management in the classroom, as Kaufman and Moss (2010) found, where inappropriate behaviours can be distractive for the teacher, leading to emotional responses which affect "cognitive functioning" (Sutton and Wheatley, 2013: 336).

Attributional Factors

If the cognitive and the emotional are linked, then these both may influence or be influenced by the attributions which we make when confronted with inappropriate behaviours.

Weiner (2000) suggests that the attributions we make are influenced by our emotions, and where negative emotions are experienced the blame is more likely to be attributed to 'the other' rather than the self and this will impact on the cognitive processing and the action.

The way in which students make attributions when confronted with behaviours may contribute to the way in which they deal with them (Giallo and Little, 2003; Atici, 2007; Gibbs and Gardiner, 2008; Grieve, 2009; Woodcock, 2011). If the locus of control is perceived to be with the pupil, and the student teacher perceives the blame to be with the child, then the student may feel powerless to deal with the disruptive behaviour as it is out with his/ her control, leading to a feeling of helplessness, (Denholm, 2006, cited in Grieve, 2009) which again may contribute to lack of confidence. Conversely, where the locus of control is perceived to lie within the student teacher he/she is more likely to feel that he/she can influence the behaviour (Giallo and Little, 2003). So, beliefs about one's inability to deal with the behaviour and beliefs about the causes of the behaviour may be a significant factor in causing anxiety and concern (Giallo and Little, 2003). Grieve's research (2009) is consistent with this argument. He found that student teachers' beliefs about, and responses to, inappropriate behaviour was a function of the attributions they make about the behaviour, and most of this reflects internal factors (Spalding *et al.*, 2011). This change in attributions from the self to the other, or from the 'pathognomonic to interventionalist' view according to

Kyriacou *et al*., (2007) seems to be influenced by the development of confidence, where the strength of the attribution seems to be a function of the perceived control. This is consistent with Giallo and Little's (2003) work where they found that as confidence grew so did perceptions and ability to deal with inappropriate behaviours.

However, attributing the responsibility to the self, in the case of the student teacher, may also result in a feeling of uselessness. Where the novice lacks confidence, he/she may attribute the misbehaviour to lack of his or her own skills. (Miller, 2003 in Kyriacou *et al*., 2007). This may also cause the student teacher to take the inappropriate behaviour personally, and feel that the child is trying to take away the authority.

Research indicates, then, that there are a number of factors which may contribute to the way in which student teachers think, feel and respond to inappropriate behaviours and that strategies of intervention are not necessarily enough to enable them to deal with management issues in the classroom. Other factors such as the complex relationships between humans, the teacher and the child/children, the ways inappropriate behaviours are perceived, and the emotional reactions in relation to perceptions are crucial in understanding the nature of the student teachers' experiences. These three factors may interact causing anxiety and concern for the student teacher, leading to a lack of confidence.

The present study was designed in the context of ITE development to support and inform the current practice and course design.

Giallo and Little (2003) suggest that research needs to explore how confidence grows as the novice develops into an experienced practitioner. The present study is interested in this but before these questions can be answered it is proposed the factors which contribute to the novice teachers' perceptions, before they have any significant experience of managing the behaviour in the classroom, in terms of what they think about different behaviours in relation to appropriateness as well as their perceived ability to deal with inappropriate behaviours on a cognitive, affective and attributional level need to be explored,

Giallo and Little (2003) focus on the development of confidence as a function of professional preparation and class experience. The present study is concerned with confidence in relation to the individual psychology of the student teacher, in terms of their emotional state and how this affects their cognitive and attributional states.

The present study aimed to explore these aspects in relation to how students perceive disruptive behaviours, by investigating the extent to which there are indications that the affective, cognitive and attributional aspects interact to influence the feeling of confidence, and the extent to which these factors are important in the way the novice teacher responds to behaviour issues. The study was designed to explore these factors at a time when the students have limited experience of the classroom and dealing with behaviour issues, in order to explore the level of confidence in relation to their perceptions, what they think, their emotions, how they feel about dealing with behaviour and their attributions, how they attribute responsibility for behaviour. This is an initial study which is part of a longitudinal study which aims to explore the differences between the novice and the experienced teacher and to identify the way in which students develop from novice to experienced practitioners.

The study also explored any differences between groups and predicts that these differences will be minimal, in accordance with the literature, where most research has shown that the issues for Initial Teacher Education students in relation to behaviour management are common across cultures. The study does predict however that there may be differences between the attributions which students make as a function of culture, as suggested by Koutrouba, (2013) and Ho, (2004).

The instruments were created to consider what first year student teachers display in relation to, what they think about behaviour, the emotions they feel and the attributions they make.

In order to explore these ideas, a three dimensional model of the teacher is tentatively proposed, where it is posited that the affective (physiological responses to inappropriate behaviour), the cognitive (thoughts and beliefs about children's behaviour) and the attributional (beliefs about where the responsibility lies) will influence a practitioner's actions in relation to behaviour issues, and these are developed as practitioners gain experience of, and expertise in managing behaviour. While this model will be drawn upon to test developing practitioner's responses and behaviours, an exploratory approach will be taken where other factors will be identified and investigated.

From a theoretical perspective the research draws upon attribution theory, cognitive theories, physiological theories as well as learning theories, to identify and explain responses to behaviour issues within and across cultures.

Method

Participants and Procedures

The participants in the study were Scottish and Greek students studying in their first year of an undergraduate MA degree in Education. 55 Scottish students and 5 Greek students took part.

