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AN ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION COURSE CONTENT
SPECIFIC TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND STUDENT
MOTIVATION WITHIN SELECTED NCATE ACCREDITED
TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the School of Teaching, Learning, and Leadership
in the College of Education
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Orlando, Florida

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2011

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ABSTRACT

The focus of this research was to complete a micro-examination of professional education course content related to classroom management and student motivation in approximately 24 traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPP) drawn from the eight of the 10 largest teacher-producing states. Programs of study, course descriptions from the school catalogs, course syllabi, and student teaching handbooks or field guides for professional education courses were analyzed to determine what, if any, knowledge voids existed within selected programs designed to serve preservice teachers. Specifically, the researcher investigated materials to discover the depth and breadth of the professional education course content related to classroom management and student motivation offered to preservice teachers during their higher education undergraduate experience. The findings of the study have documented that a common practice in the programs reviewed was to infuse the content of each key topic, classroom management or student motivation, into other professional education course work. This practice serves to diminish the depth and breadth of the professional course content presented to the preservice teachers which, in turn, dramatically increases the risk of the development of a knowledge void.

This dissertation is dedicated to my most treasured and valued commodity,
my family.

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CHAPTER 1 THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

Introduction

This chapter has been organized to provide an overview of the research. Included are statements citing the problem and purpose of the study. The conceptual framework is presented along with an outline of the methodology which was used in collecting and analyzing the data. The delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study have also been discussed.

Statement of the Problem

The attrition of beginning teachers has been a long standing problem and a topic of concern throughout the United States. Attrition has been studied from multiple perspectives, e.g., teacher quality, work force stability, and student achievement, in order to determine reasons for teachers leaving the profession and to improve the retention of a high quality, stable work force. Teachers have been viewed as the single most important factor for improving student learning and achievement (Marzano, 2003; Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003; U. S. Department of Education, 2004; Wong, 2004; Wong & Wong, 2009), “the immediate and clear implication . . . is that seemingly more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor” (Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Therefore, the problem of the study was

to determine if knowledge voids exist within the professional education course content of traditional teacher preparation programs.

One area which has received limited attention in the investigations of teacher attrition has been the alignment, or lack thereof, between teacher-stated causes for dropping out of the teaching profession and actual teacher preparation content. This area, teacher education professional course content, was the focus of the research. Teacher preparation content needs to be intense, meaningful, and inclusive of knowledge related to (a) classroom management and (b) student motivation. These areas have been identified as knowledge voids (Helton, 2008) and have proven to be particularly challenging for beginning teachers. Such attention has the potential to escalate the confidence of novice teachers in their ability to improve student learning and achievement. Carefully selected, research-based coursework that is presented to preservice teachers may further decrease the occurrence of such knowledge voids which can negatively impact teachers in their early years in the profession. Recognizing, accepting, and then acting on the information that knowledge voids do exist within teacher preparation programs should enhance the future new teachers' chances of surviving past the critical five year attrition mark.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study was to complete a micro-examination of professional education course content in approximately 24 traditional teacher preparation

programs (TTPP) drawn from the 10 largest teacher-producing states. Programs of study, course descriptions from the school catalogs, course syllabi, and student teaching handbooks or field guides for professional education courses were analyzed to determine what, if any, knowledge voids existed within selected programs designed to serve preservice teachers. Specifically, the researcher investigated materials to discover the depth and breadth of the professional education course content related to classroom management and student motivation offered to preservice teachers during their higher education undergraduate experience.

Background of the Study

As reported by 2004 projections of the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), by the time new teachers have reached their fifth year of teaching, about one in three will have become a teaching attrition statistic. For novices who elected to teach in high poverty or urban areas, this statistic will have increased to one in two. These young educators, who fell into the category of the attrition statistics and left the teaching profession, believed they were competent and possessed the theoretical knowledge base necessary to become effective teachers (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006). They believed the training they had received in their preparation programs fully prepared them for what they would encounter in the day-to-day operations of the classroom. Therefore, when it becomes evident that a knowledge void may be present as evidenced by a classroom teacher's performance, the school district should take immediate action to

rectify the situation by providing the teacher administrative support and inservice training related to the deficiency. In addition, the school district should have an obligation to report the deficiency to the college or university who conferred the educational degree to the teacher. This notification would increase the probability that the traditional teacher preparation program would hold itself more accountable for the preservice teacher training program offered to those aspiring to become teachers.

Using data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) for 1994-1995, Ingersoll and Smith (2003) reported four reasons for teachers leaving the teaching profession: leaving as a result of school staffing action (19%); leaving the profession for family or personal reasons (42%); leaving to pursue another job (39%); and leaving for job dissatisfaction (29%). Teachers leaving for job dissatisfaction were permitted to select up to three reasons for leaving. For the 29% who reported leaving due to job dissatisfaction, poor salary (79%), student discipline (35%), poor administrative support (26%), and poor student motivation (17%), were the primary motivators for their departures.

In a policy brief prepared for the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF), it was reported that in 1999 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania the attrition rate for teachers was higher than that of the student drop-out rate. Tracking new students entering high school and new teachers hired at the same time, the teacher drop-out rate was 70%, exceeding that of students at 42% (National Commission on Teaching, 2007). Florida's statistics were similar. In fall of 1992, the Florida

Department of Education, through the Office of Policy Research and Improvement, initiated a ten-year study of 107,229 public school teachers in Florida classrooms. The overall attrition rate, which did include retirees, was 39.5% with only 64,926 remaining in the classroom in fall of 2002. Horne (2003) addressed the loss of younger teachers, “Among those teachers who were younger than 55 in 1992, one-third (33%) were no longer teaching in 2002” (p. 1).

Helton (2008) addressed the problems associated with knowledge voids. She researched and examined the historical development of six major university teacher preparation programs and three alternative certification programs in which she sought to “determine trends in programs of study, specifically including coursework in education foundations, teaching methods involving the behavioral sciences, and subject area content” (p. 10). Helton (2008) further stated the areas were researched as “these categories were the content that is responsible for a teacher’s working knowledge of their subject area, as well as student learning, behavior management, and motivation” (p. 10). Results revealed little coursework was dedicated to filling the knowledge voids. However, she did find that training in two specific knowledge voids, “student behavior management and meeting individual student needs . . . were touched on sporadically in traditional teacher course content, [yet] there were virtually no classes dedicated specifically to them” (Helton, 2008, p. 176).

Several additional research studies (Gratch, 1998a; Veenman, 1984) have been conducted to determine the challenges currently referred to as knowledge voids that new

teachers have faced in their early years. In studying the relationships between challenges experienced by new teachers and teacher preparation programs, Veenman stated there were eight areas that most affected new teachers. These areas included “classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students’ work, relationships with parents, organization of class work, insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students” (Veenman, 1984, p. 143).

While researching teacher induction and how the induction process could be enhanced to decrease teacher attrition, Gratch (1998a) stated there was “a prevalence of comments and concerns surrounding issues of classroom management and discipline, meeting the needs of individual students, and motivating students to learn” (p. 5). She iterated that the concerns of teachers have remained consistent over time and suggested other researchers have reported the same concerns. Gratch (1998b) noted that she had found the same areas of concerns, or knowledge voids, in another of her research projects involving 10 beginning teachers.

Ingersoll and Kinman (2002) discussed the impact of teacher education students’ preconceived notions about teaching on the knowledge voids in the teacher preparation programs discussed by Helton (2008), Gratch (1998a), and Veenman (1984). According to Lefrancois (2000), teacher beliefs that are inaccurate or missing can lead to ineffective teaching behaviors, thereby increasing the occurrence of inappropriate behaviors by students. As preservice teachers internalize and begin to own the knowledge and

information presented to them in their teacher preparation programs, their preconceived beliefs about teaching can be changed. However, if knowledge is missing, or when knowledge voids exist, student classroom management, students' motivation, and subsequent student learning can become major challenges for the new teachers (Darling-Hammond, Holzman, Gatlin, & Heilig, 2005) and lead to teachers being identified as less than effective. Wong (2004) stated:

The ultimate purpose of any school is the success and achievement of its students. Therefore, any efforts that are made must improve student achievement. Improving student achievement rests with the teacher. What the teacher knows and can do in the classroom is the most important factor resulting in student achievement. (p. 41)

Marzano et al. (2003) stated "We live in an era when research tells us that the teacher is probably the single most important factor affecting student achievement—at least the single most important factor we can do anything about" (p. 1). Wong and Wong (2009) concurred in their discussion of classroom management and student motivation. They stated "decade after decade of educational fads and innovations have not increased student achievement [and] the only factor that increases student achievement is the significance of an effective teacher" (p. 11). Substantial research (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2008; Greenwald, Hedges, & Laine, 1996; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Rockoff, 2004) has further shown that the qualifications and effectiveness of teachers are closely linked to student achievement.

In addition, Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) have found that student achievement gains have been much more affected by the teacher assignment than by

other factors such as class size or the composition of the class. Effective teachers have been able to help students achieve at higher levels regardless of the curriculum or pedagogical approach (Allington, 2003; Wong, 2009). Additional researchers (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2001) have shown that having an effective teacher, instead of an average teacher, for four or five consecutive years could basically close the performance achievement gap in math for students considered to be living in poverty and high-income households. Earlier researchers (Sanders & Rivers, 1996) reached conclusions that children who were instructed by effective teachers for three consecutive years benefited from a 54% academic achievement edge over the children who had teachers considered least effective for the same time period.

Classroom teachers' beliefs have been determined to impact their actions within the four walls of the school building, and their notions and beliefs have been found to be influenced based on the content knowledge presented to them in their teacher training programs (Floden & Buchmann, 1989). Shulman (1987) has suggested that teachers should be able to move from personally comprehending material to being able to prepare others to comprehend the material. It is only when teachers understand something well that they can teach it to someone else (Toh, Ho, Chew, & Riley, 2003).

Teachers must be able to make decisions immediately. Frequently, there is little time for reflection about how to handle a situation, especially when student classroom management or student motivation is considered. If teachers have not been adequately prepared, including developing a working understanding of effective student classroom

management and motivation techniques, and cannot readily access this learned knowledge for their immediate, split-second use, their actions will be less than effective within the classroom.

Knowledge voids that persist for students as they become teachers contribute to a lack of confidence in their own abilities and less than effective teaching. This, of course, manifests itself in lower achievement gains by students. As student achievement declines, so does teacher satisfaction with the profession. Teachers' disillusionment with their preconceived ideals and notions about their teaching abilities grows, contributing to the likelihood that they will become casualties of attrition.

Conceptual Framework

Darling-Hammond (1990) has stated that to form a profession, members of the occupation must agree "that they have a knowledge base, that what they know relates directly to effective practice, that being prepared is essential to being a responsible practitioner, and that unprepared people will not be permitted to practice" (p. 288).

When reviewing the research on teacher preparation, Doyle (1990), as well as Yarger and Smith (1990), suggested there was no common theory that could be used to study the preparation of teachers. In addition, Feiman-Nemser (1990) stated "the need for such a strategy underscores the immature state of a field in which different forms of teacher preparation are only loosely tied to explicit traditions of thought, and conceptual orientations lack well-developed traditions of practice" (p. 212).

The areas of interest in the study concerned two potential voids in teacher preparation programs: student motivation and classroom management. These voids may ultimately contribute to less effective teachers and a declining quality of student achievement. Literature from four areas (teachers' impact on student achievement, quality initiatives in teacher preparation, student motivation, and classroom management) has been reviewed to provide the basic conceptual framework for this study.

The first component of the literature review was focused on the teacher as the single, most important factor affecting student achievement (Boyd et al., 2008; Greenwald et al., 1996; Rivkin et al., 2005; Rockoff, 2004). In the review of the literature, the linkage between the qualifications and effectiveness of teachers to student motivation and classroom management, new teachers, and student achievement was explored. Student motivation was discussed from a psychological perspective. The review of the literature presented in Chapter 2 provides a brief overview of the development of four basic areas of psychology and a subsequent discussion of student motivation rooted in a psychological context. Lefrancois (2000) indicated that expert teachers need to be aware of the stable characteristics of learners and suggested, "Among the most useful of your beliefs as a teacher are those that relate to how students change, how they learn, what motivates, reinforces, and punishes them, and what is interesting and important to them" (p. 7). All of these topics fall into the field of psychology, which, as defined by Lefrancois (2000), is "the science that studies human behavior and thinking" (p. 7).

To address classroom management, major contemporary classroom managerial techniques that emerged following the gradual infusion of psychology into the field of education have been reviewed. These models include (a) assertive discipline, (b) choice theory, (c) logical consequences, and (d) positive classroom management.

A final component of the conceptual framework addressed the criteria established for traditional teacher preparation programs and the standards by which such programs are judged. Over the years, the United States Department of Education has supported the development of quality teacher preparation programs in institutions of higher education throughout the United States. The U. S. Department of Education suggested that the programs tended to be four-year undergraduate programs where students concentrate their education in a “content-area specialty (such as mathematics or language) or in a content area with a focus on education” (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b, p. 3). Also, programs have included courses related to pedagogy and field experiences, and teacher candidates have been required to work in actual classrooms under the supervision of experienced teachers (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b).

Title II of the Higher Education Opportunity Act has been important in addressing quality issues in its requirements for state-approved programs and in providing a national database of each state’s adopted assessment criteria.

Regional and national accreditation agencies have also played a role in establishing criteria for traditional teacher preparation programs. States have adopted criteria developed by regional or national organizations designed to not only establish

quality performance standards but to make more uniform the preparation of individuals regardless of the preparing institution (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b).

Recognition by national associations such as The National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education (NCATE), though voluntary, has been a recognition desired by institutions seeking to demonstrate a high degree of preparedness of their graduates.

It is the NCATE standards which were particularly relevant for this study. There are six NCATE standards that measure the effectiveness of an institution according to “the profession’s expectations for high quality teacher preparation [and describe] the specialized content that teacher candidates should master” (NCATE, 2008, p. 9). Two of the six performance standards that are used in determining accreditation status for teacher preparation programs provide a context and theoretical basis for the examination of classroom management and student motivation as they are addressed in professional education course content and clinical and field experiences. The standards are:

Standard 1: Candidate Knowledge, Skills, and Professional Dispositions: Candidates preparing to work in schools as teachers or other school professionals know and demonstrate the content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and skills, pedagogical and professional knowledge and skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students learn. Assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional standards. (NCATE, 2008, p. 12)

Standard 3: Field Experiences and Clinical Practice: The unit and its school partners design, implement, and evaluate field experiences and clinical practice so that teacher candidates and other school professionals develop and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and professional disposition necessary to help all students learn. (NCATE, 2008, p. 12)

The recognition by NCATE of these aspects of teacher preparation provides a solid rationale for further inquiry into the extent to which institutions of higher education have explicitly addressed concerns that have presented problems for fledgling teachers. Teachers who leave the profession have frequently cited a lack of preparedness as a reason for their departure. Novice teachers have often been confident in their theoretical and pedagogical knowledge upon completion of their preservice training only to discover that they are unprepared to deal with the challenges that face them in terms of motivation (Marzano, 2003) and classroom management (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Gratch, 2001; Marzano, 2003).

Programs of study and professional education course content have been reviewed to assess the extent to which classroom management and student motivation, critical factors in teachers' decisions to remain in or leave the profession, have been addressed in elementary and secondary traditional teacher preparation programs. Materials related to field experiences/internships and clinical experiences have also been closely scrutinized to determine the extent to which teacher education students gain real world experience which prepares them for the challenges of 21st century classrooms prior to entering the teaching profession.

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions are provided to ensure uniform understanding of the terms used throughout the study:

Behavior management: A system of procedures designed to promote precise and measureable changes in behavior. Behavior management procedures may address antecedents of existing behavior, consequences of existing behavior, or the establishment of new behavior (Schloss & Smith, 1994).

Behavior modification: Changes in the behavior of individual; also refers to psychological theory and research concerned with the application of psychological principles in attempts to change behavior (Lefrancois, 2000).

Classroom management: A comprehensive term for a variety of teacher actions designed to facilitate teaching and learning in the classroom (Lefrancois, 2000). Techniques used to maintain a healthy learning environment, relatively free of behavior problems (Woolfolk, 2010).

Differentiated instruction: A flexible approach to teaching that matches content, process, and product based on student differences in readiness, interests, and learning needs (Woolfolk, 2010).

Discipline: Methods used to prevent behavior problems from occurring or to respond to behavior problems so as to reduce their occurrence in the future (Slavin, 2009).

Extrinsic reinforcement: Praise or rewards given to motivate people to engage in behavior that they might not engage in without them (Slavin, 2009).

Intrinsic reinforcement: Reinforcement that comes from within the individual rather from the outside (Lefrancois, 2000).

Knowledge void: Lacking content that is responsible for a teacher's working knowledge of a subject area (Helton, 2008).

Learning: A change in an individual that results from experience (Slavin, 2009).

Metacognition: Knowledge about one's own learning or about how to learn (thinking about thinking) (Slavin, 2009).

Motivation: An internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior (Woolfolk, 2010).

Perception: A person's interpretation of stimuli (Slavin, 2009).

Pedagogy: The study of teaching and learning with applications to the instructional process (Slavin, 2009).

Reinforcement: The procedure of providing consequences for a behavior that increases or maintains the strength of that behavior (Chance, 2009).

Teacher attrition: Those teachers who leave teaching altogether (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

Teacher efficacy: The degree to which teachers feel that their own efforts determine the success of their students (Slavin, 2009).

Delimitations of Study

This study was delimited to approximately 24 traditional undergraduate teacher preparation programs from public institutions selected for review. To be eligible for selection, institutions were required to meet three basic criteria. First, the selected

programs were generated from eight of the 10 highest teacher-producing states: Texas; New York; Florida; California; Pennsylvania; North Carolina; Georgia; New Jersey; Virginia; and Illinois (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b). California and Virginia were excluded from the study due to very limited numbers of teacher graduates at the undergraduate level. Only institutions that met Title II requirements within their states were considered as potential participants in the research. “Title II authorizes federal grant programs that support the efforts of states, institutions of higher education and their school district partners to improve the recruitment, preparation and support of new teachers” (U. S. Department of Education, 2006, p. 1). Only public institutions that were accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) were eligible for participation in the study. The specific details of how the sample for the study was derived are provided in Chapter 3. A complete list of the selected traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPPs) can be found in Appendix B.

This research focused on TTPPs at the undergraduate level. For some of the included institutions, courses containing the content of interest in this study were offered and available to teacher education students at the graduate level (post baccalaureate). These graduate level, professional education courses have not been included within this research.

The program content reviewed in the study was narrowly focused. It was delimited to that which was related to student motivation and classroom management.

Limitations of Study

There are over 1,200 traditional teacher preparation programs in the United States (*Making a difference*, n. d.) available for review. Thus, the 24 programs (Appendix B) selected for micro-analyses comprised a relatively small sample within each state. It is possible that the findings of the study may not be representative of the entire teacher preparation programs for individual states.

Professional Education Data System (PEDS) data, the main source of undergraduate program completion data in this study, are self-reported to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) by participating institutions using a report template provided by AACTE. Not all institutions participate. When PEDS data were not available, the researcher used states' higher education data bases to access needed numbers of education undergraduate degree recipients so as to select the largest programs from those that met the criteria for inclusion in the study.

Data for this study were accessed primarily on line, using institutional web sites, course catalogs, student teaching handbooks or field experience guidebooks, and available syllabi. When data for the selected institutions were accessed, it was anticipated by the researcher that required coursework taught by different instructors could generate some differences in course content information within an institution's teacher preparation program. Differences were resolved using available on line program descriptions such as NCATE self-study reports, materials descriptive of programs, or additional clarifying information obtained through email communication with the

respective institutions. It was anticipated that all material requested from the institutions might not be available to the researcher. This limited the data available for analyses for some teacher preparation programs.

Research Questions

The following four research questions will be used to guide the study.

1. What course content related to classroom management do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?
2. To what extent do preservice teachers receive field experience related to classroom management within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?
3. What course content related to student motivation do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?
4. How do preservice teachers receive “hands-on” experience related to student motivation within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Methodology

Population and Sample

Based on information obtained from the U. S. Department of Education, Higher Education Act, Title II Reporting System, roughly 81% of the 2003-04 teacher preparation program completers “reported by states were trained in traditional programs at 1,096 postsecondary institutions” (U. S. Department of Education, 2006, p. 6). Furthermore, in 2009, over 55% of all teachers who were licensed and/or credentialed for the first time were from one of the following top ten, teacher-producing states: Texas (30,257); New York (30,122); Florida (21,035); California (19,387); Pennsylvania (14,192); North Carolina (12,277); Georgia (11,895); New Jersey (10,977); Virginia (10,179); and Illinois (10,157) (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b).

Two of the top 10 teacher producing states originally identified as appropriate for inclusion in the study had five-year teacher training programs that were inclusive of graduate level course content. Since the purpose of the research was to review undergraduate professional educational course content, the two states whose initial preparation programs included graduate content, California and Virginia, were excluded from the study. For the state of Florida, the teacher preparation program at the University of Florida was excluded because of its high number of five-year teacher preparation programs culminating in master’s degrees. Only a few education degree programs were offered at the undergraduate level, and the majority of education degrees were conferred

at the graduate level. Thus, 24 traditional teacher preparation programs from public institutions in eight of the top 10 teacher-producing states were selected for micro-analysis of the professional education course content in their programs.

Data Collection and Analysis

Since the purpose of this study was to complete a micro-examination of specific teacher preparation program professional educational course content as it related to classroom management and student motivation, much of the primary data was collected using content analysis, the results of which have been presented using descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics provided the researcher with a method to report on the data in an organized manner whereby the results can be summarized and interpreted in meaningful ways (Lomax, 2007). A statistical program for analyzing data, SPSS, assisted the researcher in the reporting of the results of the information obtained from the research. Supporting narratives were used to explain any tabular displays.

To assist in maintaining the integrity and consistency in the data collection process, the researcher created data collection instruments specific to the categories being researched. These data collection instruments, the contents of which were based on the literature reviewed, were used in reviewing topics and subtopics encompassing classroom management and student motivation within the selected teacher preparation programs. The data obtained for each TTPP using the data collection instruments were then summarized and micro-analyzed to arrive at the research findings for this study.

Organization of Dissertation

An overview of the study has been presented in this chapter including a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, and definitions of key terms. Also contained in the chapter are the conceptual framework, the research questions, and an overview of the methodology used to conduct the study. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the literature and research related to the problem. Chapter 3 details the methodology used in the study and the data collection and analysis procedures. The analysis of the data is contained in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 provides a summary and discussion of the findings, potential implications of the study, and suggestions for future research.

Summary

The problem of the study, that attrition rates of new teachers entering the classrooms early in the 21st century have reached record highs, have been presented in this chapter. Through micro-scrutiny of professional education courses in the selected teacher preparation programs, course content knowledge voids related to student motivation and classroom management have been identified. These voids, which present potential challenges for many newly-trained educational professionals, contribute to the high attrition statistics. The identification of knowledge voids may be helpful to those responsible for the initial preparation of the nation's teachers and also to the many school districts who assume responsibility for the induction of beginning teachers into the teaching profession.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter begins with a brief account of the development of the American educational system followed by a review of literature related to the four areas of interest in the study: (a) the teacher as the single, most important factor affecting student achievement, (b) quality initiatives in teacher preparation, (c) motivational techniques as determined by a review of the major theories and theorists of psychology, and (d) contemporary classroom managerial techniques.

The American Educational System and Teacher Preparation

Since the beginning of time, humans have recognized the importance of banding together to form groups. Primitive humans found that being included in group life provided greater efficiency in gathering or growing food, in building shelters, and in protecting group members from enemies (Ornstein & Levine, 1985). These primitive humans soon realized they needed to pass on to other group members, the necessary skills they had learned if their culture was to flourish and succeed. Children were the recipients of this sharing of the culture as the elders disseminated their knowledge and expertise in their specialized tasks through the use of song, stories, and rituals (Ornstein & Levine). Because of their motivation to pass on their culture, knowledge began to be represented pictorially. Later, they translated their knowledge to symbols that could be

read. In order to preserve and transmit their culture to future generations, the beginnings of literacy evolved (Ornstein & Levine).

To fully understand the motivational factors found within the institution of the American educational system, a brief walk, through the historical development of America's educational system is necessary, as "the memories of the past that make up history constitute an absolutely crucial part of what we presently are" (Southgate, 2000, p. 40). John Dewey, (cited in Ornstein & Levine, 1985) one of the world's leading educational philosophers, explained why reviewing the history of education is a valuable tool:

Educational issues and problems are often rooted in the past; the study of educational history can help us to understand and solve today's problems; realistic efforts to reform education begin with the present conditions, which are a product of our past; and, the study of education's past provides a perspective that explains and illuminates our present activities as teachers (Dewey, 1916).

Ornstein & Levine (1985) stated that the beginnings of formal schooling in America began in the Colonial Era and were based on an elitist and religiously orientated model. As the colonists settled in North America, they developed a motivational factor to succeed and pass on their culture to their children. They organized schools that were based on the rigorous standards they brought with them from Europe (Cuban, 1993). Lower socioeconomic status individuals attended the primary or vernacular schools and were offered a basic curriculum of reading, math, writing and religion (Cuban). The Latin-grammar schools and colleges were for the upper-class members of society only,

whereby the elitists' sons were prepared for leadership roles such as in the church, state, or society. Females might attend the elementary or vernacular schools and learn the basics. However, that was where their education usually stopped (Cuban; Ornstein & Levine).