The sample was of variable age groups; ages ranged from nineteen to mid-forties. The Scottish students consisted of both male and female and the Greek students were all female, therefore gender was not considered as a variable for analysis.

All students were studying the same programme and were all in the first year of their study at the same point in their studies when the data was collected. They had all had the same experiences in relation to lectures on behaviour management and experience within school. However, it is acknowledged that the students may have had additional experiences within classrooms, out with the current programme, but this was not explored and therefore was not considered as a variable for analysis. The lectures and school experience were identical in content, where students were in the same stage of the primary school (upper stages). The school experience was mainly about observing the teacher and working with groups or individuals. The students at the point of the study had had very little responsibility for

managing the whole class unsupported, although they may have had some opportunities to take responsibility for whole class teaching for a few lessons.

The main differences between the groups were the cultural difference and the schools, where Greek students were in a Greek school and the Scottish students in Scottish schools.

Comparisons between the two student groups, who are studying and will practice within their own cultural context, were explored to gain insights into the differences and similarities between beliefs, values and behaviours, and students' physiological responses to behavioural issues. Comparisons between the Greek and Scottish groups were also explored to identify any cultural differences.

The aim of the study was explained to the participants and they completed a consent form to agree to take part in the study. Questionnaires were handed out at the end of a lecture and participants were asked to complete these anonymously for ethical reasons. The lecturer was known to the students and a there was a high level of trust between the lecturer and the students, who were very keen to participate in the study, and who felt confident in sharing their thinking.

Interviews were carried out on the Athens campus with Greek students. This additional data collection was carried out to gain further insights into the Greek students' perceptions as a result of the small data set. The group interview was carried out by a member of staff who is well known to the students and with whom they feel very comfortable and confident. All five students agreed to participate in the interview. The interview was recorded and transcribed.

Methodology

The approach was mainly quantitative, to gain a measure of what students perceive:

- Behaviour issues to be
- How they attribute responsibility
- How confident they feel in their ability to deal with inappropriate behaviour

Qualitative data was also collected in the form of additional comments and through interview with the Greek students to gain further insights into their thinking.

The choice of a mixed methods approach was underpinned by a clear understanding of the principles of both quantitative and qualitative designs in relation to ontological and epistemological perspectives

Towards a Pragmatic Approach

According to Punch, (2009) research is not "neutral" or just a technical exercise. It is influenced by our values and perspectives (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011) and thus it is important to explore different methods and justify the research approach.

Choices of approaches, it is argued, are influenced by ontological assumptions which in turn will underpin epistemological assumptions (Opie, 2004; Morgan, 2007; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Where a positivist position is assumed, the nature of reality and how knowledge can be known will be based on an understanding that the world is fixed and determined and phenomena can be studied within this context. Conversely, where an interpretivist perspective is assumed, the understanding of the world is viewed in terms of multiple realities, where knowledge can only be understood from a subjective point of view. (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). However, a pragmatic approach, based on the question being asked, rather than the philosophical perspective can present an alternative paradigmatic view in relation to research methods (Morgan, 2007).

It is within these possibilities that the current research is positioned and choices for research design are considered within the context of current thinking in relation to research literature.

Within the field of educational research quantitative data tends to be collected through questionnaires using a Likert type scale, which allows the data to be reduced to a numerical form enabling analysis which can identify frequency and patterns. (Punch, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). It has been argued that this method may reductionist (Punch, 2009) and can result in a lack of insight into the perceptions, values and beliefs of the participants. Nevertheless, this method was employed as part of the research design, to gain a large enough amount of data which could be recorded numerically in order to look for patterns of responses in relation to current thinking. This enabled the data to be analysed in relation to 'the what' rather than 'the why' to explore what the students thought rather than to explore why they had particular viewpoints.

The challenges to this approach in relation to educational research are acknowledged, however, and a purely quantitative approach cannot fully explore human behaviour and action. Human experience is subjective and there are implications when it is studied from positivist, objective point of view through analysis of numerical data alone. (Punch, 2009)

In response to the limitations of using one approach, the research design included the collection of qualitative data to explore not only what the participants thought but also why they might have these perceptions, and also to enable the data to be explored more fully. This interpretivist approach recognises the notion of multiple realities from an ontological perspective (Opie, 2004; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), and acknowledges that, epistemologically, reality is a construction of the perceiver rather than an interpretation of the objective truth, and what can be known can only be known within this context (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2009).

This perspective is also consistent with the main arguments considered within the review of the literature, where it has been posited that it is not necessarily the reality of what is happening within the classroom, but the student teachers' perception of that and this will influence their responses on a number of psychological levels.

This approach to thinking about the subjective reality of the world, suggests that research design, in order to yield rich data, should not be confined to quantitative methods, but should employ qualitative approaches to gain a clear and full picture of human behaviour and action.

However, although qualitative data can yield rich data and enable an in-depth analysis, due to the nature of the narrative from of the data, there are limitations which have been identified (Trochim, 2001; Shenton, 2004). If the perspectives of the participants are subjective, then it can be argued that this is also true in the case of the researcher. Interpretations of the data are subjective and this has implications for the reliability of the results.