Following the period of time when the United States won its independence from England, the forces of democracy worked to erode the elitist form of education that had been in place (Ornstein & Levine, 1985). Motivated by the necessity to teach the basic civics and skill competency, the common or public school emerged onto the scene with the primary purpose of educating all children of various social, economic, and ethnic backgrounds into the broad American community (Cuban, 1993; Ornstein & Levine). Since the 10th Amendment to the constitution had reserved the powers over education to each state, schools at this time varied considerably. Even though the patterns for establishing the common or public school varied from state to state, a set of procedures was occurring within the process of establishing the elementary public school system (Cuban; Ornstein & Levine).

Teacher preparation during the colonial period and well into the 18th century was for the most part nonexistent. Individuals who were motivated to become educators merely had to read, write, spell and had to be of good moral character (Ornstein & Levine, 1985). Even with the emergence of the normal schools, which were teacher preparation schools that offered courses to prepare the candidate for teaching (Kosmoski, 2006), no formal certification procedures existed (Ornstein & Levine). Eventually,

normal schools became colleges or universities. At the time of the present study, early in the 21st century, and except for extreme emergency situations, all states required those who wish to teach in public schools in the United States to possess a four-year degree prior to entrance into the teaching field (Ornstein & Levine).

As schools continued to educate children, questions began to arise regarding the purposes of public schooling. Even though schools for the elite of the community were becoming an icon of the past, segregation among races and/or religions in public schools still existed (Ornstein & Levine, 1985). One individual, Horace Mann, believed that common schooling was a necessity “if the United States was to develop the unifying bond of a common culture” (Ornstein & Levine, p. 161). Motivated by his belief that every child, whether rich or poor and regardless of religion or class should be able to attend school, he set in motion the inclusive practices and ideals that the educational system has continued into the present (Ornstein & Levine).

In the 1950s (the Cold War era), education institutions and teachers came under rapid fire as being a failure to the American people (Bracey, 2003). Schools experienced conflicts over integration and desegregation as well as decentralization and community control (Bracey). This included large urban areas as well as smaller rural locals. Bracey contended that the educational reform being pursued by the federal government was partly due to the Russians launching the first man-made satellite to orbit the earth. Many critics viewed the failure of the Americans to be first in space as a reflection on the educational system and teachers (Bracey; Silberman, 1970). Motivated by the upheaval

Sputnik created, politicians came to see, for the first time, schools as integral to the national defense and as important as weapons in the Cold War. Bracey further stated that the reputation of the public schools in America never recovered from the Sputnik scenario. Critics have continued into the present to blame the ills of society on the educational institutions and, in particular, on teachers (Goodlad, 1990).

In efforts to improve the educational system, the year 1965 saw the legislative body of the federal government begin its encroachment into the arena of education with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965). This included provisions for compensatory education for educationally disadvantaged children (Cartwright, Cartwright, & Ward, 1985). In 1981, Secretary of Education, Terrel Bell pulled together a National Commission on Excellence in Education. The product of this commission, a report entitled *A Nation at Risk*, has been referred to as the “Paper Sputnik” (Bracey, 2003). The report that was released in 1983 suggested that the United States was “at risk in the sense that our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, service, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world” (Ornstein & Levine, 1985, p. 31). The commission concluded that one of the major causes of the decline was a “rising tide of mediocrity in the schools” (Ornstein & Levine, p. 31). The commission further made recommendations for improvements in the educational system such as (a) increasing the content of education; (b) adopting higher standards and expectations for student performances; (c) devoting more time in the existing school day for higher level coursework, and lengthening the day if necessary;

and (d) making teaching a more rewarding and respected profession (Ornstein & Levine, 1985).

Bracey (2003) argued that reports such as *A Nation at Risk* that claimed the national security was at risk, opened the door further for the politicians to insert their long arms into an arena that was once reserved for the states. Exemplifying this, in 2002, President G. W. Bush and the current legislative body reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and renamed it the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) (115 stat. 1425), which promised a quality education to every K-12 student. With passage of NCLB, politicians anticipated that scientific measures of student success would lessen the chaos surrounding decision making about the educational system and teachers (Coppedge & Expendine, 1987; Duke, 1978; Owens & Valesky, 2007; Pollock, 2007). Once the federal government had a deeper hold on educational institutions, politicians hoped to “legislate a simpler, more transparent understanding of what the problems, and therefore, the solutions were” (Owens & Valesky, p. 10). Yet, numerous researchers (Archer, 2005; Karp, 2003; Klein, 2006; Lee, 2006; Olson, 2005) have noted that the implementation of NCLB may have presented further difficulties related to student achievement. Armstrong (2006) suggested that NCLB actually “hijacks the dialogue in education away from talking about the education of human beings. . . and toward a focus on tests, standards, and accountability” (p. 8) rather than focusing on narrowing the achievement gap as it was purported to accomplish in its initial implementation.

About the same time that the federal government had originally enacted the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965, the educational system itself had recognized the need for methods to improve the existing practices that had once been implemented. No longer was it sufficient to simply teach the three Rs, as classrooms had become overcrowded with students. In describing the situation, Dobson (1982) suggested that teachers' frustrations with the increased student population and with the increased demands to better prepare students for a global market were exacerbated as the once successful classroom management programs became less effective. Because many psychologists during this time period had begun to work with some of the nation's troubled youth, and because many teachers were asking for assistance, education's door was opened to the field of psychology, and its infusion into understanding student motivation and into the management of the classrooms began (Duke, 1978; Lefrancois, 2000).

The Importance of Teacher Effectiveness

This portion of the review of the literature provides information demonstrating that teachers are the single most important school factor related to student achievement (Erwin, 2004; Fidler, 2002; Marzano, 2003; Pollock, 2007; Wong & Wong, 2009). In interviews completed with inner-city adolescents, Corbett and Wilson (2002) reported that the students were consistent in determining that the main factor in their academic achievement was their teachers. Marzano et al. (2003) suggested, in their meta-analysis,

that “effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom” (p. 1). Effective teaching requires effective classroom management (Edwards, 2004; Lefrancois, 2000; Marzano, 2003; Marzano et al. 2003; Wong & Wong).

Another component of effective teaching, student motivation, has also been closely linked to student achievement (Marzano, 2003). Students who were motivated to learn the presented content were found to sustain higher achievement than were less motivated students (Erwin, 2004; Marzano, 2003; Price, 2008; Stipek, 1988; Wong & Wong, 2009).

Teacher Effectiveness and Classroom Management

Regardless of whether the teacher is considered a novice or an experienced teacher, classroom management is a critical component of effective teaching if successful student achievement is to occur (Edwards, 2004; Lefrancois, 2000; Marzano et al., 2003; Stronge, 2007). Evertson, Emmer, Clements, Sanford, and Worsham (1984) further suggested that good classroom management is not something that just happens. It exists because effective teachers have provided planned learning environments which are conducive to student learning and achievement that is free from disruption and chronic misbehavior (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1990). When establishing classroom management programs, rules and procedures must also be planned for and implemented with the students (Marzano et al., 2003).

When rules and procedures are planned for and implemented as the expectation for the classroom, regardless of how well the content and instructional issues have been planned, Marzano (2007) and Marzano, Gaddy, Forseid, Forseid, and Marzano (2005) have suggested that these rules and procedures must be reviewed throughout the school year; otherwise, “teaching (and consequently learning) is inhibited” (Marzano, 2007, p. 117). Commenting on a study completed by Wang, Haertel, and Walberg in 1993 that involved education experts reacting to 228 variables affecting student achievement, Marzano (2007) suggested that classroom management receiving top ranking in that study “makes intuitive sense—a classroom that is chaotic as a result of poor management not only does not enhance learning, it might inhibit it” (p. 118).

Teacher Effectiveness and Student Motivation

It is the inherent dream of all teachers, beginners and veterans, for their students to arrive on an educational institution’s doorstep intrinsically motivated to absorb the wealth of information and knowledge of their teachers. Intrinsically motivated students have a desire to achieve their own individual goals, including that of education, regardless of the external rewards such as grades, honors, or money (Ravitch, 2007). Yet, for many students, the excessive baggage they bring to school or acquire during their school experience (Metlife, 1992; Price, 2008) decreases “their natural curiosity and enthusiasm for learning” (Price, p. 25).

Researchers have shown that engaged students who believe they can be successful in their academic endeavors will stay on task longer, will exert more effort towards their metacognitive opportunities, and therefore, perform at a higher level academically than their peers (Schultz, 1993). Tobias (1994) reviewed the literature and determined that interest in a topic and intrinsic motivation towards that topic was synonymous with one another. He suggested that adapting instruction toward topics that were of interest to students would increase their intrinsic motivation.

On the other hand, not all students arrive at the schoolhouse gates ready and intrinsically motivated to soak up the intended knowledge that will be presented to them once they assume their roles as students in the classroom. Because of the excessive baggage they bring with them (Metlife, 1992), some of the most well-intended students require extrinsic motivation in order to achieve at a level commensurate to their academic grade or ability level. Ravitch (2007) defined extrinsic motivation as the external rewards received for excellent or improved performance or behavior. This reward can come in the form of high grades, high test scores, verbal praise, and any number of tangible incentives such as trophies, certificates, awards, money, treats, or even the reward of getting into a good college (Ravitch). From the list of externally motivating rewards, Alber and Heward (1997) suggested that “the systematic application of praise and attention may be the most powerful motivational and classroom management tool available to teachers. . . and are generally effective with learners of every age and every type” (para. 10).

Effective teachers will create classrooms where students are presented and motivated with the greatest challenges and welcome the opportunities to maximize their potential as learners. Voltz, Sims, and Nelson (2010) have stated that managing a classroom and motivating students effectively is similar to an orchestra conductor. “Conductors possess a keen awareness of all the instruments, sounds, and players while simultaneously attending to the quality of the total musical output” (Voltz, et al., p. 47). They further added that effective teachers must assume total awareness of the students’ characteristics and needs in order for the learning to take place and that “In the absence of a supportive environment, learning cannot occur” (p. 48). Students who are unmotivated will be less engaged in their work and will learn less than those who are excited about and motivated to participate in the instruction being presented (Sprick, 2006).

In the middle grades, students frequently arrive with attitudes of being poorly motivated or with attitudes that include no motivation to do well in school or they “invest it in the wrong activities” (Anderman & Maehr, 1994, p. 287). In addition, this is usually indicative that they will be deficient or even void of appropriate study habits (Kansanen, 2003). Earlier research suggested that there existed, within educational circles, the argument of “whether one should stress the development of proficiency in the hope that motivation will follow or stress the development of positive feelings in the hope that this will encourage the development of proficiency” (Steinkamp & Maehr, 1983, p. 369). What Steinkamp and Maehr discovered from their synthesis of the literature was “that it is primarily the acquisition of proficiency that leads to positive attitudes” (p. 389). This

conclusion provided credence to the work of Nicholls (n.d.) “that the study of cognitive socialization could be profitably complemented by incorporating the concerns and insights of cognitive theories of motivational development” (p. 390). Therefore, the effective teacher, beginner or veteran, should have some means of persuading the unmotivated student to do the work that is being presented (Kansanen, 2003). Anderman and Leake (2005) observed that many teachers have difficulty infusing and utilizing those motivational techniques that are well established in the research literature. They also commented that the disconnect between what the actual research indicates and the realistic practices occurring within classrooms often was a result of the manner in which motivation is taught within the teacher education programs.

Teacher Effectiveness and Student Achievement

In a 2005 Issue Brief published by the Alliance for Excellent Education, it was reported that “there is a growing consensus among researchers and educators that the single most important factor in determining student performance is the quality of his or her teachers” (*Teacher Attrition*, p. 1). Numerous researchers (Boyd et al., 2008; Greenwald et al., 1996; Rivkin et al., 2005; Rockoff, 2004) have shown that the qualifications and effectiveness of teachers are closely linked to student achievement. Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) found that student achievement gains were much more affected by the teacher assigned to students than other factors such as class size or the composition of the class.

In completing a meta-analysis study for the Education Commission of the States (ECS), one of the 12 topics Wilson and Floden (2003) researched was the relationship between teaching experience and student achievement. Results of their analysis of the 12 studies for this section of the study indicated a positive relationship between the experience of the teacher and students' achievement in seven of the 12 studies. Additional researchers (Hanushek et al., 2001) have shown that having an effective teacher, as opposed to an average teacher, for four or five consecutive years could basically close the performance achievement gap in math for students considered to be living in poverty and high-income households. Sanders & Rivers (1996) earlier reached conclusions that children who were instructed by effective teachers for three consecutive years benefited from a 54% academic achievement edge over children who had teachers considered least effective.

Wong (2004) stated:

The ultimate purpose of any school is the success and achievement of its students. Therefore, any efforts that are made must improve student achievement. Improving student achievement rests with the teacher. What the teacher knows and can do in the classroom is the most important factor resulting in student achievement. (p. 41)

Though it has been widely accepted that students frequently bring with them excess baggage (MetLife, 1992) that educators can do little to change, Marzano et al. (2003) stated "We live in an era when research tells us that the teacher is probably the single most important factor affecting student achievement—at least the single most important factor we can do anything about" (p. 1). In 2003, Marzano reported on a study

he completed in 2000 (Marzano, 2000) in which he compared the effectiveness of teachers and schools in regard to students who had entered the school at the 50th percentile in terms of achievement. His comparison is displayed in Table 1. If students were placed with an average teacher at an average school, they were able to maintain achievement at the 50th percentile. If, however, students were placed with an effective teacher in an effective school, students' achievement rankings rose to the 96th percentile. Conversely, students who were placed with ineffective teachers in ineffective schools experienced a drastic drop in achievement to the third percentile.

Table 1

School and Teacher Effectiveness: Impact on Student Achievement

Teacher	School	Achievement Percentile After Two Years
Ineffective	Ineffective	3
Ineffective	Effective	37
Average	Average	50
Effective	Ineffective	63
Average	Effective	78
Effective	Effective	96

Note. Adapted From What Works in Schools: Translating Research Into Action” by R. J. Marzano (2003), Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), p. 74.

Whether considering classroom management or student motivation, the common denominator for student achievement is the effective teacher, and this provides a major challenge for fledgling teachers. Beginning teachers are handed a set of keys to their first classroom with the expectation that they will be able to establish classroom management and provide the motivation necessary for students to maximize their full potential as learners. A final component for this section of the review of the literature and research will address new teachers' beliefs and the impact these novices have on the student achievement.

Teacher Effectiveness and the New Teacher

New teachers enter their first classrooms with confidence that their preservice training has prepared them for the challenges of the teaching profession. They also believe they are fully prepared to manage the classroom and to motivate students to achieve higher levels of learning (Darling-Hammond, 2005). Armed with degrees in hand, these fledglings adamantly assert they are more than capable in activating and articulating their theoretical and pedagogical knowledge bases (Darling-Hammond) to successfully manage a classroom and motivate their students.

Teachers' beliefs have an impact on what they do within the four walls of the school building. These notions and beliefs were subject to change based on the content knowledge presented to them while they were in their teacher training programs (Floden & Buchmann, 1989). Shulman (1987) has suggested that teachers should be able to move

from personally comprehending material to being able to prepare others to comprehend the material. In order to do this, teachers must have received adequate preparation including a working comprehension of effective student classroom management and student motivation techniques. Without these tools available for their immediate, split second use, teachers' actions are less than effective within the classroom (Shulman). According to Toh et al. (2003), it is only when teachers understand something well that they can teach it to someone else.

Ingersoll and Kinman (2002) have discussed the preconceptions about teaching that pre-service teachers carry with them into teacher training programs. Though somewhat subject to change based on the content knowledge presented to them in their programs, pre-service teachers bring with them personal beliefs about what it means to be a teacher (Floden & Buchmann, 1989; Lefrancois, 2000). These personal beliefs, according to Lefrancois, have an impact on what they do in the classrooms. Teachers' actions in the classroom are a product of their beliefs. Lefrancois commented that “. . . what we believe about human personality, or about human learning, may be based partly on our own experiences and partly on what we have learned from more formal educational experiences” (p. 5). Askill-Williams, Murray-Harvey, and Lawson (2007) further suggested in findings from their study that “students develop robust mental models of teaching and learning during their school years, and as such, often teach as they were taught—possibly perpetuating practices that limit intellectual inquiry in classrooms” (p. 237).

Teachers must be able to make decisions immediately. Frequently, there is little time for reflection about how to handle a situation, especially when student classroom management is considered. Thus, when a split-second decision becomes necessary to establish or continue the momentum within the classroom, the teacher must have available the training and expertise to confidently make competent, quick decisions (Ingersoll & Kinman, 2002; Lefrancois, 2000). It is when teachers have not been adequately prepared, and have not developed their classroom management skills and motivation techniques, that they will be less than effective in the classroom (Marzano et al., 2003).

Teachers' beliefs that are inaccurate or missing can lead to ineffective teaching behaviors (Lefrancois, 2000), thereby, increasing the occurrence of inappropriate behaviors by the students. It is only when preservice teachers have internalized knowledge, that their beliefs can be modified so that they become more adept at making the split-second decisions necessary to effectively and smoothly establish successful student classroom management and provide optimal learning environments for students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). When knowledge is missing or when a knowledge void exists, student classroom management, students' motivation, and subsequent student learning become major challenges for the fledgling teachers (Darling-Hammond et al.).

Several research studies (Gratch, 1998a; Helton, 2008; Veenman, 1984) have been conducted to determine the challenges, or what have come to be termed knowledge voids, are experienced by new teachers. In studying the relationships between challenges

experienced by new teachers and teacher preparation programs, Veenman stated there were eight areas that most affected new teachers. These areas included “classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students’ work, relationships with parents, organization of class work, insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students” (Veenman, p. 143).

In studying teacher induction and how that process could be enhanced to decrease teacher attrition, Gratch (1998b) stated there was “a prevalence of comments and concerns surrounding issues of classroom management and discipline, meeting the needs of individual students, and motivating students to learn” (p. 5). She found that concerns of teachers remained consistent over time and indicated that other researchers had reported the same concerns. Gratch (1998b) also reported, in a study of 10 beginning teachers, the same areas of concerns, or knowledge voids, as were noted by Veenman (1984).

In a study that examined and covered the historical development of six major university teacher preparation programs and three alternative certification programs, Helton (2008) sought to “determine trends in programs of study, specifically including coursework in education foundations, teaching methods involving the behavioral sciences, and subject area content” (p. 10). She stated that these areas were researched because “these categories were the content that is responsible for a teacher’s working knowledge of their subject area, as well as student learning, behavior management, and

motivation” (p. 10). Results of her study revealed little coursework was dedicated to filling the knowledge voids. Helton did find that training was occurring in two specific knowledge voids: “Student behavior management and meeting individual student needs . . . were touched on sporadically in traditional teacher course content, [yet] there were virtually no classes dedicated specifically to them” (Helton, p. 176).

Wright et al. (1994) completed a study of about 60,000 students documenting teachers as the single, most important factor affecting student learning. “The immediate and clear implication of this finding is that seemingly more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor” (Wright et al. p. 63).

Recognizing, accepting, and then acting on the information that knowledge voids exist within teacher preparation programs may improve new teachers’ chances of surviving past the critical five year attrition mark and avoid becoming one of the attrition statistics (Helton, 2008). As it is being uncovered that knowledge voids exist within teacher preparation programs, to ignore the information gained would be a true misfortune for the field of education and those yet to emerge from teacher preparation programs.

When teachers, who have been through a training program, enter into the classroom for the first time, they are frequently unaware that they are lacking in essential classroom knowledge. They have trusted in the quality of their pre-service preparation. They have learned to plan for the academic and pedagogical portions of the lessons they

will teach, and typically and their belief is that instruction will flow smoothly because they are knowledgeable about the content to be presented (Floden & Buchmann, 1989). All too often, the harsh reality of classroom life emerges as a reality shock (Veenman, 1984) for these fledglings. The teachers' belief systems, which had changed somewhat due to theory and practice received in pre-service programs, had not been changed enough. Their instructional flow was interrupted as they dug deep into the recesses of their knowledge base to retrieve the necessary information on how to handle the situation, get the students remotivated, and get the lesson flowing once again. If, however, the teacher does not possess the working knowledge bases for classroom management and motivation, it does not happen (Ingersoll & Kinman, 2002; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

Marzano (2007) suggested that new teachers soon discover they have many roles in the classroom. However, one of the most important roles is that of classroom manager. For effective teaching and learning to occur, there must be effective classroom management. Marzano et al. (2003) stated "It takes a good deal of effort to create—and the person responsible for creating it is the teacher" (p. 1). Without sufficient classroom management skills or knowledge base acquired during their preparation, teachers will struggle to maintain order and the students will learn much less than they should (Marzano et al., 2003).

Another equally important role that new teachers must have as part of their belief system is an internalized understanding about motivation. New teachers must be able to access at a moment's notice, the necessary tools to motivate students into learning what is

presented. To do so, teachers must have an understanding and an ability to work with “those factors that influence students’ abilities and willingness to engage in the curriculum content and intellectual challenges [if these] teachers want to increase the likelihood that our students will learn what we are trying to teach them, and learn it well” (Anderman & Leake, 2005, p. 192). Floden and Buchmann (1989) expressed teaching and motivation from a philosophical point of view:

‘Teaching’ (which is something everyone does some of the time) is not the same as ‘being a teacher.’ There are other and broader conceptual concerns that come into the picture, for ‘being a teacher’ entails people (teachers) working in organizations (schools) with other people (pupils) in order to get these other people to learn something (to be educated). The job of ‘seeing to it that other people learn things’ can furthermore be accomplished not only by teaching but by motivating people or giving them learning materials (single quotes within the statements reflect words with quotations marks) (p. 7).

These knowledge voids, or lack of knowledge in the areas of student classroom management and student motivation, serve to affect the primary purposes and beliefs accepted by teachers in their chosen profession which are the passing on of information to the next generation of learners. Lefrancois (2000) stated, “. . . the most useful of your beliefs as a teacher are those that relate to how students change, how they learn, what motivates, reinforces, and punishes them, and what is interesting and important to them” (p. 7). All of these topics are included in the field of psychology which Lefrancois stated was “the science that examines human behavior” (p. 7).

In addition to the general psychology class that many undergraduates take as part of their first two years of study, preservice teachers frequently enroll, early in their

teacher preparation classes, in an educational psychology class (Hanich & Deemer, 2005). However, Sternberg (1996) has suggested that educational psychologists are having more and more difficulty expressing the importance of their field within the field of education and in teacher preparation programs. This may be due, in part, to the overall methodology and organization used to present information. The reasoning could also be due to the continued debate as to whether teacher preparation programs are to be considered an art or a science with educational psychology classes would fall into the science realm (Anderman & Leake, 2005).

Teacher preparation programs that profess to have a more liberal arts approach would consider the educational psychology classes as leaning toward the scientific end of the continuum. When educational psychology classes are perceived to have little relevance to preservice teachers, they will experience difficulty in integrating and applying the knowledge gained and may, in fact, possess a knowledge void (Anderman & Leake, 2005). This may lead to an experience that Anderman and Leake have referred to as a disconnect between the actual content, how it is presented, and how it is related to the field of education.

Quality Initiatives in Teacher Education

Over the years, the United States Department of Education has supported the development of quality teacher preparation programs in institutions of higher education throughout the United States. When describing the traditional preparation programs, the

U. S. Department of Education suggested that the programs tended to be four-year undergraduate programs where students concentrate their education in a “content-area specialty (such as mathematics or language) or in a content area with a focus on education” (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b, p. 3). In addition, programs have been developed to include courses related to pedagogy and field experiences where teacher candidates could work in actual classrooms under the supervision of experienced teachers (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b). Duncan, U.S. Secretary of Education in 2011, suggested that teacher preparation programs should be inclusive of “. . . well-supported field-based experiences embedded throughout their preparation programs” (Duncan, 2009, p. 1).

Title II of the Higher Education Opportunity Act defined a teacher preparation program as “a state-approved course of study, the completion of which signifies that an enrollee has met all the state’s educational and/or training requirements for initial certification or licensure to teach in the state’s elementary or secondary schools” (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b, p. 2). To further assist in the evaluation of teacher preparation programs, Title II of the Higher Education Opportunity Act has provided a national database of each state’s adopted criteria for assessing the teacher preparation programs (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b).

Accreditation has also played a role in establishing criteria for teacher preparation programs. States have adopted criteria developed by regional or national organizations designed to not only establish quality performance standards but to make more uniform

the preparation of individuals regardless of the preparing institution (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b). Regional accreditation has come to be a required expectation of institutions of higher education. Recognition by national associations such as The National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education (NCATE), though voluntary, has been a recognition desired by institutions seeking to demonstrate a high degree of preparedness of their graduates.