However, both research methods have their strengths and weaknesses and perhaps a combination of both is most appropriate for educational research rather than relying on the data from one method or another. Although it may be argued that combining qualitative and quantitative approaches is challenging in relation to their underpinning philosophical assumptions, in relation to ontology and epistemology, the pragmatic approach suggests that mixed methods can be just as valid, when a different set of assumptions are held, and it has been argued that this approach is superior to taking and either or approach to research design (Trochim, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Furthermore, a mixed methods approach enables the quantitative data to be further explored in relation to the qualitative data and vice versa, and enables the researcher to harness the strengths of both approaches. (Cresswell, 2003; Punch, 2009).

In taking a pragmatic approach it is argued that the question being asked is the important factor, rather than the philosophical assumptions. (Kuhn, 1970; Seale, 2002; Morgan, 2007). It is within this practical perspective that the design of the current study is located, where the question being asked and the ideas being explored are the basis for the choice of research method, rather than a particular world view.

In relation to data collection the current study draws on the work of Cresswell et al's (2003, cited in Morgan, 2007) three dimensions for data collection though mixed methods. The 'Timing Dimension', where one type of data is used to support the analysis of the other, was employed in relation to the interviews which were carried out following the quantitative analysis of the data to support and confirm the quantitative data, and also to gain further insights into the responses. The 'Weighting Dimension' was also drawn upon, where the importance of the data was considered in relation to the questions being asked and enabled both sets of data to be qualified in relation to each other.

In employing a mixed method, pragmatic approach, where the method of data collection reflected the questions which wanted to be answered, rather than a positivist or interpretivist approach in relation to ontology and epistemology, the quantitative data enabled analysis of what the perceptions were and the qualitative data enabled further insights of the perceptions to be gained.

Instruments

A questionnaire was created drawing on the main behavioural issues which have been identified within a number of international research studies and is consistent with the perceptions of teachers regarding behaviour issues identified in the Scottish Government survey (2012). They were also consistent with the behaviours which had been identified as the most common types of behaviours identified in Greek schools.

Initial questions were devised to ascertain what students think about the seriousness different behaviours within the classroom. Questions related to feelings and confidence were asked as a result of research which suggests that emotional aspects and confidence is a major issue for the novice in dealing with behaviour issues. Questions related to how student teachers attribute the responsibility for disruptive behaviour were asked to discern the attributional dimension of managing behaviour.

The interview questions were created following analysis of the questionnaires. These related directly to the questionnaire questions, while elaborating to gain further insights into the participants' perceptions.

A pilot questionnaire was distributed to second year students prior to the study to gain feedback on the quality of the questions and amendments were made as seen necessary.

Results

Perceptions of Seriousness of inappropriate behaviours – Cognitive Dimensions

The five point scale from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1) was completed by participants. The data was conflated for strongly agree/agree and do not agree/strongly disagree for the purposes of analysis in order to manage the data more effectively. Number 3 on the scale, unsure, was left as individual data. This was included in order not to force the participants into making a decision one way or the other, as this could affect the validity of the results.

For the purposes of this study the data for strongly agree/agree was combined and collated, and analysed to explore the similarities and differences between the participants' perceptions to gain insights into the extent to which the participants viewed behaviour as unacceptable and challenging.

The behaviours identified were identified as being a selection of the most common behaviours which cause concern for student teachers internationally.

For the present study the behaviours were grouped into three categories:

Confrontational/Aggressive - Those behaviours which were identified as confrontational towards another person.

Disruptive/Distracting – Those behaviours which were identified as non-confrontational but causing a distraction to others in the classroom and/or disrupting the flow within the learning.

Non disruptive/Distracted – Those behaviours which were identified as non-distracting to others but demonstrated individual lack of engagement within the learning/classroom.

Within the analysis differences of over 20% will be discussed, any differences of less than this will not be assumed to be notable.

Question one asked the participants to rate the degree to which they found the behaviours unacceptable. The results are shown in tables 1, 2 and 3.

Table 1: Perceived unacceptable behaviours – Confrontational/Aggressive (Agree/Strongly Agree)

Confrontational/Aggressive	Scotland (n=55)	Greece (n=5)
Refusal to do what is asked	96% (n=53)	80% (n=4)
Outbursts	85% (n=47)	60% (n=3)
Arguing with staff	98% (n=54)	40% (n=2)
Fighting with others	100% (n=55)	100% (n=5)
Ignoring warnings/ sanctions	98% (n=54)	80% (n=4)

In Scotland confrontational behaviours were deemed more unacceptable than either disruptive/distracting or non-disruptive/distracted, whereas in Greece some of the disruptive/ distractive were seen as just as unacceptable as confrontational/aggressive (see table 2).

The Greek participants seemed to be less concerned with outbursts and arguing with staff than the Scottish group. In interview the Greek students stated that arguing with staff was good and healthy. One participant suggested that it was appropriate for pupils to argue with staff when they disagreed or when they were not able to see the teacher's point of view. This was interesting in offering further insights into the differences between the Greek and Scottish groups. Furthermore, in the interview the Greek participants discussed the definition of the word, 'argue' suggesting that it could be interpreted in different ways, such as 'arguing in order to win a victory' or 'arguing in order to question a point of view'. This data suggests that the statement could be ambiguous and depending on the viewpoint it may be understood in different ways.

Table 2: Perceived unacceptable behaviours – Disruptive/Distracting (Agree/Strongly Agree)

Disruptive/Distracting	Scotland (n=55)	Greece (n=5)
Shouting out	66% (n=36)	80% (n=4)
Interrupting	69% (n=38)	60% (n=3)
Distracting others	80% (n=44)	60% (n=3)
Leaving seat/wandering	71% (n=39)	40% (n=2)

In Scotland, leaving seat/wandering, were deemed as more inappropriate than in Greece with a difference of almost 30%. In interview it was stated that some children need to wander and leave their seats and one student suggested that in some lessons this would be appropriate while in other it may not be acceptable. The results suggest that the circumstances are important in determining the extent to which a behaviour is acceptable or unacceptable. This is consistent with the statement 'arguing with staff', where the Greek students' responses were related to the circumstances surrounding the behaviour.

Table 3: Perceived unacceptable behaviours – Non-disruptive/Distracted (Agree/Strongly Agree)

Non-Disruptive/Distracted	**Scotland (n=55)**	**Greece (n=5)**
Off Task	49% (n=27)	20% (n=1)
Lack of Attention	40% (n=22)	0% (n=0)
Underachieving	27% (n=15)	20% (n=1)

Non-disruptive/ distracted behaviours were deemed to be the least unacceptable behaviours by both groups of participants. However, there were some noticeable differences between groups.

In Scotland almost half of the participants deemed off task to be unacceptable whereas 20% of the Greek participants perceived this to be unacceptable.

In Scotland 40% of the participants felt that lack of attention was unacceptable where none of the Greek participants identified this as unacceptable.

Question 2 asked the participants the extent to which they found the same behaviours challenging. Results are shown in tables 4, 5and 6. In this section one Scottish participant did not respond.

Table 4: Perceived Challenge - Confrontational/Aggressive (Agree/Strongly Agree)

Confrontational/Aggressive	Scotland (n=54)	**Greece (n=5)**
Refusal to do what is asked	81% (n=44)	80% (n=4)
Outbursts	76% (n=41)	100% (n=5)
Arguing with staff	74% (n=40)	40% (n=2)
Fighting with others	83% (n=45)	100% (n=5)
Ignoring warnings/ sanctions	83% (n=45)	100% (n=5)

For both groups confrontational behaviours were deemed to be the most challenging to deal with. This is consistent with the perceived seriousness of these behaviours (see table 1).

However, there is one noticeable difference between groups in relation to ‘arguing with staff’, where the Scottish group perceived this as both challenging (74%) and unacceptable, and the Greek participants found this less challenging (40%) and less unacceptable (40%).

The Scottish group were reasonably consistent in their responses to question one and two, with over 70% agreeing/strongly agreeing that the behaviours were both unacceptable and challenging for all questions on the confrontational/aggressive dimension, whereas there was a noticeable inconsistency in the Greek responses for the second behaviour,

‘outbursts’, where 60% of the Greek participants found this unacceptable but 100% found this behaviour challenging to deal with.

In relation to outbursts the Greek students found this more challenging and yet less inappropriate. This seems to be related to the responses in interview where the Greek students discussed the difficulty in knowing what to do, even when they perceived a behaviour to be less serious, although they did not directly relate this to outbursts.

In the rest of the cases both groups were fairly consistent in their responses to question one and two for the confrontational/aggressive dimension (see table 1 and 4 for comparisons).

Table 5: Perceived challenge – Disruptive/Distracting (Agree/Strongly Agree)

Disruptive/Distracting	**Scotland (n=54)**	**Greece (n=5)**
Shouting out	48% (n=26)	60% (n=3)
Interrupting	43% (n=23)	40% (n=2)
Distracting others	57% (n=31)	60% (n=3)
Leaving seat/wandering	46% (n=25)	60% (n=3)

Between group analysis showed no major difference (less than 20%) between the perceived challenge for the disruptive/distracting dimension, although there were some differences for shouting out and leaving seat/wandering. For both groups, responses were between 43% and 60%.

The results suggest that for both groups, disruptive/distracting behaviours are perceived to be less challenging for the students than confrontational/aggressive behaviours, except for the Greek participants in the behaviour of arguing with staff.

There was a noticeable difference in the Scottish participants’ responses to question one and two in relation to the disruptive/distracting dimension, with around a 20% difference for all behaviours. Over 65% agreed or strongly agreed that these behaviours were unacceptable, whereas the results show that they found them less challenging, with approximately half of the respondents agreeing/strongly agreeing that these were challenging (see table 2 and 5 for comparisons).

The Greek responses identified differences, too, in the perceived seriousness of the behaviour and the perceived challenge. For shouting out and interrupting, they found these more serious but less challenging, with a difference of 20% for both behaviours. Although they found leaving seat/ wandering less serious, they found it more challenging to deal with, where the results show a difference of 20% (see table 2 and 5 for comparisons).

In the interview this was discussed in relation to knowing what to do and the teacher’s judgement. It was felt that although a child may be wandering, which was not perceived as unacceptable for the Greek students, as was stated ‘some children need to move around’ it was a challenge knowing how to deal with this. Again in relation to lack of experience it may

be that students' perceptions that low level disruptions are easier to deal with, whereas teachers have a greater knowledge of how these behaviours can affect the flow within the classroom. On the other hand, it may be lack of experience in knowing what to do. This relates to the idea that lack of prior experience will limit the repertoire of strategies which one can draw upon.

Table 6: Perceived challenge – Non-disruptive/Distracted (Agree/Strongly Agree)

Non-Disruptive/Distracted	**Scotland (n=54)**	**Greece (n=5)**
Off Task	33% (n=18)	40% (n=2)
Lack of Attention	52% (n=28)	60% (n=3)
Underachieving	48% (n=26)	60% (n=3)

Analysis of differences between groups showed no major differences in the perceptions of challenge on the non-disruptive/distracted dimension (table 6).