There are six NCATE standards that measure the effectiveness of an institution according to “the profession’s expectations for high quality teacher preparation [and describe] the specialized content that teacher candidates should master” (NCATE, 2008, p. 9). Two of the six performance standards that are used in determining accreditation status for teacher preparation programs provide a context and theoretical basis for the proposed examination of classroom management and student motivation as they are addressed in professional education course content and clinical and field experiences in the proposed study. The standards are:

Standard 1: Candidate Knowledge, Skills, and Professional Dispositions: Candidates preparing to work in schools as teachers or other school professionals know and demonstrate the content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and skills, pedagogical and professional knowledge and skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students learn. Assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional standards. (NCATE, 2008, p. 12)

Standard 3: Field Experiences and Clinical Practice: The unit and its school partners design, implement, and evaluate field experiences and clinical practice so that teacher candidates and other school professionals develop and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and professional disposition necessary to help all students learn. (NCATE, 2008, p. 12)

The recognition by NCATE of these aspects of teacher preparation provides a solid rationale for further inquiry into the extent to which institutions of higher education have explicitly addressed concerns that have presented problems for fledgling teachers. Regardless of the NCATE emphasis, teachers who leave the profession have frequently cited a lack of preparedness as a reason for their departure. Preservice teachers typically have varied and well structured opportunities through field experiences and internships to implement skills and behaviors in classrooms with “previously established classroom management plans and basic levels of classroom control already in place” (Oliver & Reschley, 2007, p. 6). Upon completion of their preservice training, these novice teachers begin their teaching careers confident in their theoretical and pedagogical knowledge only to discover that they are unprepared to deal with the challenges that face them in terms of student motivation and classroom management (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Gratch, 2001).

Student Motivational Techniques From Major Theories of Psychology

To better understand the motivational techniques and behavior exhibited by teachers within the classroom, four major psychological theories (psychoanalytical, behavioral, cognitive, and social learning) and the accomplishments of major theorists within each will be briefly reviewed. This review does not purport to be an exhaustive one. The information gleaned from the review will be discussed in reference to an educational setting where teachers utilize the motivational techniques found within each

theory to motivate children. Lefrancois (2000) indicated that expert teachers need to be aware of the stable characteristics of learners and therefore suggested, “among the most useful of your beliefs as a teacher are those that relate to how students change, how they learn, what motivates, reinforces, and punishes them, and what is interesting and important to them” (p. 7). All of these topics fall into the field of psychology which, as defined by Lefrancois is “the science that studies human behavior and thinking” (p. 7).

Psychoanalytical Theory: Sigmund Freud

Freud has been credited with creating the school of psychology commonly referred to as psychoanalysis (Rathus, 1981). From completing clinical interviews with his patients, Freud gained his understanding of human behavior. He believed that hidden impulses were significant when attempting to understand human behavior. Rathus described Freud’s view of the mind as mostly unconscious and suggested that it consisted of a “caldrone of impulses, urges, and conflicting wishes” (p. 25). Motivation within people originated from the need to “gratify these impulses, yet at the same time, sought to avoid the condemnation of others and themselves” (p. 25).

According to Kisker (1977), the psychodynamic model of psychology had in its roots the study of the nonconscious and hidden forces that Freud believed determined human behavior. He further suggested that the heart of the psychodynamic model rested in the concept that the “most significant forces shaping human behavior operate at the unconscious level” (p. 83). In addition, he emphasized individuals “are not aware of

most of their critical motivations or of their most important conflicts and frustrations” (p. 83).

Freud has been credited with the development of the modern views about unconscious motivation (Kisker, 1977). The author reported that Freud believed the unconscious life was not merely a storehouse of information but was a system where the mind was continually searching for satisfaction of primitive needs. Working from the perspective that there were three levels (the conscious mental activity, preconscious activity and unconscious activity), Freud developed his theoretical model. He theorized that conscious activity was the immediate experience, that the preconscious was related to those events that were outside of the consciousness but were available through memory processes, and that the unconscious activity was made up of happenings that could only enter the consciousness with great difficulty. Freud believed that the unconscious and conscious activity flowed freely along together but that the unconscious activity was much larger than the conscious activity (Kisker, pp. 83-84).

When considering Freud’s view on the development of the human personality and behavior and the motivating factors that assist in establishing an individual’s personality, Cullinan, Epstein, and Lloyd (1983) reported that Freud believed the personality encompassed three parts: the id, the ego, and the superego. The energy, in the form of drives found within the id, activates the entire personality. Low energy levels in the id are reticent of a stable personality. Acocella (1980) reported that the id tends to devote itself to immediate tension reduction and that Freud referred to this as the pleasure

principle. The ego is an “organization of mental, sensory, and behavior processes” (Cullinan et al., 1983, p. 65) that generally correspond to a human’s consciousness.

Being sensitive to the id’s wants, the ego must try to satisfy these wants in a manner that creates the least amount of danger for the individual. Acocello (1980) stated that Freud believed the ego acted as “the mediator between the id and reality and that in contrast to the id’s *pleasure principle*, the *reality principle*” (p. 33) concerns itself with safety. Cullinan et al. (1983) stated that the ego does not determine right and wrong. It only considers safe and unsafe. The ego’s basic function is to create ways to satisfy the id which results in the mind developing and refining “all of its higher functions: perception, learning, discrimination, memory, judgment, and planning” (Acocella, p. 33).

The third mental force, the superego, of personality development is where the moral standards of society are developed. Parents are the first to influence the superego, but as children mature, society’s standards begin to play an important role. The superego, according to Acocella (1980) is “the great nay-sayer” (p. 33). It is the superego that determines right and wrong, and it is up to the ego to find ways to satisfy the id without creating remorse or guilt within the individual (Cullinan et al. 1983).

From the perspective of the classroom, the teacher is aware of inner motives and motivations within students and that their personalities are continually developing. In discussing Freud’s theory, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) stated that Freud “conceived of motivation as psychical energy” (p. 23) and that there were forces within the individual that were responsible for behavior. Within the individual’s closed energy system where

the psychological energy exists, there are continual battles occurring between the id, the ego, and the superego (Pintrich & Schunk). Though McClelland, Koestner, and Weinberger (1989) have suggested there could be some aspects of Freud's theory related to the notion of implicit motives, Pintrich and Schunk suggested that assuming an individual's motivation is an unconscious act and that the theory degrades the importance of the students' thoughts and environmental influences on motivational factors. "To improve student's motivation, teachers need to know their goals, interests, and values; how students are affected by teachers and other students; and how to design instruction that teaches and motivates. Pintrich & Schunk believed Freud's theory offered no guidance on these critical factors.

Psychosocial Theory: Erik Erikson

Following Freud's development of the psychodynamic theory of personality development, including his research on the id, ego, and superego, Erikson believed the ego was the center of personality development. Erikson postulated the ego identity was the product of what he called the psychosocial development (Rizzo & Zabel, 1988). According to Erikson, the development of an individual's personality stemmed from challenges the ego faced. He referred to these challenges as stages, and each stage had a crisis that all individuals must resolve. The crisis resolution could be accomplished upon learning new adaptive tasks. In addition, Erikson viewed the psychological growth of an individual from birth to death, as exemplified by the ages attached to his different stages

(Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel). It was also suggested that Erikson believed personality development involved more than just the family and that society, including teachers, friends, and spouses, all contributed. Erikson was more optimistic about the development of the ego than his predecessor, Freud. Erikson believed the ego was strong, in contrast to Freud's belief that the ego was weak, and that there was always a second chance for the ego to resolve its conflict. A description of Erikson's eight ego crises conflicts follows.

The first conflict crisis, "trust versus mistrust," occurs during the first year of life. The conflict involves consistent maternal care versus negligence and irregular satisfaction of needs. A successful resolution of the crisis in this stage results in the development of trust, optimism, and warmth towards others (Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988).

In the next stage, the one- to two-year-old child battles the ego conflict of "autonomy versus shame and doubt." The child will be learning assertiveness and physical control and will be facing a conflict of dependence on parents and an inability to be assertive. Successful resolution for the child at this stage will result in a sense of autonomy and pride of accomplishment (Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988).

The third ego conflict emerges around age three and continues until about age five. This is the stage Erikson referred to as "initiative versus doubt" during which the child battles, experimenting with exploratory behavior and self-initiated activities versus fearfulness and self-doubt. When successful conflict resolution is attained, the child

experiences the development of conscience and self-worth (Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988).

From about six years of age until puberty, the next major stage, “industry versus inferiority,” occurs when the child battles the crisis of cooperation and competition versus the fear of failing and feelings of inadequacy. Successful resolution of this ego crisis will result in feelings of competence, mastery of skills and a development of a positive self-confidence (Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988).

During adolescence, the child will experience the ego conflict of “identity versus role confusion.” Adolescents struggle with ego conflict and the integration of their identity versus a role diffusion and a lack of positive identity. Individuals who have experienced a healthy resolution of previous conflicts will have a much easier time resolving this conflict and will develop a sense of continuity with the past, present and the future. These adolescents will develop a healthy sense of identity and will be comfortable with whom they have become (Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988).

The next three ego resolution conflicts occur after children have reached adulthood. During early adulthood, the conflict will be between “intimacy and isolation” and will be resolved positively when young adults can form stable commitments and close relationships. The seventh stage occurs during middle adulthood. Adults face the ego conflict Erikson referred to as “generativity versus stagnation.” Successful crisis resolution results in adults exhibiting productivity and a creative concern for world and future generations. The eighth and final ego crisis appears in individuals as a conflict

between “integrity and despair” where older adults face reflection and evaluation of their lives versus regret for their past with a strong fear of death. The crisis is resolved when adults accept their own mortality, the human life cycle, and develop a sense of peace (Acocella, 1980; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988).

Most children, toward the end of the Erikson’s third stage, initiative versus guilt, enter the educational system. Though parents and the family continue to have a major influence in the child’s development, it is during this stage that “preschool teachers may now begin assuming an increasing important role” (Lefrancois, 2000, p. 76). It is during the next stage, industry versus inferiority, that children spend most of their elementary school years (Lefrancois; Trawick-Smith, 2006). As students struggle with the ego battle, teachers assist by motivating them with tasks that serve to create a feeling of self-worth. The teachers further motivate the children as they provide goal-directed achievement possibilities. During the industry versus inferiority stage, instructors provide numerous motivational opportunities for children to develop a sense of accomplishment in tasks and in behavior thereby leading to the end of the ego crisis. “If children’s work is continually demeaned, seldom praised, and rarely rewarded, the outcome may be a lasting sense of inferiority” (Lefrancois, p. 76).

When adolescents reach the identity versus role confusion stage, Santrock (2006) recommended teaching strategies that are “inclusive of recognizing that at this stage the “students’ identity is multidimensional . . . [and] . . . that some of the roles of the adolescents are not permanent. They try on many different faces as they search for a face

of their own” (p. 73). To keep students motivated within classrooms, teachers should consider this multidimensionality by providing instruction to assist them in exploring who they are and what they may want to do with their lives in the future, thereby encouraging them to think independently and freely express their points of view (Santrock, 2006).

Erikson’s psychosocial theory encompassed some of life’s key “socioemotional tasks and places them in a developmental framework” (Santrock, 2006, p. 72). He helped lay the groundwork for the belief that personality development was a lifelong process and, in contrast to Freud, was not restricted to childhood. Some theorists (Neugarten & Neugarten, 1988) believed that Erikson’s thinking was too rigid and that the stages occurred throughout life at differing times for different individuals. Santrock, in discussing the overall scope of Erikson’s theory, indicated that researchers had not scientifically documented the progression of the eight stages in the order Erikson had presented them to occur.

Cognitive Theory: Jean Piaget

From a cognitive perspective which includes “the scientific analysis of human mental processes and memory structures in order to understand human behavior” (Mayer, 1981, p. 1), many theorists have advocated that children are motivated based on a given stage of development. Piaget, who worked for a French company that was developing a standardized version of the Binet Intelligence Test, became intrigued with, not the right

answers, but with the consistent patterns children were showing related to their incorrect responses (Rathus, 1981). This led Piaget to hypothesize that the cognitive processes in children develop in an orderly and sequential manner and “. . . that while some children may be more advanced than others, the sequence never changes” (Rathus, p. 385).

Describing the human thinking process, Piaget believed that as children responded to new knowledge by incorporating it into their existing knowledge, they were assimilating the information (Rathus; Santrock, 2006; Trawick-Smith, 2006; Woolfolk, 2010). As children assimilate new information, they were developing schema which he defined as a “way of looking at or mentally representing the world” (Rathus, p. 385). When children learn new information and are able to integrate it with their existing knowledge, they have assimilated the new knowledge. When the new knowledge is not integrated, and the children are able to adjust their way of thinking to fit the new information, they have used accommodation to alter their existing schema (Rathus; Santrock; Trawick-Smith; Woolfolk).

From a motivational perspective, Piaget focused “on the growth of internal structures and processes that underlie developmental changes in human behavior” (Mayer, 1981, p. 7). This observation and Piaget’s belief in the sequential cognitive development children exhibited as they matured, led him to identify four major stages of cognitive development: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational (Mayer; Rathus, 1981; Santrock, 2006; Trawick-Smith, 2006; Woolfolk, 2010).

In the “sensorimotor stage,” birth to age two, Piaget hypothesized that children’s behavior lacked language, and they did not use symbols or mental representations in the environment (Rathus, 1981; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988). At first, they simply respond to the environment through reflexes and then gradually learn to make interesting sights last. Toward the end of this stage, they move from believing that when an object is out of sight it is gone, to seeking hidden objects. Language also begins to emerge toward the end of this stage (Mayer, 1981; Rathus; Trawick-Smith, 2006; Woolfolk, 2010).

Piaget believed that in the “preoperational stage” children between two and seven years of age began to develop mental pictures of the world (Rathus, 1981; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988). However, children are considered to be egocentric at this stage. They do not understand differences in perception, and they often perceive “the world as a stage that has been erected for their own amusement” (Rathus, pp. 388-389). At this stage, children lack conservation where they cannot focus on two aspects of a situation at one time. They do show “animism” (Rathus; Santrock, 2006) as they make inanimate objects come to life (such as the sun and moon) and “artificialism” (Rathus) in their beliefs that environmental objects such as rain and thunder have been designed by human beings.

In the third stage, from about ages 7 to 12, Piaget believed the period of “concrete operations” referred to the notion that the child has begun to manipulate the world mentally through the use of concrete materials. According to Rathus (1981) and Rizzo & Zabel (1988), Piaget’s theory was that children begin to show conservation concepts and can classify objects in a series as well as be able to comprehend concepts of relationships

between objects. Toward the end of this stage, children begin to show the capacity for adult logical thinking. However, this stage generally concerns objects they can see, feel, and touch rather than abstract ideas. Children also become subjective in their moral judgments as they center on the motives of the wrongdoers including the damage done as they weigh a person's guilt (Mayer, 1981; Rathus; Santrock, 2006; Trawick-Smith, 2006; Woolfolk, 2010).

The last of Piaget's four stages was "formal operational." Describing Piaget's interpretation, Rathus (1981) and Rizzo & Zabel (1988) stated that children enter this stage at about age 12, about the same time as the onset of puberty. Piaget claimed that a few individuals are not successful in completing this stage as they have not gone through the previous sequential stages in order to be intellectually prepared for formal operations (Rizzo & Zabel). Thinking at the formal operational stage is characterized by the ability to use deductive logic, being able to consider different possibilities before attempting to solve a problem, philosophical considerations of moral principles, and forming and testing hypotheses (Mayer, 1981; Rathus; Santrock, 2006; Trawick-Smith, 2006; Woolfolk, 2010).

Rathus (1981) further reported that numerous experiments have been undertaken to disprove certain aspects of Piaget's views. In addition, questions have been raised to measure "how much of a child's behavior is reactive to the environment and how much acts upon the environment?" (p. 392). Others have alleged that no one has ever seen or been able to "directly measure schema." However, it remains clear that Piaget's insights

into children's behavior have had a powerful influence on developmental psychology, particularly for those working with children (Mayer, 1981; Rathus; Santrock, 2006; Trawick-Smith, 2006; Woolfolk, 2010).

Piaget believed that children progressed through the four developmental stages outlined above in the fixed order presented. In addition, Santrock (2006) stated, "Piaget is a giant in the field of developmental psychology . . . [and] . . . was a genius when it came to observing children" (p. 48). However, others have criticized Piaget's theory (Gelman & Tucker, 1975; Gelman & Weinberg, 1972) as their research indicated children could be motivated to solve more complex issues when the problem was presented to children in a less complex manner. This resulted in an understanding that children are possibly more competent than Piaget had originally theorized (Slavin, 2009).

As indicated by the ages of the children at these levels, they typically progress through at least two or three of Piaget's four stages of development during their stay at the elementary educational level: the preoperational, the concrete operational, and the formal operational. Teachers, who understand Piaget's levels of development for children, know which motivational factors to utilize to motivate students and to induce the required learning. They fully understand these motivational factors are dependent on children's stage of development (Zimmerman, 1996). For example, 6-year-old children in the preoperational stage may have a difficult time developing concepts related to multi-step problem solving as they still lack the skill of conservation and can only focus on one aspect of a situation at a time. Children that have moved into the concrete operational

stage may be able to adopt others' viewpoints; however, they are still at a stage where they need to see it, feel it, or touch it to have relevance and meaning. This allows them to assimilate the schema and to accommodate it to their way of thinking (Ault, 1983; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988). Therefore, when considering what motivates children with regard to motivation and learning, the well-informed instructor places heavy emphasis on using materials, supplies, and instruction commensurate with the stage of development of the children (Santrock, 2006; Slavin, 2009; Woolfolk, 2010).

Moral Development: Lawrence Kohlberg

Another theorist, Kohlberg, developed the theory of moral development in part based on the ideas that Piaget presented in his 1932 edition of *The Moral Judgment of the Child* (Meece & Daniels, 2008). Kohlberg added to Piaget's belief that children developed respect for rules and internalized a sense of "social solidarity in the games they play among themselves" (Meece & Daniels, p. 433) as he developed his theory of moral development. Kohlberg was mainly interested in how children and adults create reason about moral issues they face as they develop their own perspectives and personal values.

Kohlberg's original theory, as put forth in his dissertation, consisted of five discrete stages of moral development (Kohlberg, 1958). In stage 1, "heteronomous (under external control) morality," behavior was considered moral when it did not get punished. To exemplify this, Glover & Brunning (1987) stated that behaviors are either good or bad. For a child in stage 1, a behavior is considered good (and moral) if it is not

punished and “immoral behaviors are punished because they are immoral, and they are immoral because they are punished” (p. 293).

In stage 2, “individualism and exchange,” Kohlberg (1958) believed that moral actions amounted to doing things that furthered one’s own interest while at the same time allowing others to further their own interests. Interpreting this, Glover & Brunning (1987) suggested that children at this age come to understand that they must recognize and respond to others. Morality at this age revolves around making fair deals and trades with other people.

At stage 3, “mutual expectations and interpersonal conformity” mark what Kohlberg (1958) referred to as conventional morality. Children have come to trust and value relationships and loyalty (Glover & Brunning, 1987) and at this stage they no longer see other people as objects to be manipulated to reach a goal. Instead, they try to live up to the expectations others have of them. Children see themselves as moral because they genuinely care about others and they want to be seen as good. They have learned to put their own personal interests aside as they work towards mutual agreements and share moral values with others. In essence, at this level, the child’s moral development involves being able to observe and experience events from the perspective of others (Glover & Brunning).

As the individual moves into stage 4, Kohlberg (1958) believed the individual will have entered the “social system.” Though they still possess the conventional morality of stage 3, it has transformed to a more advanced level where morality is now

based on an abstract understanding of society as a whole as opposed to the limited interactions with others during stage 3 (Glover & Brunning, 1987). These authors further contended that society has established roles for individuals and rules for them to follow. Though the individual relationships are still important, individuals now come to understand these same ideals from society's perspective including the legal, social, or religious systems. Hence, morality at stage 4 is defined by following the laws and becoming an active and contributing member to the society's social and/or religious institutions. At this stage, antisocial behavior is seen as morally wrong, and the individual believes the system would break down if everyone behaved antisocially.

At stage 5, Kohlberg (1958) stated that individuals have moved into what he referred to as a "post-conventional morality belief." Further explaining this, Glover and Brunning (1987) stated that individuals begin to question the need to follow laws and how the society's laws are determined. They have begun to develop beliefs that if a rational group of people existed without any social structure, a new, mutually beneficial society would soon emerge. This new society would be fair in its procedures for creating laws and agreements about following those laws. At stage 5 the individuals are thinkers, are aware of the reasons for the social commitments, freely meet them, but do not blindly accept them. Instead, each is evaluated on the basis of "the greatest good for the greatest number" which has been labeled the "principle of utility" (p. 295). For these individuals at stage 5, the social system is important but it does not present the final word in moral correctness. These individuals believe societies can be assessed on their morality.

Meece & Daniels (2008) reported “it is generally assumed that moral reasoning is linked to behavior” (p. 435). They further contended that people at Kohlberg’s (1958) higher stages of moral development should behave morally. However, the authors stated the research to support this assumption has been mixed. They further indicated that the link between moral reasoning and behavior may be due to the consequences and sanctions society places on certain behaviors rather than on the moral development of the individual (Meece & Daniels, p. 435).

Implications for understanding motivational techniques related to Kohlberg’s (1958) moral development can be further understood when it is recognized that children move from one stage of moral development to another using a cognitive-developmental approach (Kohlberg & Wasserman, 1980). Kohlberg (1958) believed that as children face moral dilemmas and experience responses of other people to those dilemmas, they bring about a cognitive conflict which can be resolved by developing additional moral structures. These newly created moral structures (which are cognitively based) are important in the development of moral reasoning (Dienstbier, Hillman, Lehnhoff, Hillman, & Valkenaar, 1975; Kohlberg & Wasserman). As moral reasoning increases, the individual becomes more adept at taking on the perspectives of others, thereby increasing motivation and their abilities to accept the learning being offered by the educational professional. Educators who are in agreement with the learners’ moral development stage will be able to pursue additional cognitive development within the learner as they,

the educational professionals, understand the underlying motivational techniques that are related to the moral development within each learner (Meece & Daniels, 2008).

A Humanistic Approach: Abraham Maslow

The field of humanistic psychology branches off from the cognitive psychological perspective but remains under the umbrella of cognitive psychology. Rathus (1981) described this field as one that stresses the experience of the consciousness and self-awareness where “consciousness is seen as a unifying force behind personality” (pp. 22-23). The goals of humanistic psychology have been to devise ways in which people become aware of their feelings and are able to “realize their full potential” (p. 25).

Hamachek (1971) described the humanistic orientation as representing the “third force” in psychology in that it extends beyond behaviorism and psychoanalysis, which he stated were “the two most prominent perspectives within the broad arena of psychology” (p. 46). He further suggested the humanistic point of view was not in competition with the other two systems. Instead, humanists attempt to “supplement their observations and introduce perceptions and insights” (p. 46).

Maslow, considered by many to be the founder of humanistic psychology, developed a theory of motivation in which he believed that the gratification of needs was the important single principle underlying all development (Maslow, 1948, 1954). Maslow believed that the most important feature of motivation was the tendency for new, higher needs to emerge as lower needs were gratified, thereby leading to the attainment

of the self-actualization need (Maslow, 1948, 1954; Hamachek, 1971). He also believed that psychology focused too intently on human deficiencies and not enough on strengths. He believed that human behavior was oriented toward the gratification of needs, and that an individual's motivation was derived from a desire to satisfy those needs (Hamachek).

From the perspective of need gratification, Glover & Brunning (1987) stated Maslow developed seven basic levels of needs: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, self-actualization, knowing and understanding, and aesthetics. Because the first four needs are considered deficits, Maslow referred to these as deficiency needs and suggested that humans are motivated to fulfill these deficits (Maslow, 1954). These would include deficits such as lack of food, lack of safety, the absence of love, and the lack of esteem. Maslow (1954) labeled the last three needs (self-actualization, the need to know, and aesthetic needs) as the "being needs" and suggested they motivate individuals, not because of deficits, but because of the human desires.

Maslow (1954) stated that the needs in his system were steps to be completed in a hierarchical manner, where one level of need must be met before the next level becomes motivating to the individual. The first deficit need would be considered physiological and included needs such as the need for food, drink, and sleep (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Slavin, 2009; Woolfolk, 2010). These must be satisfied before the individual will see the next level as motivating. Once the deficit needs have been met, the individual is motivated to move to the next level which is the need for safety (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin; Woolfolk). During this deficit level, individuals seek the avoidance of danger

and anxiety and have a desire for security. Establishing satisfaction and believing they are safe, individuals then become motivated to move into the next level where the needs are for love and belongingness (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin; Woolfolk). This includes needs for affection, feeling wanted, and belonging to a family or a peer group. Satisfying the needs for this level thus motivates individuals to progress to the last of the deficit needs—the need for esteem, where individuals must fulfill the need for self-respect, develop a feeling of adequacy, develop feelings of competency and mastery (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin; Woolfolk).

Once all four of the deficiency needs have been successfully met, individuals then become motivated to move to the being needs (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Slavin, 2009; Woolfolk, 2010). The first of these being needs is described as a need for self-actualization where individuals strive to utilize their talents to their fullest and to maximize their potentials and capabilities (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin; Woolfolk). As these needs are satisfied, the next level, the need to know, becomes the motivator. Here, the individual has needs of curiosity and needs to learn about the world as they satisfy the basic growth urge of human beings (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin; Woolfolk). Once these particular needs become satisfied, the individuals will be motivated to progress to the highest level of being needs that Maslow refers to as aesthetic needs, where individuals seek to experience and understand beauty for its own sake (Glover & Brunning, 1987; Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin; Woolfolk).