The Greek responses show a noticeable difference between the perceived challenge of behaviours and the seriousness/acceptability of behaviours on the non-disruptive/distracted dimension for all behaviours, where they are deemed to be less serious, but are perceived to be more challenging, with a difference of 20% for off task behaviours and a difference of 60% and 40% for lack of attention and underachieving respectively (table 3 and 6).

In interview this was discussed in relation to teacher knowledge and judgement and the teacher's ability to keep pupils on task. The Greek students reported that they found it difficult to identify if children were on task, and if they were paying attention or not. So, while they did not perceive it to be particularly unacceptable they did find it challenging to discern the extent to which children were attending. One participant also stated that she felt it was challenging to deal with because all children are different and they need to be responded to in different ways.

Responses for the Scottish participants showed less of a difference between perceived challenge and acceptability, although there was a noticeable difference of 21% between the responses for underachieving behaviour, where results showed that where 27% of respondents perceived this behaviour to be unacceptable, 48% found it challenging (table 3 and 6).

In relation to challenge for all three dimensions there was a noticeable difference in both groups' responses between the confrontational/aggressive dimension and the other two, with confrontational/ aggressive being perceived as the most unacceptable and non-disruptive/ distracted being the least unacceptable for both groups, but no major difference between the perceived challenge in relation to the dimensions of disruptive/distracting and non-disruptive/distracted (see table 4, 5 and 6), although there were differences between all dimensions in relation to perceived acceptability (see table 1, 2 and 3).

It seems that the more confrontational/ aggressive behaviours were perceived as most unacceptable as well as most challenging for all initial teacher education students who

participated in the study, where non-confrontational behaviours, while some were perceived as being unacceptable, were not, in the main, deemed to be as challenging for the same students. However, there were differences between acceptability and challenge on the other dimensions. There were differences in the perceived acceptability and challenge for both groups, where the disruptive/ distracting behaviours were deemed to be less challenging even though they were perceived as unacceptable. However, one of these behaviours, leaving seat/ wandering, was perceived to be a challenge by the Greek participants, although it had not been identified as being as unacceptable as the other disruptive/ distracting behaviours. Furthermore, for the behaviour, distracting others, there was not difference between the perceived level of acceptability and the level of challenge for the Greek participants.

For both groups non-disruptive/ distracted were perceived to be more acceptable and less of a challenge than confrontational/ aggressive behaviours and disruptive/distracting behaviours, although the perceived differences in challenge were less noticeable between these dimensions.

The students were presented with four statements and asked to respond on a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being do not agree and 5 being strongly agree:

“I don’t worry about confrontations because I can deal with them”

“I can deal with low level disruption confidently”

“I can see potential triggers before a challenging situation occurs”

“I get to know children quickly”

Over half of the Scottish students did worry about confrontations and just under half of the Greek students. While this is not particularly notable it perhaps suggests that to some extent the students have concerns. This is consistent with the answers given in section one of the questionnaire (see tables 1 & 4), where confrontational/ aggressive behaviour was perceived to be the most serious and most challenging. In the interview, the Greek participants discussed feelings such as disappointment, disheartenment and anger. One participant said that she felt ignored and another stated that ‘it gets you down’ and described these feelings in relation to responses such as stamping your foot or going red in the face, in relation to how they felt about inappropriate behaviours. When asked about what they thought about these behaviours they discussed aspects related to the self, such as ‘why are they doing this to me’ and in relation to the emotional self, such as ‘I try to calm myself down’. This suggests that the affective is related to the attributions which they make and that at this stage in their development they are focused on the survival aspects of managing the classroom.

Sixteen of the Scottish participants, however, scored neutral (neither agree nor disagree) for this question suggesting that although they perceive confrontational behaviour to be challenging and unacceptable (see table 1 & 4), they are not sure about how they feel about dealing with these displays of behaviour. This was also evident in the Greek participants’ responses in the interviews where it was reported ‘you don’t know how to react’ and ‘you

don't know if you can handle it'. This may be due to the lack of experience they have in the classroom. Further research as they develop through the ITE programme may identify their feelings about these behaviours more fully.

Forty of the Scottish participants and three of the Greek participants felt that they could deal with low level disruption confidently, suggesting that they are less concerned about these types of behaviours. This is interesting in relation to the Scottish Survey (Scottish Government 2012) where teachers perceive low level disruptive behaviour to be of significant concern.

These results are consistent with the scores in the first section of the questionnaire, where the participants perceived disruptive/non-confrontational behaviour to be less serious and less challenging than confrontational behaviour. However, it is notable that the Greek students found low level disruption more challenging than the Scottish participants for three of the four behaviours (see table 5), but still less challenging than the confrontational behaviours in the main.

This might also relate to the fact that the less disruptive the behaviour is the less impact it might have on the student in relation to emotional responses. So, where confrontational or aggressive behaviour might be perceived to be threatening and lead to anger and other negative responses, low level behaviours do not elicit such negative emotions. Further research following additional placements may give some useful insights.

Thirty two of the Scottish participants and two of the Greek participants agreed or strongly agreed that they could see potential triggers before a situation occurs. In relation to confidence this suggests that the students feel they are able to identify precursors to inappropriate behaviour. This confidence seems to be a function of their perceptions, as they had not had significant experience of classroom management. This seems to suggest the interaction between confidence in relation to affect and cognitive processes in relation to their perceptions.