As Maslow's theory has been applied in education, instructors understand that students whose basic deficit needs have not been met will not be motivated to accept the information and knowledge awaiting them in the classroom. Teachers cannot always intervene to ensure that basic needs are met. Parental influence does have a major impact on meeting some of the deficiency needs (Slavin, 2009). However, teachers can be advocates for children as they provide a classroom environment that fulfills the deficiency needs to the fullest extent possible (Glover & & Brunning, 1987).

As teachers arrange classrooms for the best possible learning situations, in which students can select the learning activities they find motivating and personally valuable, the teacher-directed classroom becomes secondary. Thus, the learning experience itself becomes rewarding and motivating for students (Staw, Calder, Hess, & Sandelands, 1980). This assists them individually in meeting their current level of need and motivates them to the next level.

Social Learning Theory: Albert Bandura

Moving to the social learning aspect of psychology, Bandura (1961), the major figure in the development of the social learning theory, placed more emphasis on the role of imitation in moral development than did Kohlberg (Glover & Bruning, 1987). Children imitate what they see others doing and continue to do so as long as they are not punished for the behavior. Meece & Daniels (2008) reported that in a reformation of his theory, Bandura has stated there are a number of cognitive factors that he now believes

influence the process of social learning. As children imitate models, they must be able to process and retain the information about these social behaviors in order to be able to anticipate the consequences for certain actions, whether it is their own behavior or that of those they are modeling. With age, the children's cognitive processes change and they become more adept at learning from their social environment.

Bandura's (1961) original approach to social learning maintained that children create mental representations of the world around them. Based on this, children have as much influence on the environment as the environment has on them. This has been referred to this as "reciprocal determinism" (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Slavin, 2006). In reciprocal determinism, nonsocial and interpersonal environmental factors "come together as interlocking determinants of each other" (Glover & & Brunning, 1981, p. 374). Reciprocal determinism predicts that the strength of interpersonal behavior will change and vary as the environmental factors change. "Children's mental representations of a situation or event influence the way they act and feel, which determines how others perceive and respond to them" (Meece & Daniels, 2008, p. 26). As children think and react to a situation, they begin to generalize the behavior to other social situations. Because of the reciprocal nature of actions and reactions, this represents an interactional perspective to social learning.

As children learn to interact within their social society, they have begun the process of socialization, which Stewart (1981) defined as linking together the individual with his or her culture. In the socialization process, individuals absorb the values, mores,

and folkways of society, thereby making these a part of the self (Stewart). Combining this with social learning theory concepts, in particular the concept of reciprocal determinism, when babies sound off with their first loud cry, they are telling the world that socialization will be a two way process. The baby has influenced and motivated the parent to respond and the parent's response will influence and motivate the baby to respond in the future. As children mature, the "older generation will reward, threaten, punish, bargain, and plead with its children" (Stewart, p. 101), however, no amount of effort will make all people alike.

Recognizing the impact that social learning theory has on children, especially that related to the concept of imitation, teachers model behaviors that are expected (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Slavin, 2006). When consequences for behaviors are of a positive nature, such as a child receiving a sticker for completion of the given task with other students observing this action, they are likely to be motivated to work to complete the task and receive the same reward (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin). Seeing or observing others within the classroom succeed and be rewarded increases the probability that other students will be motivated to complete the same behavior. This type of reward has been identified by Bandura as "vicarious reinforcement" (Glover & Brunning, 1981, Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin). This imitating skill must be learned as it is not inherent in all children. A child who has not learned to imitate can watch an expected behavior for hours or have the behavior modeled repeatedly yet not learn the desired skill. Until the children learn to imitate, and this imitation becomes automatic, the social learning aspect of being

socialized by society's norms will be lacking (Pintrich & Schunk; Slavin). Therefore, cognizant teachers understand the necessity to teach imitation skills. These become the motivators that provide avenues for motivation within the classroom and further enhancing the socialization process while concurrently delivering the required curriculum (Santrock, 2006).

Behavioral Theory: Classical Conditioning of Watson and Pavlov

Rizzo and Zabel (1988) stated "Behavioral psychology burst onto the scene in 1913 with the publication of a position paper entitled 'Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It' by John Watson" (p. 34). They suggested Watson had rejected the "subjective unscientific psychology then current" (p. 34) and insisted that psychology could enter the world of "genuine science with an objective study of behavior" (p. 34). Watson had suggested that objective observations, rather than self-reporting techniques, would reveal all that anyone needed to know about human behavior. His theories set the stage for the next 30 years during which parents and others followed his ideas about child-rearing and educational practices. Watson has been credited for developing the field of modern behavioral psychology (Rizzo & Zabel).

The early study of behaviorism was characterized by the study of a type of learning referred to as "classical conditioning" (Glover & Brunning, 1987; Rescorla, 1987). Classical conditioning, as described by Glover and Brunning, referred to examining two types of stimuli, neutral and unconditioned. Stimuli are "perceivable

units of the environment that may or may not affect behavior” (p. 342). A neutral stimulus has little or no affect on an organism, whereas unconditioned or eliciting stimuli cause involuntary responses (reflexes) to occur (Lefrancois, 2000; Schiamberg & Smith, 1982). When a neutral stimulus is paired with an unconditioned stimulus, the neutral stimulus can acquire most of the properties of the unconditioned stimulus. When this occurs, it is called a conditioned stimulus, and the reflexive response it causes is then referred to as a conditioned response (Glover & Brunning; Lefrancois; Schiamberg & Smith). This concept was first discovered by Pavlov as he was working with dogs and completing his research on the digestive processes. Pavlov suggested that dogs could be conditioned to salivate when meat powder was placed into their mouths by the lab assistants. An unexpected response surfaced when dogs began to salivate at the mere site of the lab assistants, whether or not they inserted the meat powder (Glover & Brunning, 1987; Lefrancois; Schiamberg & Smith). Watson seized upon this concept and believed that classical conditioning could be used to explain much about human behavior (Coleman, 1976).

Behavioral Theory: Operant Conditioning of Burrhus Frederick Skinner

As other researchers entered the field, it became clear that classical conditioning could explain some learning processes, but it could not explain all of them. On the heels of Watson came another prominent researcher, Skinner (1985), who began his work by focusing on the relationships between behaviors and consequences thereby leading to

what has been referred to as “operant conditioning” (Santrock, 2006; Slavin, 2009).

Edwards (2004) stated that Skinner’s beliefs centered on the notion that “he believed all human behavior could be explained as responding to environmental stimuli [and he concluded that] humans have no internal will to guide their behavior—that they are not directed toward goals but are instead controlled by their environment” (p. 46).

In operant conditioning, Rathus (1981) has stated that organisms learn to do something that has the effect of “manipulating an organism’s environment” (p. 210). This action results in a consequence occurring. The consequence has occurred as a result of some form of reinforcement for the occurring behavior. There are two types of reinforcers (Rathus). Positive reinforcement increases the likelihood that the behavior will reoccur (Glover & Brunning, 1987; Rathus; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988) and negative reinforcement “is the cessation of an event consequence upon a behavior that increases the possibility of the behavior occurring” (Rizzo & Zabel, p. 34).

In discussing types of reinforcement, Glover and Brunning (1987) suggested that schedules of reinforcement affect the behavior being exhibited. Continuous reinforcement, something that is rewarding or motivating, occurs when the reinforcer is continually applied each time the desired behavior is exhibited (Rizzo & Zabel, 1988). Intermittent reinforcement schedules are divided into four basic types: fixed ratio, variable ratio, fixed interval, and variable interval (Glover & Brunning; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). These authors have stated that moving from a continuous reinforcement schedule to one of variable intervals will increase the likelihood that the behavior will be

maintained. When discussing punishing stimuli or punishment, they contended that it is a consequence (a stimulus that follows a behavior) that will reduce the occurrence of a behavior. Punishers are the exact opposite of positive reinforcement which serves to increase the likelihood of a behavior reoccurring. When describing the “complete elimination of previously occurring consequences of a behavior, leading to the cessation of that behavior, this is termed extinction” (Rizzo & Zabel, p. 35).

The key impact to recognize when referring to classical or operant conditioning, is that the behavioral theory of psychology focuses on observable behavior that can be observed and explained as opposed to inferred or verbally touted by the individual exhibiting the behavior (Slavin, 2009). For the teacher, who is in a position to observe many behaviors throughout even one school day, recognizing reinforcement will generate the desired behaviors within particular children and assists in developing motivating learning avenues for students. Santrock (2006) has suggested that when teachers are using rewards within the classroom, external rewards should be limited and used only when necessary as motivators to increase the desired behavior. Santrock further added that not all reinforcers will work with every child and that teachers should try to determine which reinforcers work best with which children.

Teachers know that providing extremely active children with continual drill and practice worksheets will not serve as motivators for future learning, whereas, the extremely shy child may be motivated by completing worksheets and being able to avoid interaction with peers or teachers. Slavin (2009) stated that teachers can get students to

perform less-desired activities by pairing the less desirable behavior with a more desirable behavior. This has sometimes been described as the Premack Principle. “Teachers can use the Premack Principle by alternating more enjoyable activities with less enjoyable ones and making participation in the enjoyable activities dependent on successful completion of the less desirable ones” (Slavin, p. 133). When using reinforcers to motivate students, teachers are advised to use the least elaborate or tangible reinforcer that will work (Slavin).

Hawkins (1990) has further described some of the impacts Skinner and his behaviorist theory has had in the field of education. One area about which Skinner wrote and spoke often was programmed instruction. He had learned of a device that could mechanically provide immediate feedback to the learner (Hawkins). Another strategy that was impacted by Skinner’s theory was referred to as “precision teaching,” a program that was begun by Lindsley, one of Skinner’s students (Binder & Watkins, 1990, Hawkins, 1990). Binder and Watkins described precision teaching as a method that stresses the isolation of particular behaviors, measuring small samples of behaviors, and then graphically displaying the results. Two additional behavioral models, Direct Instruction and Behavior Analysis, both of which were funded initially by the federal government to compare alternative approaches to early education, have been proven to be highly effective programs in motivating students to perform in desired manners (Binder & Watkins; McGee, Kauffman, & Nussen, 1977).

Skinner's work has been credited for leading researchers in developments that improved the treatment of youth who exhibited various adjustment problems, including those with emotional and behavioral issues (Hawkins, 1990). This would include the present day treatments known as token economies. By setting up specific target behaviors for change, and arranging for immediate consequences for the change, Skinner's positive approach has greatly advanced the use of positive reinforcers "partly because Skinner objected strenuously to aversive methods" (Hawkins, pp. 4-5).

In closing, Hawkins (1990) cited Graham (1990) as he wrote about Skinner:

The APA of Skinner aptly summarizes his contribution thus: 'With great sensitivity to the human condition, combined with rigorous standard and broad outlook, you laid the foundation for innovative applications of your work in clinical psychology, education, behavioral medicine, mental retardation, brain injury, and countless other areas. As a citizen of the world, you provide thoughtful, often provocative, and always compassionate insights into such uniquely human endeavors as ethics, freedom, dignity, governance, and peace. You have fundamentally and forever changed our view of the human capacity to learn (Graham, 1990, p. 1).

Summary

According to Pintrich & Schunk (1996), when motivation was first studied at the beginning of the 20th century, it was not the separate body of knowledge that has evolved over a 100-year period. Motivation was viewed in terms of will, (desire, want, and purpose) and volition (the act of using one's will). Regardless of which theory or theorist has been analyzed, a common denominator among all theories rests in the concept of motivation. Though this topic has been continuously investigated, Zimny (1956)

suggested midway into the 20th century that the quest for determining what motivated individuals was still in the exploratory stages.

Motivation deals with the “whys” of behavior: why a person eats, why a child is driven to learn math but not reading, why adolescents claim no one understands them, or why adults prefer one job over another. Coleman (1976) and Rathus (1981) defined motivation as a state within a person or animal that leads to goal directed behavior that satisfies needs. Rathus also suggested that individuals may be motivated by incentives or needs and motives related to certain drive levels. From the psychoanalytical theorists’ perspectives, motivation comes from internal forces (Schloss & Smith, 1994).

Proponents of this model “believe behavior can be changed if the individual learns to control internal forces” (Schloss & Smith, p. 5). As drive levels become more goal directed, the individual becomes more motivated to accomplish the given task. From Maslow’s (1954) humanistic perspective, the description of motivation falls in line with his hierarchical list of needs ranging from the deficiency needs to self-actualization (Aanstoos, 2003; Friedman, 2008; Kwiatkowski & Duncan, 2006). Yet, the behavioral theorists would advocate that motivation is related to reinforcement of a behavior that can be observed. Individuals will be motivated due to some reward or punishment received for a given behavior (Skinner, 1985). In contrast to the previously listed notions of motivation, a contemporary researcher has suggested a differing view.

Describing a more contemporary view, Smith (2008) believed that motivation is actually “emotions in motion.” She suggested that when individuals are motivated, they

experience physiological changes, but that they respond in different ways. Some are intrinsically motivated by engaging their internal reward centers and others are motivated through external or peer reward.

Other theorists have offered differing views on motivation. Stipek (1993), in *Motivation to Learn*, suggested motivation has a relevance to learning because learning requires an active and conscious activity. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) offered yet another view of motivation suggesting that motivation is a process of goal-directed activity that “is instigated and sustained” (p. 21). In addition, the authors specified that motivation impacts activities in the classroom as it can influence both “new behaviors and the performance of previously learned behaviors” (p. 21). Pintrich and Schunk supported this thinking in their belief that motivation had a reciprocal relationship with learning and performance as “what one does and learns influences subsequent task motivation” (p. 21).

Kohn (1993) stated that children need no motivation, suggesting that they have an active appetite to make sense of the world around them. He suggested that when children are placed in a situation where their every move is not controlled and they are provided opportunities to think about what they are doing, as opposed to being told how well they are doing, they will exhibit a “healthy appetite for challenge [and will] exhibit an abundance of motivation” (pp. 198-199). Kohn further added that when teachers ponder how to motivate children, this very notion “operates within a paradigm of control” (p. 199) which he claimed is instantaneous death to motivation.

Jehlen (2007) suggested that motivation is a dilemma that teachers have been facing “since time immemorial” (p. 1). Teachers and researchers have had multitudes of information presented to them on the pedagogy of teaching (McKeachie, 1974). Yet, how to effectively integrate motivation into a repertoire of teacher behaviors or dealing with specific motivational instructional techniques has received much less attention than other pedagogical strategies (McKeachie).

Contemporary Classroom Managerial Techniques

Introduction

The final section of the literature review has been written to explore a range of common, research-based, classroom managerial models that have been used within classrooms in the United States. This provides a context for the presentation of major contemporary models of classroom management that emerged following the gradual infusion of psychology into the field of education. This review does not purport to be an exhaustive discussion of each model. Rather, research-based summaries of each model, and the individuals who have been credited with their development, will be presented with particular emphasis on those that are or have actively been used within the classroom.

Assertive Discipline

In the early 1970s, Lee Canter, a Ph. D. working in the private sector, emerged on the educational scene with his solution to some of the issues that had been raised by teachers and politicians regarding why schools were at risk or why students were not achieving at a rate that was commensurate with expectations of the federal government (Canter & Canter, 1976). Canter had been working directly with children who had behavior problems, and he began consulting with classroom teachers on how to deal effectively with such children. Assertive Discipline within the classroom was an outgrowth of Canter's efforts to assist these teachers. Canter & Canter (1976) stated "while consulting with teachers, we were constantly struck by how overwhelmed and 'powerless' many of them felt to deal with the behavior problems in their classrooms" (p. vi). His observations of teachers within classrooms produced evidence that many teachers did not have the skills and lacked the confidence needed "to set down assertively, the limits they wanted and follow through if the children did or did not respond to what they demanded" (p. vi).

Canter's Assertive Discipline program had several components. He believed that teachers must instruct students on how to behave and stated "the key to Assertive Discipline is catching students being good: recognizing and supporting them when they behave appropriately and letting them know you like it, day in and day out" (Canter, 1989, p. 58). Canter and Canter (1976) believed that a discipline plan must be in place from the beginning of the school year that explained exactly what would happen when

students chose to misbehave and needed to be implemented fairly and consistently for all students. The plan was to be inclusive of a maximum of five consequences for misbehavior, and teachers needed to choose consequences with which they were comfortable. The discipline plan also needed to (a) be in the best interests of students and (b) meet the needs of teachers. The consequences were never to be humiliating for students and should “never be psychologically or physically harmful to the students” (Canter, 1989, p. 58).

Canter and Canter (1976) and Edwards (2004) argued that Canter’s plan was inclusive of a component in which all teachers’ and students’ needs were met. Teachers were to assert themselves as they clearly and firmly communicated their personal wants and needs to their students and they had to be willing and prepared to enforce their words with the appropriate actions (Canter & Canter, 1976). As teachers modeled appropriate behavior for students they would then create positive relationships with the students. According to Canter and Canter (1976), students needed to see first-hand what trust and respect look really looked like.

Edwards (2004) described another component, “tracking the misbehavior,” found within Assertive Discipline. At the beginning of the school year, the students were to be informed of the expectations within the classroom. Once they had been informed, teachers needed to follow through to ensure their demands on students were met (Canter & Canter, 1976, 1984). Student misbehavior needed to be monitored or tracked and had negative consequences which were implemented according to a predetermined discipline

plan that had been communicated to students (Canter & Canter, 1976, 1984). As an example, when a student misbehaves, the child's name is put on the board and serves as a warning. A second misbehavior results in a check mark being added to the student's name and has a consequence, such as five minutes off recess. Additional checkmarks might result in loss of all recess for the day, could result in the parents being called, loss of recess for a week, and finally referred to an administrator for more serious consequences (Canter & Canter, 1976, 1984).

A third component of the Assertive Discipline plan as outlined by Canter and Canter (1976) required teachers to use punishments to enforce the limits established within the discipline plan. Canter (1989) reiterated that this was a critical component of the program suggesting that teachers should follow through with the promises made to students as opposed to issuing idle threats.

Describing the fourth component, Canter and Canter (1976) explained that in addition to the negative behavior being addressed immediately and consistently, it was also imperative for teachers to implement a reward system recognizing good or positive behaviors. Students should be provided with positive consequences so that they will be more likely to repeat good behaviors. Catching them being good and rewarding this good behavior leads to others emulating the good behavior, thereby decreasing inappropriate or bad behavior within the classroom. Canter and Canter (1984) stated "The key to effective discipline is positive support of student's appropriate behavior. Negative

consequences stop inappropriate behavior, but only positive consequences will change behavior” (p. 16).

In an Assertive Discipline classroom, teachers must plan for student behavior as they prepare their lessons for the day. Just as the teachers must assert themselves with the knowledge they have to impart to the learners, they must assert themselves to students with regard to their expectations related to behavior (Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 1976; Edwards, 2004). Communicating their personal wants and needs to the students are critical motivating factors for the Assertive Discipline plan to be effective for both the teachers and for the students (Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 1976; Edwards, 2004). Teachers must be motivated to back up their words with the appropriate actions, whether these are positive or negative consequences, and, students must trust that the teachers will follow through and be consistent with the expectations presented to them in the discipline (Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 1976; Edwards).

Reality Therapy: William Glasser

Another well-respected member of the field of psychology emerged into the arena of education in about 1965 when he proposed a newly created model to assist teachers in the classroom in dealing with school discipline problems (Glasser, 1965, 2000). His program, Reality Therapy, was a “rejection of classical psychotherapy in favor of a more behavioral approach [and has since] been acclaimed by many as an enlightened move away from the beleaguered field of Freudian psychology” (Edwards, 2004, pp. 160-161).

Previously, Glasser had been working with juvenile offenders and “now, he conducts workshops across the country for teachers and others in the helping professions” (Edwards, 2004, pp. 160-161).

Glasser’s Reality Therapy is a method that can be used in the classroom to assist with classroom management. It is a method of counseling that teaches people how to control their own lives and make more effective choices. The program teaches students how to develop the stamina to deal with the stresses and problems life presents (Glasser, 1985). Edwards (2004) stated that Glasser believed that human needs were “defined in terms of successful social relationships” (p. 162). Glasser also believed that the social and psychological problems that people experienced were a result of the bad decisions made about their social relationships (Glasser, 1985). His approach was to assist people in identifying the inappropriate behaviors that were inconsistent with societal norms and replace them with more socially acceptable ones (Glasser, 2000). He further believed that good psychological health was dependent on several factors: loving, being loved, and feeling worthwhile to oneself and others (Glasser, 2000).

Reality Therapy (RT) had two main focuses. The first area of focus provided the teacher with a classroom environment and curriculum materials “which motivate students and reduces inappropriate behavior by meeting students’ basic needs for belonging, power, fun, and freedom” (TeacherMatters, 2008, para. 1). The second focus of RT worked with students to make the appropriate behavioral choices which ultimately would lead to their personal success. Glasser (as cited in Edwards, 2004) believed:

That being responsible was a critical part in establishing successful relationships with others; that people must learn that their own personal needs must be satisfied in a reciprocal way; and that the personal gratification of personal needs depends on the success each person has as they satisfy the needs of their associates (p. 162).

For teachers, the motivational factors when dealing with discipline issues using Glasser's Reality Therapy were that behavior is a matter of choice, good behavior stems from good choices, bad behavior is a by-product of bad choices, and it is the teachers' duties to teach the students to make good choices (Borgers, 1980).

When correcting unacceptable behaviors in children in the classroom, Glasser (1990) stressed that teachers hold the key. He suggested that the teachers must assist students in acknowledging and taking responsibility for their own behavior and for changing it as necessary. There are several steps for teachers to use as they work with students who have made bad choices resulting in inappropriate behavior. Edwards (2004) suggested teachers should help students identify the inappropriate behaviors. This could be accomplished using conversational techniques in which the teacher poses leading questions requiring a specific answer from the student related to the incident. For teachers, the next step, again through dialogue, would be to assist the students in identifying the consequences for the inappropriate behavior (Edwards). Students should not be allowed to make excuses for the behavior. It was Glasser's (1990) and Borger's (1980) belief that teachers who accept no excuses are teachers who care.

Once the unacceptable behavior has been identified and the consequences discussed, the next step would be for students to make value judgments and decide “whether or not they want the consequences to occur and whether or not they judge their behavior to be inappropriate” (Edwards, 2004; Glasser, 1997a). At this point, if students have not responded to the discussion in the appropriate manner or in the manner that the teacher had planned, Glasser recommended suspending the discussion until the student is ready to discuss the inappropriate behavior, accepts responsibility for committing the act, and is able to discuss the appropriate consequences (Borgers, 1980; Edwards; Glasser, 1997a).

The next step in Glasser’s RT would be for teachers to assist students in developing a plan whereby they suggest suitable alternatives to the inappropriate behavior they chose to exhibit (Edwards, 2004; Glasser, 1990). At this point, students must have already made a value judgment about the inappropriate behaviors and accepted responsibility for committing the offense; otherwise, students would not be willing to discuss the situation (Glasser, 1990). The teachers must exhibit patience and be willing to wait out the students. The reinforcing motivator for teachers’ actions would be that students would eventually respond and be willing to discuss and arrive at a plan (Borgers, 1980; Edwards).

For RT to be effective, the next several steps are critical. According to Edwards (2004), RT required that reasonable consequences must follow whatever behavior the student chooses. Consequences are desirable if students choose positive behavior and

undesirable if choices are inappropriate. Glasser (1990) further warned that under no circumstances should teachers manipulate the situation so that consequences do not occur. By adhering to the concept that behavior will always provide consequences, whether positive or negative, individuals can and will be assured that they are in control of their own lives and their behavior (Borgers, 1980; Glasser, 1990).

Reality Therapy also required teachers to be persistent. When discussing Glasser's RT, it was suggested in *TeacherMatters* (2008):

Caring teachers work toward one goal—getting students to commit themselves to desirable courses of behavior. Commitment means constancy, doing something repeatedly, intentionally, while making sure that it is right. To convey this idea and help implant it in students, teachers themselves must be constant. They must always help students make choices and have them make value judgments about their bad choices (para. 36).

Choice Theory

Another program created by Glasser, Choice Theory, followed Reality Therapy into the educational setting. Edwards (2004) described Choice Theory as being compatible with and actually an extension of Reality Theory. Reality Therapy was designed as a corrective therapy. Choice Theory, however, was a preventative approach to discipline issues within the classroom. The primary difference between the two theories rested in the central role of need gratification (Glasser, 1990, 1997a).

In differentiating between Reality Therapy and Choice Theory, Glasser stated “Choice Theory has an expanded list of human needs, which are more central to its basic application” (Edwards, 2004, p. 168). Edwards (2004) added that children needed to be

taught about these needs and must to be taught ways to legitimately satisfy four basic needs: love, control, freedom, and fun.

In Choice Theory, love means that students are accepted for who they are and their acceptance is unconditional (Glasser, 1990). Usually, children will satisfy this need for acceptance through their behavior that is designed to get attention from parents and teachers. When the adults do not provide the wanted attention children desire, the need for love is left ungratified (Glasser, 1990, 1997a). Then, the inappropriate behaviors emerge. “Children need to be told, over and over, that they are loved—not because of what they do, not in spite of what they do, but just for who they are” (Edwards, 2004).

The second basic need that requires gratification is that of control. To be in control, individuals require sufficient power over their lives (Glasser, 1990, 1997a). However, in classrooms and at home, children are usually denied the opportunity to satisfy this need. They are considered too immature to make responsible choices. As children in the classroom assert themselves, teachers increase their own control over the children (Glasser, 1990, 1997a, 2000). Frequently, this increase in control by teachers lends itself to increases of children’s rebellion (Glasser, 1990, 2000; Woolfolk, 2010).