In response to statement 4, "I get to know children quickly", forty four of the Scottish participants and three of the Greek participants agreed or strongly agreed. This result shows that more than half of the students felt confident in developing a relationship with the children quickly and have little concerns about getting to know pupils. Again, this seems to indicate that the confidence/ affective dimension is related to the cognitive dimension. As they had little experience of building relationships within the classroom at the time of the study they seem to be answering based on what they already think about themselves. Perhaps participants are drawing on their previous experiences to influence their responses. As they have had little experience in managing a whole class, but the majority have had experience within a classroom in a supporting role, they may find that they have built relationships fairly readily. However, with a whole class and the responsibility of managing the learning as well as the management of behaviour they may find this more of a challenge.

Attributional Dimension

The results varied and there was a lack of consistency in responses. It is interesting that none of the Greek participants agreed or strongly agreed that if the children were behaving

inappropriately it was the fault of the teacher. This is consistent with their responses in relation to the notion that the children were' doing this to me'. The responses of the Scottish students showed a similar pattern, where only eight strongly agreed/ agreed that it was the fault of the teacher.

However, the responses did vary and the responsibility was perceived to be partly due to the teacher and partly due to the parents by one participant. Another suggested that it was a balance between teacher, parent and child. So, these results must be viewed with caution and are not clear cut in relation to the attributions which are made, even though there is some evidence that the participants, in Greece, did take the pupils' inappropriate behaviour personally. Statements such as 'why are they doing this to me', 'I've been so good with them', 'would they prefer someone yelling at them; they don't appreciate a calm climate', 'I'm here to help you and you are ignoring me' and 'I feel like a child…It's not fair…stop it'.

For the statement "children behave the same way all of the time…" none of the Greek participants agreed or strongly agreed. Three were unsure and two disagreed. During the interview two students did discuss their experiences of observing a peripatetic music teacher and they recognised that she treated different children differently and that all of the children behaved positively when in her class, even those pupils who were disruptive in other classes. Responses included statements such as 'she knew how to treat different people' and 'teachers have different styles and characteristics'. This suggests that these students, who had experience of observing the way in which children behave in different settings, did consider that there were differences in the way they behaved depending on the teacher's approach. It is worthwhile noting that the statements acknowledged that the disposition or character of the teacher might be an important factor. This is interesting in light of the scores for the previous statement where the expectation might be that they would have answered differently, that they might have agreed that children do behave in the same way all of the time given that they suggest that the teacher is not responsible or at fault when children behave inappropriately. Perhaps the way the statement was worded has not fully tapped into this. Twenty of the Scottish students agreed or strongly agreed with this statement, suggesting that there may be a link between the responses to this statement and the prior statement, regarding the responsibility of the teacher for the children's behaviour. However, seventeen were unsure and eighteen disagreed or strongly disagreed so the responses were very mixed.

For the statement about the teacher using different strategies all Greek students and fifty three of the Scottish students agreed or strongly agreed. It is interesting that they agreed that there are a number of strategies which can be used, suggesting that although they did not agree that the teacher was responsible for the children's behaviour they felt that the teacher could influence the behaviour through employing a variety of approaches. This is consistent with the Greek students' responses in relation to the peripatetic teacher's approach,

Perhaps this set of statements did not fully explore attributional elements. The word fault may carry particular connotations which are viewed as negative. Perhaps by using the word responsibility the results may have been clearer.

Discussion

The study found that much of the responses were consistent with research, when novice teachers do have difficulty managing behaviours and this, on the whole, is a function of the perceived seriousness of that behaviour in relation to the perceived threat to the self. Interactions between the three dimensions, cognitive, affective and attributional, suggest that there is a relationship among them and that student teachers' inexperience may lead them to think, feel and act in ways which are not as effective as their experienced counterparts, (Clunies Ross et al, 2008; McNally *et al*., 2005)

Confrontational behaviours and behaviours which disrupt the classroom are perceived to be the most serious and most challenging for students. This is consistent with Kokkinos *et al's.,* (2004) study where students seem to be more focused on externalising than internalising behaviours. Other studies too have shown that confrontational and aggressive behaviour is a concern for student teachers (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Atici, 2007; Clunies-Ross *et al.*, 2008; Koutruoba, 2013). Low level disruption was less of a concern and non-disruptive was the least concerning. This may be due to the fact that non-disruptive behaviour, while it may be detrimental to the individual child, does not affect the harmony within the classroom, where disruptive and/ or confrontational does. Furthermore, non-disruptive behaviours do not question the authority of the teacher. Initial experiences for students where they focus on maintaining control of the class is consistent with how the students' perceive seriousness and unacceptable behaviours. This will be further discussed in relation to affective responses.

There were differences between the level of seriousness and the level of challenge in the present study, and although students found some behaviours to be less serious they still found these challenging to deal with. This result seems to imply that challenge in the initial stages of students' development is not only related to their perceptions of acceptability of the behaviour and may raise interesting questions about challenges in managing the complexity of the classroom and 'knowing what to do', (McNally *et al*., 2005; Spalding *et al.*, 2011).