According to Glasser (1990), children seek to have the need of love fulfilled and frequently attempt to use control to gain this love. Teachers in this situation need to create balance and teach children to balance their need for control in order to gain the love they are seeking. Those, who recognize that children’s efforts at control are sometimes awkward and lack consideration for others, will be able to positively react to

students' efforts. They can motivate students, leading the way for instruction on appropriate behaviors to implement so that students can obtain the control they are seeking over their lives (Edwards, 2004; Glasser, 1997b).

The third basic need within the Choice Theory is related to the concept of freedom. Edwards (2008) and Glasser (1997b) contended that children need to experience freedom since this is a necessary component of learning about responsibility. Glasser (1990, 1997b) recognized that children expressing their need for freedom in the classroom, has often been regarded by teachers as affronts to their authority, but in reality, the children have been trying to satisfy their need for freedom. In an interview with Nelson (2002), Glasser suggested that motivated teachers who recognize this attribute in children will gradually provide students with opportunities to make choices regarding freedom, with the understanding that consequences will follow that may be either positive or negative (Nelson, 2002). Providing children the freedom to make choices may place them in situations with which they are unfamiliar. Sometimes the "consequences can best be learned by experience [and sometimes they] can be learned only by experience" (Edwards).

As teachers explore the many facets of Reality Therapy or Choice Therapy, they are also introduced to the concept that classroom meetings are central to the implementation of a good classroom discipline plan. Edwards (2004) reported that Glasser recommended three types of meetings: social problem solving; educational diagnostic; and open-ended. The discussions in the classroom meetings should focus on

two concepts, identifying the problem and seeking solutions to the problem (Brandt, 1988). During the classroom meetings, students should never be allowed to find fault with others, place blame on others, or seek to have others punished (Brandt). Glasser, in his interview with Brandt, indicated that the meetings may require practice before they will actually be successful. These meetings should be focused on finding solutions to problems as opposed to producing outcomes that generate blame (Brandt).

Logical Consequences

Another classroom strategy was Logical Consequences, a by-product of the integration of psychological theories into education. This model was by Rudolph Dreikurs, a child and family counselor, who became interested in classroom discipline (Edwards, 2004). Dreikurs believed that children should be given a choice in their behavior rather than being forced or coerced by adults (Malmgren, Paul, & Trezek, 2005; Sussman, 1976). As cited in Kohn (1996), Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper (1982) stated that "Every educator's approach to the educational process is based on a certain concept of human nature" (p. 4). Logical Consequences also assumed that the social conditions of the current times presented or necessitated the use of a more democratic form of discipline (Edwards; Dreikurs et al., 1982; Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976). When considering concerns or behavior issues within the classroom, Dreikurs considered anything that went wrong in the classroom as the child's unreasonable demand for attention. He argued that though it was when children's desire for attention went

unanswered that behavior and discipline issues arose (Malmgren et al.). His advice was that adults should never give children attention when they were acting out and seeking attention, because adult responses usually resulted in increased inappropriate behavior (Edwards; Malmgren et al.).

Dreikurs believed there were four types of attention seeking behaviors. The first was described by Edwards (2004) and Sussman (1976) as active-constructive behavior. Children who exhibit these behaviors are usually the conformers that readily accept the rules of adults. They want to please and are often highly successful. They are very competitive and will do all they can to maintain a perfectionist attitude and superiority over others by attempting to be role models for others. Active-constructive children are often referred to as the teachers' pets and frequently tattle on others who do not meet their expectations (Edwards; Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman).

The second attention-seeking behavior was labeled the passive-constructive behavior where the student tries to achieve their goals of attention-seeking by "charming others" (Edwards, 2004, p. 91). Using manipulation and an appearance of helplessness, the passive-constructive child attempts to get the adults to serve their self-centered needs. "They give an appearance of being interested in others . . . [and] . . . are the vain, cute, flattering children who are always clinging to those on whom they depend" (Edwards, p. 91).

Continuing his description of the attention-seeking behaviors, Edwards (2004) described the third behavior as active-destructive behavior where children are

“impertinent, defiant, clownish, or bullying” (p. 91). These children want their own way all the time and continue bothering others until they receive the desired attention (Malmgren, et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976).

The fourth attention-seeking behavior was described as passive-destructive where the children were thought of as lazy (Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976). Through their lack of motivation, these children force others to be overly concerned for them and often claim that what they are being asked to do is too difficult or that they do not understand. “Their behavior patterns include bashfulness, dependency, untidiness, lack of concentration, and self-indulgence” (Edwards, 2004, p. 91).

Driekurs believed that when children failed to achieve the attention they were seeking, they frequently engaged in power struggles with the adults (Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976). He recommended adults not interact in this way with children. “Adults are expected to be composed, trusting, loving, honest, and helpful [while children] can argue cry, contradict, throw temper-tantrums, lie, be stubborn and disobedient” (Edwards, 2004, p. 92).

Edwards (2004) stated that as the children’s efforts to control the situation were diminished, they claimed an injustice has been dealt to them and will often seek revenge on anyone around them. This could include behaviors such as hitting, biting, tripping others, kicking and even knocking books off desks or insulting the teacher in public (Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976). Because working with revenge-seeking children is difficult, he suggested that teachers recognize that causing such children more

pain would only provoke further undesirable behavior (Dreikurs & Chernoff, 1970; Kohn, 1996). Rather, he advocated that teachers offer understanding and assistance. Dreikurs believed that children who failed to achieve their personal belief in self-worth, whether through attention, power, or revenge, would “become so discouraged that they give up and seek to wrap themselves in a cloak of inadequacy” (Dreikurs & Chernoff, p. 13).

Discussing Dreikurs’ methods for working with these attention seeking students, Tauber (1981) suggested that educators should “recognize that a student’s misbehavior has a purpose and once they see the psychological motivation behind his actions, they can respond in a purposeful and helping manner” (p. 54). Dreikurs believed that teachers who taught in a mostly democratic way were those who were most effective when establishing classroom discipline (Dreikurs & Chernoff, 1970; Sussman, 1976; *TeacherMatters—Dreikurs*, 2008). These teachers should assist students in developing an inner control and should not view discipline as a set of limits imposed at times of stress and conflict. It should be “built up and continually renewed and refreshed by consistent guidance that promotes a feeling of cooperation and team effort” (*TeacherMatters—Dreikurs*, 2008).

As is the goal with all classroom management techniques, it is obviously better to prevent discipline problems than to have to correct them after the fact (Dreikurs & Chernoff, 1970; Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976). Since children’s goals are aimed at seeking attention, Dreikurs has suggested that using encouragement as opposed

to praise will aid in decreasing discipline problems. The encouragement focuses on the effort children have exhibited. Receiving feedback for that effort provides the attention from the adult (Dreikurs & Chernoff; Kohn, 1996; Malmgren et al.; Sussman). The encouragement serves to stimulate further positive behavior from the student as children who have been encouraged will more readily accept themselves for who they are “even if they are less than perfect” (Edwards, 2004, p. 103).

For some students, the encouragement will not be enough and they will be prone to engage in misbehavior (*TeacherMatters—Dreikurs*, 2008). Teachers should be prompt in addressing the mistaken goals—the misbehavior of the students (Dreikurs & Chernoff, 1970; Malmgren et al., 2005; Sussman, 1976). They should readily identify the logical consequences that had been previously established in the classroom and prepare to apply those as needed or as behavioral issues develop (Dreikurs & Chernoff).

Understanding that natural consequences are those that occur without a teacher’s intervention, the student must also be taught that logical consequences are created by the teacher and will be implemented as necessary (Dreikurs & Chernoff). These do not happen naturally, but they should have a reasonable relationship to a behavior exhibited by the children. “Logical consequences generally express the reality of the social order and are the results that can be expected whenever an individual fails to abide by the rules of living that all humans must learn in order to function effectively” (Edwards, 2004, p. 103). In addition, it is anticipated and should be known by the student that these logical consequences are related to the misbehavior or to the mistaken goals that the teacher

hopes to assist the child in correcting (Dreikurs & Chernoff) and that these are “devoid of moral judgment” (Edwards, p. 103).

Teachers who utilize the natural and logical consequences model of classroom management understand that as interactionalists, they view “the child as developing not from an inward unfolding or from conditioning by outside forces, but from simultaneous pushes and pulls from within and without” (Glickman & Wolfgang, 1979, p. 7). The teacher must recognize that continual interaction with the children is essential. To assist with this continual interaction and to further prevent discipline problems within the classroom, class discussions or meetings can have a positive influence on the behaviors of the individual students and on the group as a whole (Ellis & Karr-Kidwell, 1995; Sussman, 1976). Teachers should ensure that these meetings are consistent, in a democratic setting, and provide opportunities for students to enhance their interpersonal skills and develop effective positive communication abilities (Edwards, 2004; Ellis & Karr-Kidwell).

Positive Classroom Management: Fred Jones

In *Tools for Teaching*, Jones (2007) described a classroom management program as a puzzle with the pieces falling into three broad areas: instruction; discipline; and motivation. He stated that the classroom management program should have the characteristics of specificity, where the teacher is dealing with specifics rather than generalities; economy, where the teacher “produces dramatic results while reducing the

teacher's workload" (p. 17); and prevention, which makes management of the classroom affordable and also functions as the "unifying theme" (p. 17) of the classroom management program.

The first broad area of classroom management, according to Jones (2007), would be instruction. In this major area, Jones suggested teachers "work the crowd" by moving around the classroom rather than spending all of their time in front of the class. However, once teachers begin working the crowd, Jones stated that they will immediately confront the natural enemy of working the crowd, "the helpless hand-raisers . . . who constantly demand the teacher's undivided time and attention—especially during guided practice" (Jones, p. 18). To keep the class from getting rowdy and out of control during the time the teacher provides assistance to the helpless hand-raiser, Jones suggested three practices to implement. The first one would be "verbal modality" where the teacher "praises, prompts, and then leaves" (p. 18) the student. The second component would be the "visual modality" where the teacher provides the student with a picture for each step of the process. Jones referred to this as a "visual instruction plan" or (VIP) where the teacher provides students with a pictorial representation of the lesson as frequently as necessary until they become confident in the skill they are practicing. The third component of working the crowd included the "physical modality." Jones elaborated on this step as "the most direct way of minimizing the need for corrective feedback after the lesson is to teach the correctly in the first place" (p. 19). He explained that to accomplish this in an effective manner, teachers should move from the traditional modality of "input,

input, input, input—**output** to one of input, **output**, input, **output**, input, **output**” (Jones, 2007, p. 19). By implementing this method, students are active in their learning rather than passive, thereby, allowing teachers to more frequently monitor progress based on student performance as they are working the crowd. Jones has suggested that what separates the natural teachers from their colleagues is not the curriculum. It is instead, “the *process*—the *organization* of the learning activity” (p. 19).

Jones (2007) listed his second broad area of classroom management as that of discipline. When discipline problems occur, the traditional method would be to focus on consequences. However, Jones has suggested that these consequences come with a cost and can be fairly expensive. To resolve the cost of the consequences, Jones reported that natural teachers, rather than using traditional consequences, simply “meant business” (p. 19). He explained that meaning business was a “combination of *calm*, *commitment*, and utter *consistency* that taught the students that ‘no’ *always* means no and that consequences would *always* be delivered” (Jones, p. 20). In addition, he explained that when teachers mean business, they are in effect, using body language to convey to the student what they can and cannot do.

Another component of Jones’ (2007) broad areas of discipline referred to responsibility training where the teacher not only succeeds in convincing students to change their behavior but gets the students to “do what you want them to *the first time you ask*” (Jones, p. 20). He presented responsibility training, in which the entire class is trained to be responsible, as an enormous saver of class time and as a deterrent to the

typical “goofing off” that can occur. His goal was to help students “stop doing what you don’t want them to do [which] is only half of discipline management, but getting students to do what you want them to do the first time you ask” (Jones, p. 20).

Jones (2007), when providing details of the second component of discipline, referred to as omission training, suggested that there is usually at least one student who will attempt to ruin any classroom management program. Omission training, a “specialized incentive system for dealing with these alienated and oppositional students” (p. 21), has been shown to be an effective intervention. Jones (2007) stipulated that this provides reasons for the alienated student to want to work with the group rather than against the group. He further contended that this program, when implemented, creates win-win situation that frequently reduces office discipline referrals.

Jones (2007) referred to the teacher’s backup system as a discipline management that follows the school discipline code and when implemented is very costly. It involves the use of administrators, teachers, and even meetings with parents after school. While it may be necessary to implement such a process with dangerous or extremely aggressive students, Jones suggested that most office discipline referrals are for “repeated goofing off and insolence that finally has the teachers ‘at their wits end’” (p. 20). He further suggested that for most discipline referrals, an effective solution would be to establish effective classroom management.

To assist in determining the success or failure when consequences are invoked for the commitment of a particular behavior, there needs to be “a criterion of success” (Jones,

2007, p. 20). Exemplifying this, Jones provided a simple criterion: If a procedure is working, the problem should go away. Furthermore, he contended

that the more a teacher uses an effective procedure, the less he or she should have to use that procedure and suggested the following regarding any discipline management procedure: any discipline management technique that is working should self-eliminate. (p. 21)

The last broad component of Jones' (2007) classroom management involved motivation. He suggested that when students are unmotivated, the teacher should ask the question "Why should I?" An answer to this question would be known as an incentive and the effective teacher will need to know something about creating an incentive program for these hard-to-teach students.

To train students to be diligent and dedicated to their class work, they must have a goal toward which to work or in Jones (2007) terminology, a "preferred activity." Jones has suggested that a criterion of mastery should be established for any topic that will be taught within the classroom. Once students accomplish the criterion of mastery as determined by the effective teacher, they can then be excused from that activity to participate in a preferred activity of their own. He further suggested that if a teacher desires to build a work ethic in students, the teacher must be the provider of the preferred activities.

In summarizing the program, Jones (2007) suggested that in classroom management, prevention plays a dominant role and "brings the process of instruction front and center" (p. 23). He further added that it has to be "cheap" referring to choosing

a procedure that requires the least amount of work and the least amount of planning on the teacher's part. In addition, classroom management must be cumulative, that is each procedure is carefully crafted on a solid foundation that must be grounded for the procedure to effectively be applied.

Summary

As researchers have shown, new teachers consistently acknowledge that knowledge voids in the areas of student classroom management and motivation are major influences on high attrition rates (Gratch, 1998a; Helton, 2008; Veenmam, 1984). New teachers need a solid foundation in the areas of student behavior management and student motivation if their goals of student achievement are to be met (Guarino et al., 2006; Marzano, 2007; Marzano et al., 2003). The development of knowledge bases for these two critical areas, classroom management and student motivation, are included in the study of human behavior and thinking which Lefrancois (2000) suggested is the field of psychology. Educational psychology courses provide the much needed knowledge for the new teacher to be successful within the classroom with student classroom management, student motivation, and student learning (Anderman & Leake, 2005).

It is the responsibility of teacher preparation programs to provide a curriculum whereby teacher candidates can become knowledgeable and proficient of the many aspects of psychology, thereby leading to more effective classroom management, higher student motivation, and higher student achievement. Each of the classroom management

programs reviewed (Assertive Discipline, Reality Therapy, Choice Theory, Logical Consequences, or Positive Behavior) has in its foundation at least one, if not several, components found within one of the four areas of psychology. As Lefrancois (2000) has suggested, psychology has infused itself into the field of education. In this study, pedagogical course work was reviewed to determine the extent to which knowledge gaps exist with particular emphasis on student classroom management and student motivation.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to complete a micro-examination of professional education course content in selected public traditional teacher preparation programs. Professional education course content has been examined using institutional websites, university course catalog descriptions, syllabi, and early field experience and internship handbooks from 24 traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPPs). Specifically, the investigation was conducted to discover the depth and breadth of the professional educational course content related to classroom management and student motivation in the selected programs.

This chapter has been organized to present the methods used to conduct the study. Included is an explanation of the manner in which the sample institutions were selected from the larger population of colleges and universities. Also discussed are the sources of data that were used in the study and the procedures and instrumentation that were of assistance in the collection and analysis of the data.

Population

The population for this study originated from traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPP) in colleges and universities throughout the United States. Several factors were considered in arriving at the population.

To be considered in the population, the TTPP was one that met its state provision when reporting Title II data. “Title II authorizes federal grant programs that support the efforts of states, institutions of higher education and their school district partners to improve the recruitment, preparation and support of new teachers” (U. S. Department of Education, 2006, p. 1). Title II is inclusive of accountability measures that are in the form of “reporting requirements for institutions and states on teacher preparation and licensing” (U. S. Department of Education, 2010, p. 1) and ensures a minimum level of attention to factors considered essential in quality programs.

The second condition to be met prior to consideration for inclusion in the population was that the TTPP had to be included in the top 10 teacher credentialing states or U. S. Territories at the undergraduate level. Based on information from the United States Department of Education, Higher Education Opportunity Act, Title II, Reporting System, there were 372,620 teachers candidates granted teaching credentials and licensing through participation in traditional teacher preparation programs (Appendix A). Of those who were granted their teaching credentials, 82% received their training within the state in which they attended the TTPP (U. S. Department of Education, 2010). In analyzing the data further, approximately 54% (170,478) of the traditional teacher preparation program completers received their teaching credentials and attended institutions in 10 states. These states and the respective number of program completers for each were: Texas (30,257); New York (30,122); Florida (21,035); California (19,387); Pennsylvania (14,192); North Carolina (12,277); Georgia (11,895); New Jersey

(10,977); Virginia (10,179); and Illinois (10,157) (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b).

The third and final condition to be met for inclusion in the study was that the TTPP was recognized as a National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accredited program. NCATE has been a nationally recognized accrediting entity for TTPPs since 1954 (*NCATE's Mission*, n. d.). NCATE's mission has been "to help establish high quality teacher, specialist, and administrator preparation" (*NCATE's Mission*, n. d., p. 1). Of the approximately 1200 teacher preparation programs in the United States, NCATE accredits about 700 with the remaining 500 being evaluated by their state departments of education. All 50 states either use NCATE's teacher preparation program standards or have standards that are closely aligned within their state to the standards of NCATE (*NCATE and the states: Partners in excellence*, n. d.; *NCATE and the states: Partners in excellence in teacher preparation*, n. d.). Though the U. S. Department of Education does not accredit educational institutions or programs, it does encourage accreditation. In an effort to guarantee a basic level of quality at the postsecondary level in the United States and as a means of conducting "non-governmental, peer evaluation of educational institutions and programs" (U. S. Department of Education (2010, p. 2), private groups (both regional and national) have developed standards that reflect sound standards to determine if institutions are performing at a basic level of quality (U. S. Department of Education, 2009a, p. 2). NCATE has established itself as a recognized leader in the field of accreditation. To be

included within the population, TTPPs were also required to be coded by NCATE as one of the following: (a) initial teacher preparation level only (I) or (b) initial and advanced preparation levels (I & A). Institutions also must have been accredited using one of the following categories: (a) Provisional Accreditation, (b) Accreditation with Probation, and (c) Accreditation with Conditions.

In summary, to be considered for inclusion in this research study, the traditional teacher preparation program met the following three criteria: (a) the institution's data were included in its state's Title II report, (b) the institution was located within one of the top 10 teacher credentialing states or U. S. Territories, and (c) the teacher preparation program was accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

Using the previously stated criteria, the population was determined to consist of 228 colleges and universities. Following is an explanation of the process used to reach this determination.

Nationwide, according to the College Board (2011), there were approximately 2,100 four-year colleges and universities in the United States in 2011, and 1,200 of those were either exclusively devoted to or offered teacher preparation programs (NCATE, Making a difference, n.d.). Those 1,200 institutions met the first requirement of having their state's data included in their Title II report. Of the 1,200 institutions, 656 were also NCATE accredited. These data were obtained from the NCATE online website which provides a list and the status of each TTPP currently accredited by NCATE. Thus, a total

of 228 institutions (of the 656) met the requirement of being in one of the top ten teacher-producing states in the United States.

Selection of the Sample

From the population of 228 institutions, programs from 24 higher education institutions were selected and comprised the sample in the research study. Following is a description of the process used to arrive at the final sample of 24 institutions.

There was no uniform source of data that could be used to access numbers of degree completers. The primary source of data in arriving at the sample consisted of Professional Education Data System (PEDS) data which were self-reported to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) by participating institutions using a report template provided by AACTE. However, not all institutions participate. When PEDS data were not available, the researcher used individual states' higher education data bases to access needed numbers of education undergraduate degree recipients so as to select the largest programs from those that met the criteria for inclusion in the study.

Because the purpose of the research was to review undergraduate professional educational course content, two states whose initial preparation programs included graduate content, California and Virginia, were excluded from the study. Also excluded, was the teacher preparation program at the University of Florida because of its high number of five-year teacher preparation programs culminating in master's degrees. Only

a few education degree programs were found to be offered at the undergraduate level, and the majority of University of Florida education degrees were conferred at the graduate level. Thus, the number of states, from which the sample was drawn, was reduced from 10 to eight. With the removal of 38 programs in California and Virginia and the University of Florida program, the total number of institutions was reduced from 228 to 190.

Of the remaining institutions, 88 were private. A decision was made to consider only public institutions, further reducing the number of institutions to 102. The rationale for this determination was (a) commonalities often exist for programs within public institutions and (b) public programs are frequently representative of large numbers of program completers and degree recipients.

The final determination of college and university TTPPs to be included in the sample was made by selecting the 24 programs from the 102 public institutions with the highest number of graduates, ensuring representation from the eight states. The final selection of the 24 programs for inclusion within the study was determined by selecting the top three programs from each of the remaining eight eligible states. The listing of programs that comprised the sample for the study and the linkage between the institutions and the eight highest teacher- producing states are displayed in Appendix B. These institutions comprised the sample whose traditional teacher preparation programs were subjected to micro-analysis of course content. The researcher took great care to ensure

that the 24 institutions selected met the three criteria for inclusion in the study. Thus, no alternate TTPPs were selected for inclusion within the study.

It was, however, necessary to partially omit data in the analyses that were not available online from two of the TTPPs. Programs of study, course catalogs/bulletins, and syllabi were available online which permitted the analysis of the professional education content related to classroom management (Research Question 1) and student motivation (Research Question 3) that was offered to preservice teachers. However, the student teaching handbooks and early field experience and preservice teacher evaluative tools which were reviewed to determine the field and hands-on experience for classroom management (Research Question 2) and student motivation (Research Question 4) were not available online. Several attempts were made to obtain data through phone calls, and emails to contact personnel for the respective colleges of education for each of the TTPPs. One TTPP responded and indicated the requested information would be mailed to the researcher's home. The information was never received. The second TTPP never responded to the series of emails sent. A decision was made by the researcher to include the information that was available for each of the 24 institutions in the analysis. Thus, data were available for analysis for all of the 24 TTPPs to answer Research Questions 1 and 3 and for 22 of the 24 TTPPs to answer Research Questions 2 and 4.

Research Design and Rationale

Qualitative content analysis has been used extensively in many research endeavors. It has been regarded as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). It has also been viewed as “any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings” (Patton, 2002, p. 453).

Qualitative content analysis has been used where standard quantitative analysis techniques have been found to have weaknesses. It strives to look for meanings that may be apparent or emerge from the examination of a particular text (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). For this study, the researcher examined the text of program descriptions in university and college catalogs, course descriptions, syllabi, internship guides, and related pertinent course materials to search for content within courses and programs related to classroom management and student motivation. Data were categorized and rated using categories and a rubric determined after completing the review of literature. Wherever possible, the results were quantified and described in tables and accompanying narratives. Themes, trends, and inferences were identified as they emerged in the research.

Collection of Data

To establish and maintain integrity and consistency in the data collection process, a document review form was designed by the researcher for use in the content analysis (Appendix C). It was used in the collection of data regarding professional education course content specifically for courses with content consisting of or incorporating (a) classroom management and (b) student motivation in the traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPPs).

Sections 1A-1C of the document review form were used to record basic demographic information for each program including student population, total students completing teacher education programs, size of institution, and contact information. Sections 1D (elementary) and 1E (secondary) were used to collect the data related to the professional education course content found in the program of study, the TTPP's course catalog/bulletin, or the specific course syllabi. The information collected included the following: (a) the course number, (b) the course name, (c) the number of credits/hours, (d) whether the course was required, optional, or not mentioned in the program of study or school catalog/bulletin. For the purposes of this research study, the specific professional education courses reviewed included the following: (a) general psychology, (b) educational psychology, (c) child and/or adolescent development, (d) classroom management, and (e) student motivation. Each of these key words for the titles of the courses became a variable to be entered into SPSS as part of the data analysis process.

In the initial phase of the analysis, programs of study found in course catalogs/bulletins were scrutinized for the required professional education course(s) that were identified with the key concepts of classroom management or student motivation mentioned within the title of courses. Next, the researcher proceeded to a second phase of analysis which resulted in a review of course descriptions within the school catalog/bulletin for the key terms of classroom management or student motivation.

If the key terms, classroom management or student motivation were not located in the first or second phases of the analysis, available online course syllabi were located and reviewed for the specific key topics of classroom management and student motivation. Although course syllabi reviewed for different instructors generated some differences in course content information, the differences were minimal and did not require any further clarifying information from the respective institutions.

Sections 2A (classroom management) and 2B (student motivation) of the document analysis instrument were used to record field experiences and hands-on/clinical experiences within courses as they related to classroom management and student motivation respectively. The researcher reviewed course syllabi and student teaching/internship handbooks or manuals to determine the activities by course that addressed these topics.

In the collection of data regarding preservice teachers' classroom management field experiences at both the elementary and secondary levels, five components related to classroom management were selected as the key concepts to be reviewed. These

included: (a) rules and procedures; (b) the implementation of classroom management strategies and techniques; (c) provision for student opportunities to be accountable for their own behavior; (d) the physical arrangement of the classroom and safety procedures; and (e) development and implementation of a classroom discipline plan. Successful implementation of the key components was evidenced through at least one of the following three methods of documentation: (a) artifacts submitted to the university; (b) student teaching portfolios required by the college or university or; (c) evaluations completed by the supervising teacher or university supervisor during the Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2 field experiences.

When collecting the preservice teachers' field experiences related to student motivation at both the elementary and secondary levels, five components related to motivation were selected as the key concepts to be reviewed. These included the following: (a) implementation of motivational theories; (b) student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety); (c) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; (d) self-efficacy and motivation; (e) strategies for reaching low achieving, hard to reach students or students who are uninterested in learning. This collection of data related to student motivation within the professional education courses in the selected TTPPs and occurred primarily in the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and/or the Internship 2 courses. As the preservice teachers fulfilled the requirements of these professional education content courses, they were frequently required to provide documented evidence indicating they had fulfilled or had completed the required tasks. Some of this documented evidence was

inclusive of the key concept of student motivation. Evidence of successful implementation of the key components was documented using at least one of the following three methods: (a) artifacts submitted to the university; (b) student teaching portfolios required by the college or university or; (c) evaluations completed by the supervising teacher or university supervisor during the Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2 field experiences.

Analysis of Data

Because the purpose of this study was to complete a micro-examination of specific professional education course content as it related to classroom management and student motivation, the primary data collected using qualitative content analysis were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics provided the researcher with a method to report the data in an organized manner and to summarize and interpret the results in meaningful ways (Lomax, 2007). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used, whenever appropriate, to assist the researcher in the analysis. The analysis of the data was organized around the four research questions which were used to guide the study.

Research Question 1

What course content related to classroom management do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

To facilitate the analysis of data from elementary and secondary programs of study for the key topic of classroom management, course descriptions and course syllabi, frequencies and percentages were calculated using data from the 24 sample institutions. Using SPSS, courses identified were assigned one of seven value levels. These levels ranged from a required course with classroom management mentioned as a key term in the title to the lowest value of not being mentioned in the course descriptions. The seven value levels were:

- Required—only key topic in course title,
- Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title,
- Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi,
- Optional—only key topic mentioned in course title,
- Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title,
- Optional—different title/key topics and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi,
- Not mentioned.

Quantitative analysis was used in deriving frequencies and percentages, and the results were displayed in tabular form and discussed in accompanying narratives. Within

each table, three categories were created to permit the display of one, two or three required or optional courses being offered at a single institution which addressed the key topics.

Research Question 2

To what extent do preservice teachers receive field experience related to classroom management within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Each course, at both the elementary and secondary level that included a field experience was analyzed for any evidence of the components of classroom management being reviewed: (a) rules and procedures; (b) the implementation of classroom management strategies and techniques; (c) provision for student opportunities to be accountable for their own behavior; (d) the physical arrangement of the classroom and safety procedures; and (e) development and implementation of a classroom discipline plan.

For the TTPP to receive credit for field experience, some form of evidence or an actual artifact had to be specified within the course syllabi or handbooks as a requirement for the preservice teacher. For some states, the TTPPs used Live Text[®] or TaskStream[®] for the uploading of required evidence or artifact. In addition, all states required preservice teachers to compile a student teaching portfolio that documented successful completion of the requirements set forth in the field experience or internship handbooks or in the course syllabi. Evidence of component completion by the preservice teacher

was also demonstrated when evaluations were completed by cooperating teachers and the university supervisors. During the field experiences, the preservice teacher was evaluated based on a modified, pre-teacher level version of the respective state's accomplished practices for professional educators. The evaluative tool was frequently inclusive of the requirement for the physical evidence or artifacts being submitted/uploaded via Live Text[®] or TaskStream[®] demonstrating satisfactory or higher evaluative completion of the components within the evaluation.

Frequencies and percentages were calculated for types of field experiences based on the frequency of occurrence and the point(s) at which the experiences occurred ranging from experiences integrated throughout the entire program to no evidence of field experience:

- Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2
- Internship 1 and Internship 2
- Pre-internship and Internship 1
- Internship 2 only
- Internship 1 only
- Pre-internship only
- No evidence

The results were displayed in tabular form and discussed in accompanying narratives.

Research Question 3

What course content related to student motivation do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

To facilitate the analysis of data from elementary and secondary programs of study for the key topic of student motivation, course descriptions and course syllabi, frequencies and percentages were calculated using data from the 24 sample institutions. Using SPSS, courses identified were assigned one of seven value levels. These levels ranged from a required course with student motivation mentioned as a key term in the title to the lowest value of no mention in the course descriptions. The seven value levels were:

- Required—only key topic in course title,
- Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title,
- Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi,
- Optional—only key topic mentioned in course title,
- Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title,
- Optional—different title/key topics and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi,
- Not mentioned.

To further facilitate the discussion of the results of this study, the researcher reviewed additional professional education course content offered to the preservice

teachers in their traditional teacher preparation programs. The programs of study and course descriptions within the course catalogs/bulletins were analyzed for courses containing the following key topics: (a) general psychology, (b) educational psychology, and (c) child/adolescent development. To analyze the data obtained, these three key topics were entered into SPSS as variables utilizing the same seven value labels as used with the student motivation variables.

Quantitative analysis was used in deriving frequencies and percentages, and the results were displayed in tabular form and discussed in accompanying narratives. Within each table, three categories were created to permit the display of one, two, or three required or optional courses being offered at a single institution which addressed the key topics.

Research Question 4

How do preservice teachers receive “hands-on” experience related to student motivation within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Each course, at both the elementary and secondary levels, that was inclusive of a field experience was analyzed for any evidence of the five components of motivation being reviewed: (a) implementation of motivational theories; (b) student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety); (c) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; (d) self-efficacy and motivation; and (e) strategies for reaching low achieving, hard to reach students or students who are uninterested in learning. For the TTPP to receive credit for field

experience, some form of evidence or an actual artifact had to be specified within the course syllabi or handbooks as a requirement for the preservice teacher. For some states, the TTPPs used Live Text[®] or TaskStream[®] for the uploading of the required evidence or artifact. In addition, all states required preservice teachers to compile a student teaching portfolio that documented successful completion of the requirements set forth in the field experience or internship handbooks or the course syllabi.

Evidence of component completion by the preservice teacher was also demonstrated when evaluations were completed by cooperating teachers and the university supervisors. During the field experiences, preservice teachers were evaluated based on a modified, pre-teacher level version of the respective state's accomplished practices for professional educators. The evaluative tool was frequently inclusive of the requirement for the physical evidence or artifacts being submitted/uploaded via Live Text[®] or TaskStream[®] demonstrating satisfactory or higher evaluative completion of the components within the evaluation.

Frequencies and percentages were calculated for types of field experiences based on the frequency of occurrence and the point(s) at which the experiences occurred ranging from experiences integrated throughout the entire program to no evidence of field experience:

- Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2
- Internship 1 and Internship 2
- P-internship and Internship 1

- Internship 2 only
- Internship 1 only
- Pre-internship only
- No evidence

The results were displayed in tabular form and discussed in accompanying narratives.

Table 2 displays the research questions, sources of data/instrumentation, and the data analysis used in the research.

Table 2

Research Questions, Sources of Data/Instrumentation, and Data Analysis

Research Question	Sources of Data/ <i>Instrumentation</i>	Data Analysis
1. What course content related to classroom management do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?	Initial analysis of programs Demographics, course catalog, program of study elements, course descriptions, course syllabi <i>Document Review</i> <i>Sections 1A - 1E</i>	Frequencies and percentages (SPSS) Descriptive narratives
2. To what extent do preservice teachers receive field experience related to classroom management within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?	Review of syllabi Review of evaluation forms Student teaching/internship guide <i>Document Review</i> <i>Section 2A</i>	Frequencies and percentages for types of field experiences (SPSS) Descriptive narratives
3. What course content related to student motivation do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?	Initial analysis of programs Demographics, course catalog, program of study elements, course descriptions, course syllabi <i>Document Review</i> <i>Sections 1A - 1E</i>	Frequencies and percentages (SPSS) Descriptive narratives
4. How do preservice teachers receive “hands-on” experience related to student motivation within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?	Review of syllabi Review of evaluation forms Student teaching/internship guide <i>Document Review</i> <i>Section 2B</i>	Frequencies and percentages for types of hands-on experiences (SPSS) Descriptive narratives

Summary

The methodology and procedures which were used in the study have been presented in this chapter. The population has been described, and the process by which the researcher arrived at the sample of 24 public NCATE accredited institutions has been explained. The data collection and analysis processes have been delineated and related to the research questions which guided this study. Chapters 4 and 5 contain the analysis of the data and a summary of the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to complete a qualitative, micro-examination of professional education course content in selected public traditional teacher preparation programs. Professional education course content was examined using institutional websites, university course catalog descriptions, field experience and student teaching handbooks, and syllabi from 24 traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPPs). Specifically, the investigation was conducted to ascertain if knowledge voids existed within the professional education course content presented to preservice teachers during their traditional teacher preparation programs related to the topics of classroom management and student motivation.

This chapter has been organized into three sections: (a) demographic data descriptive of the population and sample selected for study, (b) a two-part analysis of the data permitting separate descriptions of elementary and secondary programs for each of the four research questions, and (c) a chapter summary.

For reporting purposes on the results of this qualitative study, all data obtained were entered into SPSS utilizing two separate data sets, one for elementary data and one for secondary data. The first 10 variables of each data set were generated to reflect the demographic data for the each TTPP. An additional 19 variables were developed for

each of the elementary and secondary data sets to provide the researcher a method of analyzing the frequencies of the data obtained.

Population and Sample

The population for this study included approximately 1,200 colleges or universities that provided preservice teachers with programs leading to teacher certification (*NCATE and the states: Partners in excellence*, n. d.; *NCATE and the states: Partners in excellence in teacher preparation*, n. d.). From these 1,200 institutions, 24 TTPPs were selected as the sample for this research study. Demographic data related to total student enrollment (including full- and part-time students) and bachelor's degrees in education awarded are displayed in Table 3. The 24 schools varied from a high student enrollment of 45,301 to a low of 6,237 with a mean total student enrollment of 18,153. The total bachelor's degrees in education awarded to each of these 24 TTPPs ranged from a high of 867 to a low of 260 degrees. The mean number of bachelor's degrees conferred in education was 492.

Table 3

Institutional Demographics for Study Sample

Institution	Total School Enrollment	Total Bachelors' Degrees Awarded
University of Central Florida	45,301	867
Illinois State University	18,389	771
Texas Tech University	24,236	763
Pennsylvania (Penn) State University	37,855	694
East Carolina University	20,571	649
Eastern Illinois University	10,225	602
University of South Florida	30,536	542
Florida State University	30,803	540
West Chester University	11,920	535
State University of New York at Cortland	6,258	526
Kennesaw State University	20,304	523
Buffalo State College	8,780	451
Kutztown University of Pennsylvania	9,614	439
University of Georgia	26,142	426
Appalachian State University	14,872	413
Rowan University	9,665	404
State University of New York at Oswego	7,200	394
Montclair State University	14,139	380
The College of New Jersey	6,237	362
Southern Illinois University at Carbondale	15,551	334
University of North Carolina at Greensboro	14,638	328
Sam Houston State University	14,569	298
Georgia Southern University	16,486	297
University of Texas at Arlington	21,370	260

Sources of Data:

1. Total Students Enrolled: July 2010 data were obtained from *U.S. News and World Report Ultimate College Guide (2010)* 2011 edition.
2. Degrees in Education: 2007-08 data were obtained from the Professional Education Data System (PEDS) report for the 2007-08 school year (most recent).

Table 4 reflects additional institutional demographic data. The TTPPs were assigned a geographical location based on the divisions provided by the Bureau of Labor and Statistics (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). Of the 24 TTPPs in the study, nine (37.5%) were located in the northeast region of the United States, three (12.5%) were

located in the Midwest region and 12 (50.0%) were in the southern region. Geographic location size, i.e., city/town size of the TTPP, was determined based on information provided from Cappex (2011). Of the TTPPs, 11 (45.8%) were located in small, rural areas; four (16.7%) were located in a medium-sized city or town; and nine (37.5%) were located in large, urban areas. Table 4 also displays data regarding the online availability of both course catalogs and programs of study. Course catalogs were accessed online for 100% of the 24 institutions (100%). Appendix B contains a complete listing of the website addresses for all TTPPs in the sample.

Table 4

Demographic Data for the Study Sample

Descriptors	Frequency	Percentage
Geographic Location		
Northeast	9	37.5
Midwest	3	12.5
West	-	-
South	12	50.0
Total	24	100.0
Geographic Setting Size		
Small	11	45.8
Medium	4	16.7
Large	9	37.5
Total	24	
Course catalog available online		
Yes	24	100.0
No	-	-
Total	24	100.0
Program of study available online		
Yes	24	100.0
No	-	-
Total	24	100.0

Data Analysis for Research Question 1

What course content related to classroom management do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Classroom Management Course Content Analysis: Elementary Level

Table 5 displays the results of the analysis of professional education courses at the elementary level offered by the 24 institutions included in the study. Programs of study, college catalog/bulletin course listings and descriptions, as well as available syllabi, were reviewed to determine whether courses were required or optional and if multiple courses emphasized the key concept or variable of classroom management at the elementary level.

Four of the TTPPs (16.7%) mentioned classroom management, as a required course with classroom management as the key topic in the title. Five TTPPs (20.8%) mentioned a required course that was inclusive of the term classroom management as well as other key topics within the title of the course. In addition, 12 of the TTPPs (50.0%) required a course that was void of the term, classroom management, within the course title. Instead, other key topics were mentioned in the title and the term, classroom management, was located within the course description in the school course catalog/bulletin or in the course syllabi. Of the three remaining TTPPs analyzed, one TTPP (4.2%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers and mentioned classroom management as the key topic in the course title. One TTPP (4.2%) provided an optional course and mentioned classroom management and other key topics in the

course title. The remaining one TTPP (4.2%) had no course, either required or optional, that mentioned classroom management in the program of study, in the course catalog/bulletin, or in the course syllabi.

Table 5

Elementary Level Professional Education Courses: Classroom Management (N = 24)

Descriptors	Frequency	Percentage
One Classroom Management Course Offered		
Required—only key topic in course title	4	16.7
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	5	20.8
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	12	50.0
Optional— only key topic mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description	-	-
Not mentioned	1	4.2
Two Classroom Management Courses Offered		
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	6	25.0
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description	6	25.0
Three Classroom Management Courses Offered		
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	2	8.3
Optional—among key topics mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description	2	8.3

For some of the TTPPs, more than one course was found to address the key concept of classroom management. Six of the TTPPs (25.0%) required a second course that contained topics other than classroom management in the title with classroom

management mentioned only in the course description in the college catalog/bulletin. An additional six TTPPs (25.0%) provided an optional second course for their preservice teachers that contained other key topics in the course titles with classroom management mentioned only in the course description of the school catalog/bulletin or in course syllabi.

For yet a smaller number of institutions, a third required or optional course addressing classroom management was available to students enrolled in elementary programs. Two of the TTPPs (8.3%) provided a third required course for elementary preservice teachers that mentioned classroom management along with other key topics in the course title. One TTPP (4.2%) provided an optional third course that contained only the term, classroom management, in the title. Two TTPPs (8.3%) provided an optional, third course that cited only other key concepts in the course title but mentioned the key concept of classroom management in the course description of the school catalog/bulletin or in course syllabi.

Classroom Management Course Content Analysis: Secondary Level

Table 6 displays the results of the analysis of professional education courses at the secondary level offered by the 24 institutions included in the study. Programs of study, college catalog/bulletin course listings and descriptions, as well as available syllabi, were reviewed to determine whether courses were required or optional and if multiple courses emphasized the key concept of classroom management at the secondary level.

Table 6

Secondary Level Professional Education Courses: Classroom Management (N = 24)

Descriptors	Frequency	Percentage
One Classroom Management Course Offered		
Required—only key topic in course title	3	12.5
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in title	5	20.8
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	10	41.7
Optional—only key topic mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in title	3	12.5
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	-	-
Not mentioned	2	8.3
Two Classroom Management Courses Offered		
Required—only key topic in course title	1	4.2
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	6	25
Optional—only key topic mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	4	16.7
Three Classroom Management Courses Offered		
Optional—only key topic mentioned in title	1	4.2
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in title	2	8.3
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	2	8.3

At the secondary level, three of the TTPPs (12.5%) mentioned classroom management as a required course with classroom management mentioned as the key topic in the title within the program of study. Five of the TTPPs (20.8%) mentioned a required course that was inclusive of the term classroom management as well as other key topics within the title of the course. In addition, 10 of the TTPPs (41.7%) required a course within the program of study that was void of the term classroom management within the title. Instead, other key topics were mentioned in the title, and the term classroom

management was located within the course description in the school course catalog/bulletin or within the course syllabi. Of the six remaining TTPPs analyzed, one TTPP (4.2%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers and mentioned classroom management as the key topic. Three TTPPs (12.5%) provided an optional course and mentioned classroom management and other key topics within the title. The remaining two TTPPs (8.3%) had no course, either required or optional, that mentioned classroom management in the program of study, in the course catalog/bulletin, or within the course syllabi.

For some of the TTPPs, more than one course was found to address the key concept of classroom management. Only one of the TTPPs (4.2%) required a course that mentioned classroom management as the only key topic within the title. Six of the TTPPs (25.0%) required a course that mentioned topics other than classroom management within the title with the key topic of classroom management occurring in the course description in the college catalog/bulletin or in the course syllabi. One of the TTPPs (4.2%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers with classroom management being mentioned as the key topic in the title for the course. Four of the TTPPs (16.7%) provided an optional course for their preservice teachers that mentioned other key topics within the title with classroom management being one of several key concepts to be studied within the course.

For a still smaller number of institutions, a third required or optional course addressing classroom management was available to students enrolled in secondary

programs. One of the TTPPs (4.2%) provided an optional course that mentioned classroom management only in the course title within the school catalog/bulletin. Two of the TTPPs (8.3%) provided an optional third course that mentioned classroom management among other key concepts within the title. Two TTPPs (8.3%) provided an optional, third course that cited only other key concepts in the course title but mentioned the key concept of classroom management in the course description of the school catalog/bulletin or in course syllabi.

Data Analysis for Research Question 2

To what extent do preservice teachers receive field experience related to classroom management within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Classroom Management Field Experiences: Elementary Level

Table 7 displays the results of the analysis of the elementary level field experiences for classroom management offered by the institutions included in the study. For the classroom management component, rules and procedures, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required documented evidence from at least one of preservice teachers' field experiences. A total of 14 of the TTPPs (63.6%) required documented evidence during the Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2. Six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required the documented evidence for Internship 1 and 2, and two (9.1%) of the TTPPs required evidence for Internship 2 only.

For the classroom management component, implementation of specific classroom management strategies and techniques, 18 of the TTPPs (81.8%) required documented evidence from at least one of the preservice teacher's field experiences. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required documented evidence for Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2. Seven TTPPs (31.8%) required documented evidence during Internship 1 and Internship 2, and nine (40.9%) required documentation during Internship 2 only. In addition, no documented evidence of successful implementation of this key concept could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided for four of the TTPPs (18.2%).

For the classroom management component, providing students opportunities to be accountable for their own behavior, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required documented evidence from at least one of preservice teachers' field experiences. A total of 13 (59.1%) of the TTPPs required the documented evidence during Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2. Six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required the documentation during Internship 1 and Internship 2, and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required the documented evidence only during Internship 2.

For the classroom management component of physical arrangement and safety, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required preservice teachers to provide documented evidence of the importance of physical arrangement and safety concerns within the classroom. A total of 14 (63.6%) of the TTPPs required the documented evidence during Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Five of the TTPPs (22.7%) required documentation during

Internship 1 and Internship 2, and, three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required the documentation only during the Internship 2 field experience.

For the classroom management component, developing and implementing a classroom discipline plan, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required preservice teachers to develop and implement a classroom discipline plan during at least one of their field experiences. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required the documented evidence during the Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2. Seven of the TTPPs (31.8%) required documentation during Internship 1 and Internship 2, and 13 of the TTPPs (59.1%) required documentation only during the Internship 2 field experience.

Table 7

Elementary Level Field Experiences in Professional Education Courses: Classroom Management (N = 22)

Documented Evidence of Field Experiences	Pre, Intern 1 & 2		Intern 1 & 2		Pre & Intern 1		Intern 2 Only		Intern 1 Only		Pre Only		No Evidence		Evidence Required in Minimum of One Field Experience	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Rules and procedures	14	63.6	6	27.3	-	-	2	9.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0
Implementation of strategies and techniques	2	9.1	7	31.8	-	-	9	40.9	-	-	-	-	4	18.2	18	81.8
Provision of opportunities for students to be accountable for own behavior	13	59.1	6	27.3	-	-	3	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0
Physical arrangement and safety	14	63.6	5	22.7	-	-	3	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0
Development and implementation of classroom discipline plan	2	9.1	7	31.8	-	-	13	59.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0

Classroom Management Field Experiences: Secondary Level

Table 8 displays the results of the analysis of the secondary level field experiences for the classroom management variable offered by the institutions included in the study. For the rules and procedures component, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required documented evidence from at least one of preservice teachers' field experiences. Fifteen of the TTPPs (68.2%) required the documented evidence during the Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2. Five of the TTPPs (22.7%) required the documented evidence for Internship 1 and 2, and two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required evidence for Internship 2 only.

For the classroom management component of implementation of specific classroom management strategies and techniques, 18 of the TTPPs (81.8%) required documented evidence from at least one of preservice teachers' field experiences. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required documented evidence for Pre-internship, Internship 1 and Internship 2. Six TTPPs (27.3%) required documented evidence during Internship 1 and Internship 2, and 10 (45.5%) required documentation during Internship 2 only. In addition, no documented evidence of successful implementation of this key concept could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided for four of the TTPPs (18.2%).

For the classroom management component of providing students with opportunities to be accountable for their own behavior, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required

documented evidence from at least one of preservice teachers' field experiences. A total of 13 (59.1%) of the TTPPs required documented evidence during Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required documentation during Internship 1 and Internship 2, and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required the documented evidence only during Internship 2.

For the classroom management component of physical arrangement and safety, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required preservice teachers to provide documented evidence of the importance of physical arrangement and safety concerns within the classroom. A total of 14 (63.6%) TTPPs required documented evidence during the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Five of the TTPPs (22.7%) required documentation during Internship 1 and Internship 2 and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required documentation only during the Internship 2 field experience.

For the classroom management component, developing and implementing a classroom discipline plan, 22 of the TTPPs (100%) required preservice teachers to develop and implement a classroom discipline plan during at least one of their field experiences. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required the documented evidence during the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Seven of the TTPPs (31.8%) required documentation during Internship 1 and Internship 2, and 13 of the TTPPs (59.1%) required the documentation only during the Internship 2 field experience.

Table 8

Secondary Level Field Experiences in Professional Education Courses: Classroom Management (N = 22)

Documented Evidence of Field Experiences	Pre, Intern 1 & 2		Intern 1 & 2		Pre & Intern 1		Intern 2 Only		Intern 1 Only		Pre Only		No Evidence		Evidence Required in Minimum of One Field Experience	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Rules and procedures	15	68.2	5	22.7	-	-	2	9.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0
Implementation of strategies and techniques	2	9.1	6	27.3	-	-	10	45.5	-	-	-	-	4	18.2	18	81.8
Provision of opportunities for students to be accountable for own behavior	13	59.1	6	27.3	-	-	3	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0
Physical arrangement and safety	14	63.6	5	22.7	-	-	3	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0
Development and implementation of classroom discipline plan	2	9.1	7	31.8	-	-	13	59.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0

Data Analysis for Research Question 3

What course content related to student motivation do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Student Motivation Course Content Analysis: Elementary Level

Table 9 displays the results of the analysis of professional education courses at the elementary level offered by the 24 institutions included in the study. Programs of study, college catalog/bulletin course listings and descriptions, as well as available syllabi, were reviewed to determine whether courses were required or optional and if multiple courses emphasized the key concept of student motivation at the elementary level.

Of the 24 TTPPs analyzed at the elementary level, none mentioned motivation as a required course with motivation listed as the key topic in the title. In addition, no TTPP mentioned within the program of study a required course that contained the key topic of motivation as well as other key topics. Five (20.8%) of the TTPPs listed within the course catalog/bulletin or the course syllabi, required courses that contained other key topics within the title and mentioned motivation. Seven TTPPs (29.2%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers mentioning motivation as the key topic in the title within the course catalog/bulletin. An additional six TTPPs (25.0%) provided an optional course, as listed in the course catalog/bulletin, that mentioned motivation and other key topics within the title. Two TTPPs (8.3%) provided an optional course with different key concepts mentioned within the title. Motivation was one of many key concepts outlined

either in the course catalog/bulletin or the course syllabi. The remaining four TTPPs (16.7%) had no course, required or optional, that mentioned motivation in the program of study, in the course catalog/bulletin, or in course syllabi.