So, although research does indicate that inappropriate behaviour can cause anxiety (Kokkinos *et al*., 2004) there is also some evidence in this study to suggest that even when a behaviour is not deemed to be extremely serious the student may still be anxious about how to respond. Given the inexperience of the students this is not surprising and relates to the notion that on a cognitive level an experienced practitioner can 'call upon' a repertoire of strategies from past experiences, unlike a novice (McNally *et al*., 2005; Clunies Ross and Little, 2008).

The results indicated that the students felt that relationships were important in managing the class and the interview was consistent with this, where the students recognised that the teachers' approach to the children was a significant factor. The interviews also suggested that in challenging situations the students were trying to operate using humanistic principles but found this difficult and stated that their negative emotions were interfering with this. (Koutrouba, 2013; Elliot *et al.*, 2011).

In relation to attributions, the study suggests that the students did take a 'pathognomonic view' (Kyriacou *et al*., 2007) and results were also consistent with Kotrouba's (2013) suggestion that Greek teachers do not perceive themselves to be responsible for behaviour problems and Ho's findings (2004). It is interesting, however to note that the Scottish participants gave similar responses to this statement. This suggests that there are little differences in relation to the cultural differences between the groups and that the inexperience of both samples contributes to the attributions they make in relation to responsibility for the behaviour.

The majority of the participants felt that the pupils' misbehaviour was personal to them and this was related to the affective domain. Where they felt out of control, they reacted on an emotional level. (Elliot *et al*., 2011). However, it was interesting to note that they recognised that an experienced teacher could manage different behaviours effectively; suggesting that although they did not feel able to achieve this at this early stage in their own professional careers, in some ways they understood that this was successful.

The students stated that they felt confident in managing low level disruptions. They were not as confident in dealing with confrontational behaviour though and this may be because they feel that this is a threat to them, leading to emotional feelings of fear and anxiety as the literature suggests, (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Giallo and Little, 2002).

They felt more confident in dealing with low level issues and this is consistent with their answers to the questions based on their cognitive appraisal (Kokkinos *et al*., 2004). The behaviours which were disruptive but not confrontational were perceived to be less serious and less challenging. It seems that perceptions and feelings are interlinked, where students found they worried more about confrontational behaviour and also found this more challenging and serious than low level behaviour which in turn they worried about less. It also seems to suggest that both of these are related to the attributions which the students make. Behaviours which are perceived to be challenging affects their emotional state, (Sutton and Wheatley, 2003) and influences the attributions they make (Giallo and Little, 2003; Grieve, 2009).

Differences between the groups did raise some interesting questions in relation to cultural beliefs, and although 'arguing with staff' seems to be a challenge for all students, the Greek students found this to be less serious than the Scottish participants. Perhaps this is due to different perceptions of arguing and would be worth further research. Furthermore, it may be worth exploring the perceptions of pupils in relation to arguing with staff, where the connotations may be different in relation to confronting authority as a function of cultural values and beliefs.

Limitations

There are a number of limitations in this study. Firstly, the very small sample of students from Greece makes it difficult to come to any definite conclusions about the results, and make it difficult to really be confident in the comparisons between the cultures. This was partly addressed through additional interviews with the Greek students to gain a fuller understanding of their thinking. However, this is still not ideal and a solution to this will be to

disseminate the questionnaires to another set of students entering the programme to gain a larger sample.

In relation to the questionnaire, some of the affective and attribution statements perhaps did not fully tap into the students' emotions and attributional styles. Further questions which are more straightforward and clearly related to attribution and affect should be created. In relation to attributional aspects, questions perhaps needed to be clearer and some of the language used may have been ambiguous. The questions need to be modified to draw out the attributions that students make for children's behaviour more clearly, and the attributions they make in relation to the responsibility of the teacher in causing or contributing to inappropriate behaviour.

There was a notable difference between groups in relation to their perceptions of the seriousness of 'outbursts' and this may have been more fully explored in the interview. Failure to do this has prevented further analysis of this aspect.

Although it is difficult to make comparisons due to the small Greek sample, there were some interesting points which would be worth exploring further. The differences for example in the way Scottish and Greek students view what is unacceptable behaviour would be worthwhile considering in relation to how children understand the notion of arguing with staff, as well as how the teacher understands this. There may be cultural differences in the way children think about this. If arguing with staff is perceived to be a display of disobedience by one cultural group of children but viewed as an acceptable way of offering an alternative point of view then there will be differences in relation to the perceived seriousness of such behaviour.

Future research needs to explore the affective and attributional dimensions more fully to gain a clearer picture of the interaction between these dimensions in relation to behaviour managements. Further study with a larger sample would enable a clearer picture to emerge in relation to the differences between groups in relation to cultural differences and may also provide more valid results. The planned longitudinal study and additional interviews, and thematic analysis may shed additional light on the interaction between the three dimensions.

Conclusion

This study has been successful in helping to gain some insights into students' perceptions in relation to what they think, how they feel and the way in which they make attributions, while acknowledging the limitations and weaknesses of the design. The study set out to identify why students find behaviour management challenging in relation to the interactions between cognitive, affective and attributional factors, and the way in which they contribute to responses to inappropriate behaviour, and to some extent this was achieved.

However, some other interesting aspects were found. Although the students were apparently operating on a 'pathognomonic' level (Kyriacou *et al*., 2007), there was some indication that they understood that relationships were important and that teachers could influence the behaviour of children in the classroom, and they linked this to the teacher's character or disposition. So, although they were not perhaps experienced enough to operate on a humanistic level they did acknowledge that this was an effective way of managing the children. What seems to be indicated by the results is that at an early stage of development

the student is concerned with survival, where they are trying to manage a number of aspects of the classroom and when this is threatened they become influenced by their emotions, and thus have difficulty taking an objective view, which leads to negative attributions. This is consistent with Atici's (2007) findings where students changed their approaches to become more humanistic as they developed form novice to more experienced practitioner, and were able to manage their emotional stress more effectively.