Table 9

Elementary Level Professional Education Courses: Motivation (N = 24)

Descriptors	Frequency	Percentage
One Motivation Course Offered		
Required—only key topic in course title	-	-
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	-	-
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	5	20.8
Optional— only key topic mentioned in course title	7	29.2
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	6	25.0
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	2	8.3
Not mentioned in	4	16.7
Two Motivation Courses Offered		
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	7	29.2
Optional—only key topic listed in title	1	4.2
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	13	54.2
Three Motivation Courses Offered		
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	1	4.2
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	13	54.2

For some of the TTPPs, more than one course was found to address the key concept of student motivation. Seven of the TTPPs (29.2%) mentioned a required second course in which the title included other key concepts with motivation listed as a key topic

in the course description in the school catalog/bulletin or the course syllabi. One TTPP (4.2%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers mentioning only the key topic of motivation within the title. A total of 13 TTPPs (54.2%) provided optional courses with titles that mentioned key topics other than motivation but included motivation in the course catalog/bulletin or course syllabi descriptions.

A smaller number of institutions made a third required or optional course addressing student motivation available to students enrolled in elementary programs. One TTPP (4.2%) required a third course that had a course title devoid of the term motivation but included in the course description the key term of motivation. A total of 13 TTPPs (54.2%) provided optional courses that mentioned motivation in the course descriptions or in course syllabi.

Student Motivation Course Content Analysis: Secondary Level

Table 10 displays the results of the analysis of professional education courses at the secondary level offered by the 24 institutions included in the study. Programs of study, college catalog/bulletin course listings and descriptions, as well as available syllabi, were reviewed to determine whether courses were required or optional and if multiple courses emphasized the key concept of student motivation at the secondary level.

Table 10

Secondary Level Professional Education Course Content: Student Motivation

Descriptors	Frequency	Percentage
One Motivation Course Offered		
Required—only key topic in course title	-	-
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	5	20.8
Optional— only key topic mentioned in course title	6	25.0
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	5	20.8
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course Description/syllabi	4	16.7
Not mentioned in	3	12.5
Two Motivation Courses Offered		
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	7	29.2
Optional—only key topic listed in title	1	4.2
Optional—among key topics listed in title	2	8.3
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	11	45.8
Not mentioned in	3	12.5
Three Motivation Courses Offered		
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	1	4.2
Optional—among key topics listed in title	1	4.2
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	10	41.7
Not mentioned	12	50.0

None of the TTPPs mentioned motivation as a required course with motivation being mentioned as the key topic in the title. One TTPP (4.2%) mentioned a required course that contained the key topic of motivation and other key topics. Five TTPPs (20.8%) mentioned required courses that contained other key topics in the title and mentioned motivation as one of several key concepts to be addressed in the course. Six TTPPs (25.0%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers, mentioning

motivation as the key topic in the title. An additional five TTPPs (20.8%) provided an optional course that mentioned motivation and other key topics within the title. Four TTPPs (16.7%) provided an optional course with different key concepts mentioned within the title. The remaining three TTPPs (12.5%) had no course, required or optional, that mentioned motivation in the program of study or in the course catalog/bulletin.

For some of the TTPPs, more than one course was found to address the key concept of classroom management. Seven TTPPs (29.2%) mentioned required courses in which the title was inclusive of other key concepts with motivation listed as one of the key topics. One TTPP (4.2%) provided an optional course for preservice teachers mentioning only the key topic of motivation in the title. Two TTPPs (8.3%) provided an optional course mentioning the key topic of motivation and additional key topics within the title. A total of 11 TTPPs (45.8%) provided optional courses with titles mentioning key topics other than motivation with motivation being included within the course catalog/bulletin or course syllabi.

For a smaller number of institutions, a third required or optional course addressing motivation was available to students enrolled in elementary programs. One TTPP (4.2%) required a third course that had a course title devoid of the term motivation, but included the key term and concept of motivation within the course description. One additional TTPP (4.2%) provided a course with the key term, motivation, mentioned along with additional key concepts in the title. Ten TTPPs (41.7%) provided optional

courses that mentioned motivation within the course descriptions or within the course syllabi.

Additional Student Motivation Course Content Analysis: Elementary Level

Table 11 displays the results of additional elementary level professional education course content that was reviewed. General or introductory psychology, when offered as a course for all students at the college or university, was generally taken prior to acceptance into the teacher education programs at the 24 TTPPs in the study. Of the 24 TTPPs, nine (37.5%) required a course with general or introductory psychology as the key topic within programs of study. One (4.2%) of the TTPPs mentioned a course with general or introductory psychology as well as other topics in the course title. In addition, 12 TTPPs (50.0%) offered general or introductory psychology as an optional course. Two (8.3%) of the TTPPs offered a course with other key topics in addition to general or introductory psychology in the title.

For the 24 TTPPs at the elementary level, educational psychology was generally a course taken by preservice teachers after acceptance into the teacher education program. Within the programs of study reviewed at the elementary level for the 24 TTPPs, two TTPPs (8.3%) required a course with educational psychology as the key topic within the program of study. In addition, 10 TTPPs (41.7%) mentioned a course with educational psychology in the title as an optional course in the course catalog/bulletin. A total of 12

TTPPs (50.0%) were void of any mention in the program of study or the course catalog/bulletin of a course with the title, educational psychology.

Table 11

Additional Elementary Level Professional Education Course Content (N = 24)

Descriptors	Frequency	Percentage
General Psychology		
Required—only key topic in course title	9	37.5
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	-	-
Optional— only key topic mentioned in course title	12	50.0
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	2	8.3
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	-	-
Not mentioned	-	-
Educational Psychology		
Required—only key topic in course title	2	8.3
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	-	-
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	-	-
Optional— only key topic mentioned in course title	10	41.7
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	-	-
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	-	-
Not mentioned	12	50.0
Child/Adolescent Development		
Required—only key topic in course title	11	45.8
Required—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	5	20.8
Required—different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi	1	4.2
Optional— only key topic mentioned in course title	1	4.2
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course title	-	-
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	4	16.7
Not mentioned	2	8.3

For the 24 TTPPs at the elementary level, a course mentioning child or adolescent development was generally a course taken by preservice teachers after acceptance into the teacher education program. A course, with child/adolescent development only mentioned as a key topic within the title, was required in 11 of the TTPPs (45.8%). Five of the TTPPs (20.8%) required a course within the program of study that mentioned child/adolescent development as well as other key topics within the title of the course. One TTPP (4.2%) required a course in the program of study that mentioned other key concepts within the title. The key topic of child or adolescent development was mentioned in the course description in the school course catalog/bulletin. For one of the TTPPs (4.2%), an optional course that mentioned child or adolescent development as well as other key topics within the title of the course, was listed in the course catalog/bulletin. In addition, four TTPPs (16.7%) offered an optional course that mentioned other key topics in the title of the course. The key topic of child or adolescent development was included within the course description or in the school catalog/bulletin. Two TTPPs (8.3%) did not offer any course that mentioned child or adolescent development either in the program of study or in the course catalog/bulletin.

Additional Student Motivation Course Content Analysis: Secondary Level

Table 12 displays the results of additional secondary level professional education course content that was reviewed. For the 24 TTPPs, general or introductory psychology, when offered as a course for all students at the college or university, was generally a

course taken prior to acceptance into secondary level teacher education programs.

Within the programs of study reviewed for the 24 TTPPS, 10 (41.7%) required a course with general or introductory psychology as the key topic within the program of study.

One (4.2%) of the TTPPs mentioned a course with general or introductory psychology as well as other topics within the title of the offered course. In addition, 11 TTPPs (45.8%) offered general or introductory psychology as an optional course, and two TTPPs (8.3%) offered the course with other key topics as well as general or introductory psychology in the title.

For the 24 TTPPs, educational psychology was generally a course taken by preservice teachers after acceptance into the teacher education program. Within the programs of study reviewed at the secondary level for the 24 TTPPS, three TTPPS (12.5%) required a course with educational psychology as the key topic within the program of study. In addition, nine TTPPs (37.5%) mentioned a course with educational psychology in the title as an optional course in the course catalog/bulletin. A total of 12 TTPPs (50.0%) were void of any mention in the program of study or the course catalog/bulletin of a course with the title of educational psychology.

Table 12

Additional Secondary Level Professional Education Course Content (N = 24)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
General Psychology		
Required—key topic only in title	10	41.7
Required—key topic and other topic(s) listed in title	1	4.2
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	11	45.8
Optional—key topic only listed in title	-	-
Optional—key topic and other topic(s) in title	2	8.3
Optional—different title/key topic and other topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	-	-
Not mentioned	-	-
Educational Psychology		
Required—key topic only in title	3	12.5
Required—key topic and other topic(s) listed in title	-	-
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	-	-
Optional—only key topic listed in title	9	37.5
Optional—among key topics listed in title	-	-
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	-	-
Not mentioned	12	50.0
Child/Adolescent Development		
Required—key topic only in title	10	41.7
Required—key topic and other topic(s) listed in title	4	16.7
Required—different title/key topic and others topic(s) listed in course description/syllabi	1	4.2
Optional—only key topic listed in title	3	12.5
Optional—among key topics listed in title	4	16.7
Optional—different title/among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi	2	8.3
Not mentioned	-	-

For the 24 TTPPs, a course mentioning child or adolescent development was generally a course taken by preservice teachers after acceptance into the teacher education program. A required course, with child/adolescent development only mentioned as a key topic within the title, was required in 10 of the TTPPs (41.7%). Four

of the TTPPs (16.7%) required a course within the program of study that mentioned child/adolescent development as well as other key topics in the course title. One TTPP (4.2%) required a course in the program of study that mentioned other key concepts in the title. The key topic of child or adolescent development was mentioned within the course description in the school course catalog/bulletin. Three of the TTPPs (12.5%) offered in the course catalog/bulletin were optional courses that mentioned the key topic child or adolescent development only within the title of the course. Four of the TTPPs (16.7%) offered in the course catalog were optional courses that mentioned child or adolescent development as well as other key topics in the course title. In addition, two TTPPs (8.3%) offered an optional course that mentioned other key topics in the title of the course. The key topic of child or adolescent development was included in the course description in the school catalog/bulletin.

Data Analysis for Research Question 4

How do preservice teachers receive “hands-on” experience related to student motivation within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Student Motivation Field Experiences: Elementary Level

For the student motivation variable which called for the implementation of strategies of major motivational theorists, 21 of the TTPPs (95.5%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept. Eight of the TTPPs (36.4%) required documented evidence in the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Six of the

TTPPs (27.3%) required documentation in Internship 1 and Internship 2, and six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required documented evidence during Internship 2 only. One of the TTPPs (4.5%) required the documentation during Internship 1 only. For one of the TTPPs (4.5%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required preservice teachers to implement strategies from major motivational theorists. These data are displayed in Table 13.

For the student motivation component, arousal/boredom and anxiety, 21 of the TTPPs (95.5%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Nine of the TTPPs (40.9%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Nine of the TTPPs (40.9%) required documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required evidence during Internship 2 only. For one of the TTPPs (4.5%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required the preservice teachers to document evidence of successful completion of the student motivation variable, arousal/boredom and anxiety.

For the student motivation component, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, 14 of the TTPPs (63.6%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required

the documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required the evidence during Internship 2 only. For eight of the TTPPs (36.4%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required preservice teachers to document evidence of successful completion of the student motivation variable, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

For the student motivation component, self-efficacy, 15 of the TTPPs (68.2%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Seven of the TTPPs (31.8%) required the documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required the evidence during Internship 2 only. For seven of the TTPPs (31.8%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required preservice teachers to document evidence of successful completion of the student motivation variable, self-efficacy.

For the student motivation component of implementing strategies for low-achieving, hard-to-reach, or uninterested students, 22 of the TTPPs (100.0%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. A total of 13 of the TTPPs (59.1%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed motivating low-achieving, hard-to-reach, or uninterested students during the pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Six of the

TTPPs (27.3%) required documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required the evidence during Internship 2 only.

Table 13

Elementary Level Field Experiences in Professional Education Courses: Student Motivation (N = 22)

Documented Evidence of Field Experiences	Pre, Intern 1 & 2		Intern 1 & 2		Pre & Intern 1		Intern 2 Only		Intern 1 Only		Pre Only		No Evidence		Evidence Required in Minimum of One Field Experience	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Implementation of motivational theories	8	36.4	6	27.3	-	-	6	27.3	1	4.5	-	-	1	4.5	21	95.5
Student arousal and motivation: boredom and anxiety	9	40.9	9	40.9	-	-	3	13.6	-	-	-	-	1	4.5	21	95.5
Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques	2	9.1	6	27.3	-	-	6	27.3	-	-	-	-	8	36.4	14	63.6
Self-efficacy and motivation	2	9.1	7	31.8	-	-	6	27.3	-	-	-	-	7	31.8	15	68.2
Strategies for low- achieving, hard-to-reach, or uninterested students	13	59.1	6	27.3	-	-	3	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	100.0

Student Motivation Field Experiences: Secondary Level

Table 14 displays the results of the analysis of the student motivation descriptors associated with secondary level field experiences offered by the institutions included in the study. For the student motivation descriptor which called for the implementation of strategies of major motivational theorists, 21 of the TTPPs (95.5%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept. Seven of the TTPPs (31.8%) required the documented evidence in the Pre-internship, internship 1, and internship 2. Eight of the TTPPs (36.4%) required documentation in internship 1 and internship 2, and six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required documented evidence during internship 2 only. For one of the TTPPs (4.5%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required the preservice teachers to implement strategies from the major motivational theorists.

For the student motivation component, student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety), 21 of the TTPPs (95.5%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Nine of the TTPPs (40.9%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Eight of the TTPPs (36.4%) required documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required the evidence during Internship 2 only. One of the TTPPs (4.5%) required the documentation during Internship 1 only. For one of the TTPPs

(4.5%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required the preservice teachers to document evidence of successful completion of this motivational concept.

For the student motivation component, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, 14 of the TTPPs (63.6%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required the documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required the evidence during Internship 2 only. For eight of the TTPPs (36.4%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required preservice teachers to document evidence of successful completion of this motivational concept.

For the student motivation component, self-efficacy, 16 of the TTPPs (72.7%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Two of the TTPPs (9.1%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Eight of the TTPPs (36.4%) required the documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required evidence during Internship 2 only. For six of the TTPPs (27.3%), no evidence could be found nor could it be inferred from the information provided that the TTPP required the

preservice teachers to document evidence of successful completion of the student motivation variable, self-efficacy.

For the student motivation component, implementing strategies for low achieving, hard-to-reach, or uninterested students, 22 of the TTPPs (100.0%) required documented evidence of the implementation of this key concept during at least one of the three internships. Thirteen of the TTPPs (59.1%) required documentation of strategies to be implemented that addressed these motivational issues during the Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2. Six of the TTPPs (27.3%) required documentation during Internships 1 and 2, and three of the TTPPs (13.6%) required evidence during Internship 2 only.

Table 14

Secondary Level Field Experiences in Professional Education Courses: Student Motivation (N = 22)

Documented Evidence of Field Experiences	Pre, Intern 1 & 2		Intern 1 & 2		Pre & Intern 1		Intern 2 Only		Intern 1 Only		Pre Only		No Evidence		Evidence Required in Minimum of One Field Experience	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Implementation of motivational theories	7	31.8	8	36.4			6	27.3					1	4.5	21	95.5
Student arousal and motivation: boredom and anxiety	9	40.9	8	36.4			3	13.6	1	4.5			1	4.5	21	95.5
Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques	2	9.1	6	27.3			6	27.3					8	36.4	14	63.6
Self-efficacy and motivation	2	9.1	8	36.4			6	27.3					6	27.3	16	72.7
Strategies for low- achieving, hard-to-reach, or uninterested students	13	59.1	6	27.3			3	13.6							22	100.0

Summary

The results of the analysis of data in this research study have been presented in this chapter. The demographic data descriptive of the population and sample selected for the study were described. The results of the data analysis conducted to examine the classroom management and student motivation variables were reported for elementary and secondary programs for each of the four research questions. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the findings, discussion, and recommendations for both policy and practice as well as future research.

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to complete a micro-examination of professional education course content in selected public traditional teacher preparation programs. Professional education course content was examined using institutional websites, university course catalog descriptions, syllabi, and early field experience and internship handbooks from 24 traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPPs). Specifically, the investigation was conducted to discover the depth and breadth of the professional educational course content related to classroom management and student motivation and to determine if knowledge voids existed within the course work with regard to classroom management and student motivation as previously suggested (Gratch, 1998a; Helton, 2007; Veenman, 1984).

This chapter has been organized to include: (a) a summary of the findings, (b) discussion, (c) recommendations for policy and practice, and (d) recommendations for future research.

Summary of Findings

Research Question 1

What course content related to classroom management do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Elementary Level

Of the 24 traditional teacher preparation programs (TTPPs) reviewed in this study, 21 (87.5%) of the institutions required their preservice teachers to take a professional education course that had classroom management either as the only focus in the course title (4, 16.7%), the key topic along with other topics mentioned in the course title (5, 20.8%) or had a different title, but was a topic mentioned along with other topics in the course description/syllabi (12, 50.0%). Two institutions offered optional courses (2, 8.3%). For one (4.2%) institution, no reference could be found to the term, classroom management, in any required or optional professional education course offered to preservice teachers.

Six of the 24 TTPPs (25.0%) required a second course that had a different title but addressed the key concept of classroom management along with other key concepts within the course descriptions. An even smaller number, two of the 24 TTPPs (8.3%), provided their preservice teachers with a third required course that was inclusive of the key concept of classroom management within the course description.

Secondary Level

At the secondary level, 18 of the 24 TTPPs (75.0%) required their preservice teachers to take a professional education course that had classroom management either as the only focus in the course title (3, 12.5%), the key topic along with other topics mentioned in the course title (5, 20.8%) or had a different title, but was a topic mentioned along with other topics in the course description/syllabi (10, 41.7%). Four (16.7%) institutions offered optional courses. For the two (8.3%) remaining institutions, no reference could be found to the term, classroom management, in any required or optional professional education course offered to preservice teachers.

Seven of the 24 TTPPs (29.2%) required a second course that either had classroom management as a key concept in the title (1, 4.2%) or a different title which addressed the key concept of classroom management along with other key concepts (6, 25%). An even smaller number, five (20.8%) of the 24 TTPPs provided their preservice teachers with a third optional course that had classroom management either as the only focus in the course title (1, 4.2%), the key topic along with other topics mentioned in the course title (2, 8.3%) or had a different title, but was a topic mentioned along with other topics in the course description/syllabi (2, 8.3%).

Research Question 2

To what extent do preservice teachers receive field experience related to classroom management within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Elementary Level

Field experiences related to classroom management were comprised of five areas:

(a) rules and procedures; (b) implementation of strategies; (c) the provision of opportunities for the students to be accountable for their own behavior; (d) the physical arrangement and safety of students; and (e) the development and implementation of a classroom discipline plan. For the TTPP to receive credit for field experience, some form of evidence, e.g., an actual artifact, uploading of documents, portfolios, descriptions in student handbooks, evaluation by cooperating teachers and university supervisors, had to be specified within the course syllabi or handbooks for at least one of the field experiences.

Findings at the elementary level indicated that 18 of the 22 responding institutions required appropriate documentation of successful implementation in at least one of the field experiences or internships 100.0% of the time. In the component, implementation of classroom management strategies and techniques, four (18.2%) of the 22 TTPPs did not require the appropriate documentation of successful implementation.

Field experiences related to rules and procedures received the highest percentage (90.7%) of attention throughout the preservice program, as evidenced by documentation of field experiences in the combined categories addressing (a) Pre-internship, Internship

1, and Internship 2 and (b) Internship 1 and Internship 2. This area was followed closely by provision of opportunities for students to be accountable for their own behavior (86.4%) and physical arrangement and safety (86.3%).

The least attention to field experiences was found in regard to development and implementation of a classroom discipline plan as evidenced by 13 institutions (59.1%) that provided field experience only in Internship 2. The second least attention to field experiences was found for implementation of strategies and techniques as evidenced by nine institutions (40.9%) that provided field experience only in Internship 2.

Secondary Level

Findings at the secondary level for preservice teachers' classroom management field experiences, comprised of the same five areas, were almost identical to those determined at the elementary level. Findings at the secondary level indicated that 18 of the 22 responding institutions required appropriate documentation of successful implementation in at least one of the field experiences or internships 100.0% of the time. In the component, implementation of classroom management strategies and techniques, four (18.2%) of the 22 TTPPs did not require documentation of successful implementation.

Field experiences related to rules and procedures received the highest percentage (90.9%) of attention throughout the preservice program, as evidenced by documentation of field experiences in the combined categories addressing (a) Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2 and (b) Internship 1 and Internship 2. This area was followed closely

by provision of opportunities for students to be accountable for their own behavior (86.4%) and physical arrangement and safety (86.3%).

The least attention to field experiences was found in regard to development and implementation of a classroom discipline plan as evidenced by 13 institutions (59.1%) that provided field experience only in Internship 2. The second least attention to field experiences was found for implementation of strategies and techniques as evidenced by 10 institutions (45.5%) that provided field experience only in Internship 2.

Research Question 3

What course content related to student motivation do preservice teachers receive in professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Elementary Level

Of the 24 TTPPs reviewed in this study, no institutions required their preservice teachers to take a professional education course that had motivation as the only key topic in its title or was mentioned along with other topics in the title. For five institutions (20.8%), a course was required that had a different title but mentioned motivation along with other topics in the course description/syllabi. Fifteen (62.5%) of the TTPPs offered optional courses, seven (29.2%) of which had motivation as the only key topic mentioned in the title, six (25.0%) as the key topic along with other topics mentioned in the title, and two (8.3%) that had a different title but was a topic mentioned along with other topics in the course description/syllabi.

A majority of TTPPs offered optional courses inclusive of the term, motivation, to their preservice teachers at the elementary level. Fifteen of the 24 TTPPs (62.5%) offered optional courses that mentioned motivation in the title, mentioned other key terms and motivation in the title, or mentioned motivation and other key topics within the course descriptions. For one institution (4.2%), no reference could be found to the term, motivation, in any required or optional professional education course offered to preservice teachers.

Seven of the 24 TTPPs (29.2%) required a second course that had a different title but addressed the key concept of motivation along with other key concepts. A total of 14 TTPPs offered an optional course, one (4.2%) of which had motivation as the only key term in the title. The remaining 13 (54.2%) had a different title but mentioned motivation along with other key topics in course descriptions/syllabi.

A third course was offered by 14 TTPPs, one (4.2%) of which was required and 13 (54.2%) were optional. All of these courses, though having different titles, mentioned motivation in the course descriptions/syllabi.

Because motivation is often associated with psychology courses, three psychology courses were also reviewed using the established criteria. Materials were reviewed related to elementary programs for the key terms of general psychology, educational psychology, and child or adolescent development.

In regard to general psychology, nine (37.5%) of the TTPPs required preservice elementary teachers to enroll in a course titled general psychology. An additional 12 of

the 24 TTPPs (50.0%) offered an optional course with general psychology mentioned as the only topic in the course title.

For educational psychology, only two (8.3%) of the 24 TTPPs required preservice teachers to take a course which had educational psychology as the only key topic within the title. Ten (41.7%) of the 24 TTPPs, however, did offer the preservice teachers an optional course with educational psychology mentioned as the only key topic in the course title. For 12 (50%) of the TTPPs, no course, either required or optional, was offered that mentioned educational psychology within the title or course descriptions/syllabi.

Sixteen of the 24 TTPPs (66.6%) required a course in child/adolescent development. In 11 (45.8%) of the institutions, child or adolescent development was the only key topic within the title, and five (20.8%) required a course that mentioned child or adolescent development as well as other key concepts within the title. Five (20.8%) TTPPs offered optional courses, but two of the TTPPs (8.3%) offered no course, either required or optional, that mentioned child or adolescent development.

Secondary Level

At the secondary level, only six (25%) of the 24 TTPPs required their preservice teachers to take a professional education course, none of which had motivation as the only focus in the course title. One institution (4.2%) offered a course where motivation was a key topic along with other topics mentioned in the course title, and five (20.8%) institutions offered courses with a different title, but with motivation mentioned along

with other topics in the course description/syllabi. A total of 15 institutions offered optional courses where motivation was the only key topic mentioned in the course title (6, 25%), motivation was a key term mentioned with other topics in the course title (5, 20.8%), and motivation was mentioned only along with other topics in the course description/syllabi (4, 16.7%). Three institutions did not mention any courses, required or optional, containing a reference to motivation.

Seven of the 24 TTPPs (29.2%) required a second course that contained references to motivation only in the course description/syllabi. A total of 13 institutions offered optional courses, most of which (11, 45.8%) identified motivation within the course description/syllabi.

A third course was required by only one (4.2%) institution. A total of 11 optional courses were available which contained the term, motivation, either in the title (1, 4.2%) or among key topics mentioned in course description/syllabi (10, 41.7%).

Because motivation is often associated with psychology courses, three psychology courses were also reviewed using the established criteria. Materials were reviewed related to secondary level programs for the key terms of general psychology, educational psychology, and child or adolescent development.