This may be due to lack of experience where they have no prior experience to draw upon so feel at a loss. Experienced effective teachers, on the other hand, when faced with similar situations perhaps can regulate his/her emotions, based on a more objective appraisal of the situation, leading to differences in the attributions they make and thus the resulting responses.

This study, despite the limitations identified, has explored some of psychological aspects which may be important in understanding what is happening when student teachers are confronted with varying degrees of behaviour issues, and has intimated that there is an interaction between the cognitive, the affective and the attributional, and together they influence the effectiveness of responses to classroom challenges. It has also intimated that when negative emotions are felt, the attributions we make tend to be negative in relation to the other in the context of beginner teachers' experiences.

Future research in relation to the development of the student teacher using the cognitive, affective and attributional dimensions may support our understanding of how the novice develops and becomes the expert. It would also be worthwhile exploring teachers' perceptions on these dimensions in order to understand the psychological factors which underpin behaviour in the context of behaviour management.

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Learning Plan

Rationale:
 	
• Behaviour Management is an issue for student teachers and research has shown that this is a cause for concern
  ○ Students worry about managing behaviour competently
  ○ Inability to manage behaviour causes stress and has led to teachers leaving the profession
  ○ Students have found that strategies are not enough to manage behaviour effectively
  ○ Students develop confidence as they progress from the beginning of ITE programmes until they complete
  ○ Behaviour management seems to be a function of different psychological elements
  ▪ It is proposed that when managing behaviour a student/ teacher is working on a variety of levels
  • Cognitive
  • Affective
  • Attributional
  ▪ And these aspects may interact to influence action

Research Methods Module:

- Critical Analysis of qualitative and quantitative research methods
- Report – A study into the role of psychological factors as a function of student teachers' responses to behaviour management
    - Study demonstrating understanding of the research process and methodology

Literature Review:

Historical Perspectives of Behaviour Management

- How behaviour management strategies have changed over time
    - Behaviourist Approaches
    - Cognitive Approaches
    - Humanist Approaches

Psychological Theory

- Understanding behaviour from a psychological perspective
    - Cognitive Theories
    - Affective theories
    - Attributional Theories

Current Perspectives

- Initial Teacher Education Research
    - Cross cultural comparisons
    - Student development
        - Developing identity
        - Developing knowledge developing practice
        - Developing a repertoire of responses to behaviour issues
    - Research related to student teachers' cognitions
    - Research related to student teachers' emotional state
    - Research related to the attributions student teachers make
- Government perspectives
    - Government surveys
    - Government legislation
- Literature related to behaviour management
    - Textbooks
    - Behaviour management techniques and strategies
- Research of Practices
    - Proactive/ Reactive Approaches
    - The nature of the teacher – Authority and expertise
    - The skill of the teacher – Tacit knowledge
    - Social aspects of the classroom – Social Belonging

Research Methods:

- Reading:
    - Quantitative Research Methods
    - Qualitative Research Methods
    - Pragmatic Approaches
    - Justification for Mixed Methods Approach

Data Collection and Analysis:

- Questionnaires
  - Questions related to cognitive, affective and attributional aspects of how students perceive behaviour have been devised using a Likert type scale. A section for additional comments follows each question
  - Data will be collected from the same group of students over a four year period
  - Data Collection has already begun for the purposes of programme development
  - Data will be collected following placement each year.
  - Analysis will comprise of exploring differences in students perceptions in relation to cognitive, affective and attributional aspects of behaviour management as they make progress from first to fourth year
  - Further analysis may be carried out in relation to gender and age if the data allows
  - All data will be anonymous
- Interviews
  - Questions related to cognitive, affective and attributional aspects of behaviour management
  - Interviews with students from year two and year four will be carried out to gain qualitative data to support the quantitative data from the questionnaires
  - Students will opt to be interviewed
  - Interviews will be recorded and transcribed
  - Thematic and content analysis will be completed for all interviews
  - All students participating will complete a consent form
- Student Reflections
  - Weekly reflections from students will be analysed using thematic and content analysis to support the quantitative data
  - All students participating will complete a consent form

Final Draft

- Discussion:
  - Student development in relation to the literature over the four years of the programme
  - New insights gained in relation to the interaction between the cognitive, affective and attributional dimensions
  - Implications for future research in relation to student teacher development
  - Limitations of the study
  - Conclusions

Ethics:

Ethical aspects will be taken into account in accordance with Dundee university ethics and approval will be sought from the Ethics committee

- It is acknowledged that there are potential ethical issues related to this study
  - Students are studying in the university on the ITE programme and the researcher is a lecturer who teaches on the programme.

- Minimising ethical issues
    - All questionnaires are anonymous and students will complete these through choice
    - Students will give consent for interviews to be carried out and all information will be treated anonymously
    - Students will give consent for weekly reflections to be analysed
    - Students will have the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time throughout the four years.
    - The researcher is aware of the ethical issues and will at no time encourage students to engage with the research
    - The researcher will treat all data confidentially and anonymously
    - The researcher will at no time allow any data to influence the students' progress on the programme