In regard to general psychology, 10 (41.7%) of the TTPPs required preservice secondary teachers to enroll in a course titled general psychology. An additional 11 of the 24 TTPPs (45.8%) offered an optional course with general psychology mentioned as the only topic.

For educational psychology, only three (12.5%) of the 24 TTPPs required secondary level preservice teachers to take a course which had educational psychology as the only key topic within the title. Nine (37.5%) of the 24 TTPPs, however, offered the preservice teachers an optional course with educational psychology mentioned as the only key topic in the course title. For 12 (50.0%) of the TTPPs, no course, either required or optional, was offered that mentioned educational psychology within the title or course descriptions/syllabi.

For child/adolescent development, 15 (62.5%) of the 24 TTPPs required a course with child or adolescent development mentioned as the only key topic within the title (10, 41.7%), a course that mentioned child or adolescent development as well as other key concepts within the title (4, 16.7%) or a course that mentioned the key topic only in the course description/syllabi (1, 4.2%). Nine (37.5%) TTPPs offered only optional courses for their secondary level students.

Research Question 4

How do preservice teachers receive “hands-on” experience related to student motivation within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Elementary Level

Field experiences related to motivation were comprised of five areas: (a) implementation of motivational theories; (b) student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety); (c) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; (d) self-efficacy and motivation; and

(e) the implementation of strategies for low-achieving, hard-to-reach or uninterested students. For the TTPP to receive credit for field experience, some form of evidence, e.g., an actual artifact, uploading of documents, portfolios, descriptions in student handbooks, evaluation by cooperating teachers and university supervisors, had to be specified within the course syllabi or handbooks for at least one of the field experiences.

At the elementary level, for three of the five areas analyzed at least 95% of the TTPPs required documentation from their preservice teachers related to the successful completion of the component during at least one of the field experiences or internships. In regard to strategies for low-achieving, hard-to-reach or uninterested children, all 22 of the TTPPs (100.0%) showed evidence of appropriate documentation of completion. In two other areas, the implementation of motivation theories and student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety), 21 of the 22 TTPPs (95.5%) showed documentation of successful implementation. For intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques, eight (36.4%) of the 22 TTPPs did not require appropriate documentation of implementation. Similarly, seven institutions (31.8%) did not require appropriate documentation of implementation for field experiences related to self-efficacy and motivation.

Field experiences related to strategies for low-achieving, hard-to-reach, or uninterested students received the highest percentage (86.4%) of attention throughout the preservice program, as evidenced by documentation of field experiences in the categories combining (a) Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2 and (b) Internship 1 and Internship 2. The second highest combined percentage (81.8%) was for student arousal

and motivation (boredom and anxiety). Ranking third at 63.7% was implementation of motivational theories.

The least attention to field experiences was found in regard to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques (36.4%) and self-efficacy and motivation (40.9%). In each of these areas, over 25% of programs offered field experiences only in Internship 2, and these were the areas for which there was no evidence of documentation of the experience for approximately one-third of the institutions reviewed.

Secondary Level

Findings at the secondary level for preservice teachers' field experiences related to motivation were similar to those determined at the elementary level and were comprised of the same five areas. At the secondary level, for three of the five areas analyzed, at least 95% of the TTPPs required documentation from their preservice teachers, related to the successful completion of the component during at least one of the field experiences or internships. In regard to strategies for low-achieving, hard-to-reach or uninterested children, all 22 of the TTPPs (100.0%) showed evidence of appropriate documentation of completion. In two other areas, the implementation of motivation theories and student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety), 21 of the 22 TTPPs (95.5%) showed documentation of successful implementation. For intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques, eight (36.4%) of the 22 TTPPs did not require the appropriate documentation of implementation. This was also true in regard to self-efficacy and motivation for six (27.3%) of the TTPPs.

Field experiences related to strategies for low-achieving, hard-to reach, or uninterested students received the highest percentage (86.4%) of attention through the preservice program as evidenced by documentation of field experiences in the combined categories of (a) Pre-internship, Internship 1, and Internship 2 and (b) Internship 1 and Internship 2. Second highest was student arousal and motivation (boredom and anxiety) at 77.3%.

The least attention to field experiences for secondary level students was found in regard to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques and self-efficacy and motivation. In both of these areas, six institutions (27.3%) were found to provide field experiences only in Internship 2. Additionally, for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques, eight (36.4%) of the 22 TTPPs did not require the appropriate documentation of implementation. This was also true in regard to self-efficacy and motivation for six (27.3%) of the TTPPs.

Discussion

Classroom Management

The findings in this study revealed a pattern of infusion of classroom management content into professional education courses. Of the 24 TTPPs reviewed, only three elementary and four secondary programs required a course dedicated to classroom management, as evidenced by course title. Similarly, only four elementary and five secondary programs of the 24 TTPPs required a course that even mentioned classroom

management within its title. For the great majority of programs reviewed, classroom management was a topic that was one of a number of topics mentioned in course descriptions or syllabi. It is acknowledged that approximately one-fourth of the TTPPs offered second and third courses to preservice students at both levels, but in only one instance was classroom management identified as the sole topic of interest in the course.

Classroom management is a critical component of effective teaching if successful student achievement is to occur (Edwards, 2004; Lefrancois, 2000; Marzano et al., 2003; Stronge, 2007). Evertson et al. (1984) further suggested that good classroom management is not something that just happens. It exists because effective teachers have provided planned learning environments which are conducive to student learning and achievement that is free from disruption and chronic misbehavior (Wang et al., 1990). Shulman (1987) has suggested that teachers should be able to move from personally comprehending material to being able to prepare others to comprehend the material.

In order to do this, teachers must have received adequate preparation including a working comprehension of effective student classroom management techniques (Oliver & Reschley, 2007). Without these tools available for their immediate, split-second use, teachers' actions are less than effective within the classroom (Ingersoll & Kinman, 2002; Lefrancois, 2000; Shulman, 1987). According to Toh et al. (2003), it is only when teachers understand something well that they can teach it to someone else. It is when teachers have not been adequately prepared, and have not developed their classroom management skills, that they will be less than effective in the classroom (Marzano et al., 2003).

Motivation

The findings in this study also revealed a pattern of infusion of motivation into professional education courses. Of the 24 TTPPs reviewed, no elementary or secondary program required a course dedicated to motivation, as evidenced by course title, and only five elementary courses required a course that even mentioned motivation within its title. For the great majority of programs reviewed, motivation was one of a number of topics mentioned in course descriptions or syllabi. Though it is acknowledged that almost all of the TTPPs offered second and third courses to preservice students at both levels, those offerings were almost exclusively optional, permitting students a choice in regard to a course which addressed motivation to some extent.

The ability to motivate students is a skill that is as important, if not more so, than the classroom management skill, as the ability to motivate students can resolve classroom management issues before they become problems. Thus, many of the same discussion points can be made in regard to the importance of preservice teachers receiving sufficient preparation during their preservice programs through course work and field experiences. Beyond this, however, a number of researchers have emphasized the importance of developing in teachers the ability to motivate students.

Lefrancois (2000) indicated that expert teachers need to be aware of the stable characteristics of learners and therefore suggested, "Among the most useful of your beliefs as a teacher are those that relate to how students change, how they learn, what motivates, reinforces, and punishes them, and what is interesting and important to them" (p. 7). . Motivation has long been a common denominator among all psychological

theories, dealing with the “whys” of behavior: why a person eats, why a child is driven to learn math but not reading, or why adolescents claim no one understands them.

Though Jehlen (2007) suggested that motivation is a dilemma that teachers have been facing “since time immemorial” (p. 1), it presents a special challenge for new teachers who must be able to access, at a moment’s notice, the necessary tools to motivate students into learning what is presented.

Voltz et al. (2010) likened managing a classroom and motivating students effectively to conducting an orchestra: “Conductors possess a keen awareness of all the instruments, sounds, and players while simultaneously attending to the quality of the total musical output” (p. 47). They further added that effective teachers must assume total awareness of the students’ characteristics and needs in order for the learning to take place and that “In the absence of a supportive environment, learning cannot occur” (p. 48). Students who are unmotivated will be less engaged in their work and will learn less than those who are excited about and motivated to participate in the instruction being presented (Sprick, 2006).

Teachers and researchers have had multitudes of information presented to them on the pedagogy of teaching (McKeachie, 1974). Yet, how to effectively integrate motivation into a repertoire of teacher behaviors or dealing with specific motivational instructional techniques has received much less attention than other pedagogical strategies (McKeachie). Based on the findings of this study, it would appear that this also holds true for preservice teachers.

Field Experiences

Based on the review of early field experience guidebooks, course syllabi, and teacher education handbooks available to the researcher online, the primary responsibility of elementary and secondary preservice teachers during the Pre-internship was to observe classroom teachers in action in their classrooms. Other responsibilities could include, at the cooperating teacher's discretion, working one-on-one or with small groups of students during their short stays in classrooms. The Internship 1 experience, often referred to as the junior internship, was usually completed in the semester immediately prior to Internship 2 or the senior internship. During the Internship 1 field experiences, preservice teachers were required to work directly with students in the classroom. This was followed by Internship 2 (senior internship) during which time the preservice teachers were expected to gradually assume full teaching duties under the guidance and supervision of cooperating classroom teachers and university supervisors.

Given this sequential progression, it is logical that preservice teachers enrolled in the Pre-internship might be limited by their status as observers and therefore would have little or no opportunity to implement teaching behaviors or to practice specific motivational techniques. Such was the case in this study.

Opportunities for implementation were found, however, in second and third semester internship experiences. This may explain, in part, why almost all of the institutions delayed field experiences related to classroom management (implementation of strategies and techniques and development and implementation of classroom discipline plan) and motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation strategies and self-efficacy and

motivation) until Internship 1, at the earliest, and why close to one-fourth of the institutions did not require the documented evidence during the field experiences in these areas until Internship 2.

Internship 1 typically provides more opportunities for documentation of experiences as students assume increasing responsibility for specific assignments, e.g., working one-on-one and with small groups, creating and teaching mini units to small groups or the whole class. During Internship 2, preservice teachers are often evaluated using a modified version of a practicing teacher's evaluation tool. In addition, the preservice teacher is frequently required to document the completion of a modified version of the individual state's accomplished practices expected of all currently practicing teachers.

Discussion Summary

Programs of study and professional education course content have been reviewed to assess the extent to which classroom management and student motivation, critical factors in teachers' decisions to remain in or leave the profession, have been addressed in 24 elementary and secondary traditional teacher preparation programs. Materials related to field experiences/internships and clinical experiences have also been closely scrutinized to determine the extent to which teacher education students gain real world experience which prepares them for the challenges of 21st century classrooms prior to entering the teaching profession.

Findings in this research indicated that the potential for knowledge voids in classroom management and motivation professional education course content exists for both elementary and secondary preservice teachers within the teacher preparation programs reviewed. These findings are in agreement with those of earlier researchers (Gratch, 1998a; Helton, 2008; Veenman, 1984).

The pattern of infusion that has been revealed in this research indicates that institutions, in addressing classroom management and motivation along with numerous other topics in courses, may not be providing teachers with the essential survival tools beginning teachers need. For preservice teachers, either elementary or secondary, to be successful in developing a solid knowledge base and foundation in these areas, the information must be presented to them in depth. Teachers' beliefs that are inaccurate or missing can lead to ineffective teaching behaviors (Lefrancois, 2000), thereby, increasing the occurrence of inappropriate behaviors of students. It is only when preservice teachers have internalized knowledge that their beliefs can be modified so that they become more adept at making the split-second decisions necessary to effectively and smoothly establish successful student classroom management and provide optimal learning environments that motivate students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). When knowledge is missing or when a knowledge void exists, student classroom management, student motivation and ultimately student learning become major challenges for the fledgling teachers (Darling-Hammond et al.).

When multiple topics are addressed within a single professional education course, there is little assurance that sufficient time will be allocated to any one topic, i.e.,

classroom management or motivation, that will permit the development of the foundation so badly needed by preservice teachers. The practice of infusing multiple topics in one course, regardless of the topics, increases the risk to the preservice teacher of the development of a weak knowledge base and foundation. With infusion, course content, to some extent, is left to chance. Thus, there exists the potential for a knowledge void.

Findings in this study indicated a systematic plan of field experiences in most programs with appropriate documentation required of preservice teachers. A great majority of the programs reviewed required field experiences during a minimum of three different semesters as preparation. Duncan, U.S. Secretary of Education in 2011, suggested that teacher preparation programs should be inclusive of “. . . well-supported field-based experiences embedded throughout their preparation programs” (Duncan, 2009, p. 1). Implementation experiences were documented, for the most part, during student enrollment in Internship 1 and Internship 2. It must be remembered, in considering the extent to which preservice teachers have opportunities to implement skills and behaviors in field experiences, that novice teachers join classrooms with “previously established classroom management plans and basic levels of classroom control already in place” (Oliver & Reschley, 2007, p. 6). Thus, though there may be good reasons for field experiences to be delayed, the acquisition of valuable learning is also delayed as a result.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Based on the findings of this research study, the researcher recommends that public, traditional teacher preparation programs consider amending and requiring programs of study for preservice teachers to include, at minimum, full semester courses on each of the topics of classroom management and motivation. The practice of infusing the content of both areas, classroom management/student motivation, into other professional education course content is a disservice to preservice teachers who believe they are sufficiently prepared once credentialed, only to find that more knowledge and experience are needed. Thus, traditional teacher preparation programs, and their inherent structures, may in fact be setting graduates up for failure, thus contributing to the increased attrition rates of new teachers. The practice of infusing the content of classroom management or student motivation courses with other content creates the potential for knowledge voids. This, in turn, can create gaps in which teachers' knowledge has not reached an operational level that permits them to respond with the essential varied expertise to independently handle complex motivational/classroom management situations. When knowledge voids exist, inexperienced teachers may struggle, and their students may sustain lower achievement. Though there appears to be a fairly standard system and pattern of providing field experiences, the challenges of providing actual hands-on experience relative to classroom management and motivation remain. Institutions are encouraged to continue to look for ways that students can gain more and earlier experiences, particularly in implementing skills and behaviors, throughout their programs.

Another recommendation would be for traditional teacher preparation programs to assume more responsibility for new teachers who have completed their programs and recently entered the profession. Institutions should give thought to ways in which they could strengthen support systems and assist their program completers in their beginning years as teachers. One option might be for university professors to serve as mentors who would work directly with new teachers, thereby affirming to the fledgling, that the university does, in fact, stand by the training they have provided with regard to the professional education course content and field experiences in the program of study. Another alternative might be in the issuance of a “guarantee” which would provide additional training for struggling teachers at no cost to the student or the school district.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. This study was conducted using a small sample of institutions. Future research involving a larger sample of TTPPs could be completed following the same procedures implemented for this study.
2. Additional research could be conducted related to the topics of classroom management and student motivation by surveying program completers to gather their assessments of their preparedness.
3. A longitudinal study could be conducted to follow-up with new teachers after one, three, and five years in regard to their perceptions of their preparedness regarding classroom management and student motivation.

4. This study was conducted by reviewing materials online. Additional data could be gathered directly from personnel at the institutions involved in this study. This would permit further investigation into the effect(s) of infusing content in courses.

APPENDIX A
TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM TOTALS BY STATE

Teacher Preparation Program Totals and Percentages By State
(Including both in state preparation and out of state preparation)

	Teachers Prepared. & Licensed in state		Teachers Prepared out of State & Licensed in state		Total Teachers Licensed for the State	
	<i>Total N</i>	<i>Total %</i>	<i>Total N</i>	<i>Total %</i>	<i>Total N</i>	<i>Grand Total %</i>
Texas	30,257	9.9%	3,758	5.7%	34,015	9.1%
New York	30,122	9.8%	1,901	2.9%	32,023	8.6%
Florida	21,035	6.9%	5,357	8.1%	26,392	7.1%
California	19,387	6.3%	3,933	5.9%	23,320	6.3%
Pennsylvania	14,192	4.6%	1,786	2.7%	15,978	4.3%
North Carolina	12,277	4.0%	6,183	9.3%	18,460	5.0%
Georgia	11,895	3.9%	759	1.1%	12,654	3.4%
New Jersey	10,977	3.6%	1,388	2.1%	12,365	3.3%
Virginia	10,179	3.3%	3,475	5.2%	13,654	3.7%
Illinois	10,157	3.3%	2,964	4.5%	13,121	3.5%
Ohio	8,880	2.9%	925	1.4%	9,805	2.6%
Michigan	7,233	2.4%	577	0.9%	7,810	2.1%
Tennessee	7,052	2.3%	2,759	4.2%	9,811	2.6%
Massachusetts	6,875	2.2%	1,341	2.0%	8,216	2.2%
Arizona	6,852	2.2%	2,607	3.9%	9,459	2.5%
Missouri	6,374	2.1%	1,870	2.8%	8,244	2.2%
Colorado	5,570	1.8%	463	0.7%	6,033	1.6%
Minnesota	5,078	1.7%	2,677	4.0%	7,755	2.1%
Nevada	4,909	1.6%	N/A		4,909	1.3%
Indiana	4,865	2.9%	475	0.7%	5,340	1.4%
Oklahoma	4,596	1.5%	337	0.5%	4,933	1.3%
Alabama	4,096	1.3%	868	1.3%	4,964	1.3%
Wisconsin	4,055	1.3%	1,211	1.8%	5,266	1.4%
Maryland	4,003	1.3%	2,769	4.2%	6,772	1.8%
Washington	3,792	1.2%	1,388	2.1%	5,180	1.4%
Iowa	3,237	1.1%	413	0.6%	3,650	1.0%
Louisiana	3,098	1.0%	867	1.3%	3,965	1.1%
Connecticut	2,976	1.0%	969	1.5%	3,945	1.1%
Puerto Rico	2,943	1.0%	42	0.1%	2,985	0.8%
Utah	2,920	1.0%	536	0.8%	3,456	0.9%
Kansas	2,909	0.9%	983	1.5%	3,892	1.0%
Mississippi	2,805	0.9%	610	0.9%	3,415	0.9%
Oregon	2,743	0.9%	834	1.3%	3,577	1.0%
South Carolina	2,296	0.7%	220	0.3%	2,516	0.7%

Kentucky	2,230	0.7%	335	0.5%	2,565	0.7%
New Mexico	2,172	0.7%	1,901	2.9%	4,073	1.1%
Idaho	2,009	0.7%	859	1.3%	2,868	0.8%
Arkansas	1,959	0.6%	143	0.2%	2,102	0.6%
West Virginia	1,897	0.6%	599	0.9%	2,496	0.7%
Nebraska	1,870	0.6%	412	0.6%	2,282	0.6%
New Hampshire	1,725	0.6%	693	1.0%	2,418	0.6%
Rhode Island	1,267	0.4%	362	0.5%	1,629	0.4%
Montana	1,266	0.4%	538	0.8%	1,804	0.5%
Delaware	1,191	0.4%	479	0.7%	1,670	0.4%
Maine	1,155	0.4%	122	0.2%	1,277	0.3%
Alaska	1,056	0.3%	811	1.2%	1,867	0.5%
District of Columbia	1,021	0.3%	487	0.7%	1,508	0.4%
Hawaii	975	0.3%	N/A		975	0.3%
South Dakota	967	0.3%	354	0.5%	1,321	0.4%
Vermont	867	0.3%	N/A		867	0.2%
Wyoming	795	0.3%	570	0.9%	1,365	0.4%
North Dakota	539	0.2%	279	0.4%	818	0.2%
Federated States of Micronesia	454	0.15%	N/A		454	0.1%
American Samoa	138	0.05%	0	0.00%	138	0.04%
Guam	82	0.03%	14	0.02%	96	0.03%
Virgin Islands	73	0.02%	46	0.07%	119	0.03%
Northern Marianas	28	0.01%	0	0.00%	28	0.01%
Marshall Islands	N/A		N/A			
Palau	N/A		N/A			
<hr/>						
Totals—all states	306,371	82.2%	66,249	17.8%	372,620	100.0%
Total—top ten states	170,478	55.6%	31,504	8.5%	201,982	54.2%
Total all other states and territories	135,893	44.4%	34,745	9.3%	170,638	45.8%

*Table 2 data in reference to numbers of teachers completing teacher preparation programs were obtained from the U. S. Department of Education website: <https://title2.ed.gov/default.asp>.

APPENDIX B
STUDY INSTITUTIONS BY STATE

Teacher Preparation Programs Included within the Research Study (24)

Four- Year Schools	City	State	NCATE ^a	Enrollment July 2010 ^b	Degrees 2007-08 ^c	Web Site Addresses
University of Central Florida	Orlando	FL	I&A	45,301	867	http://education.ucf.edu/
Illinois State University	Normal	IL	I&A	18,389	771	http://coe.illinoisstate.edu/
Texas Tech University	Lubbock	TX	I&A	24,236	763	http://www.educ.ttu.edu/
Pennsylvania (Penn) State University	University Park	PA	I&A	37,855	694	http://www.ed.psu.edu/educ/
East Carolina University	Greenville	NC	I&A	20,571	649	http://www.ecu.edu/cs-educ/
Eastern Illinois University	Charleston	IL	I&A	10,225	602	http://www.eiu.edu/ceps/
University of South Florida	Tampa	FL	I&A	30,536	542	http://www.coedu.usf.edu/main/index.html
Florida State University	Tallahassee	FL	I&A	30,803	540	http://www.coe.fsu.edu/
West Chester University	West Chester	PA	I&A	11,920	535	http://www.wcupa.edu/_ACADEMICS/CoEd/
State University of New York at Cortland	Cortland	NY	I&A	6,258	526	http://www2.cortland.edu/teacher-education/index.dot
Kennesaw State University	Kennesaw	GA	I&A	20,304	523	https://education.kennesaw.edu/elementaryed/
Buffalo State College	Buffalo	NY	I&A*	8,780	451	http://www.buffalostate.edu/schoolofeducation/
Kutztown University of Pennsylvania	Kutztown	PA	I&A	9,614	439	http://www.kutztown.edu/academics/education/index.aspx
University of Georgia	Athens	GA	I&A	26,142	426	http://www.coe.uga.edu/
Appalachian State University	Boone	NC	I&A	14,872	413	http://www.ced.appstate.edu/
Rowan University	Glassboro	NJ	I&A	9,665	404	http://www.rowan.edu/colleges/education/
State University of New York at Oswego	Oswego	NY	I&A	7,200	394	http://www.oswego.edu/academics/colleges and departments/education.html
Montclair State University	Montclair	NJ	I&A	14,139	380	http://cehs.montclair.edu/undergrad/
The College of New Jersey	Ewing	NJ	A	6,237	362	http://www.tcnj.edu/~educat/
Southern Illinois University at Carbondale	Carbondale	IL	I&A	15,551	334	http://web.coehs.siu.edu/Public/
University of North Carolina at Greensboro	Greensboro	NC	I&A	14,638	328	http://www.uncg.edu/soe/
Sam Houston State University	Huntsville	TX	I&A	14,569	298	http://www.shsu.edu/~edu_www/
Georgia Southern University	Statesboro	GA	I&A	16,486	297	http://coe.georgiasouthern.edu/
University of Texas at Arlington	Arlington	TX	I&A	21,370	260	http://www.uta.edu/coehp/

Alternates—One For Each State:

Each state has one alternative to be included if a TTPP for a particular state becomes ineligible for inclusion within the study.

Florida Atlantic University	Boca Raton	FL	I&A	22,308	487	http://www.coe.fau.edu/default.aspx
University of West Georgia	Carrollton	GA	I&A	9,622	225	http://www.westga.edu/coe/
Northern Illinois University	DeKalb	IL	I&A	18,277	239	http://www.cedu.niu.edu/index.shtml
University of North Carolina at Wilmington	Wilmington	NC	I&A	11,197	270	http://uncw.edu/ed/index.html
Kean University	Union	NJ	I&A	12,072	345	http://www.kean.edu/KU/College-of-Education
State University of New York at Fredonia	Fredonia	NY	I&A	5,374	337	http://www.fredonia.edu/coe/
Millersville University of Pennsylvania	Millersville	PA	I&A	7,359	436	http://www.millersville.edu/academics/educ/education/index.php
University of Houston	Houston	TX	I&A	29,298	258	http://www.coe.uh.edu/

Sources of Data:

^aNCATE data were retrieved from <http://www.ncate.org/>

^bTotal Students Enrolled: July 2010 data were obtained from *U.S. News and World Report Ultimate College Guide (2010)* 2011 edition.

^cDegrees in Education: 2007-08 data were obtained from the Professional Education Data System (PEDS) report for the 2007-08 school year (most recent).

APPENDIX C
CONTENT ANALYSIS REVIEW FORM

ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION COURSE CONTENT
(SECTIONS IA-1E)

IA	Name of higher education institution:			IB	Research # Assigned:					
	Name of teacher prep program:				Setting:		S	M	L	
					Geographic Location:		NE	S		
	State or territory of location:				Title II School:		Yes	No		
	Total student population:				NCATE Accredited:		Yes	No		
	Total teacher education BS degrees:									
IC	Course catalog available online:		Yes	No	Phone:					
	Program of study available online:		Yes	No	FAX:					
	Address:				Email:					
<i>1D --Review plan of study for elementary programs</i>										
	Courses listed with following key words?	Course #	Course Name			# Credit / hours	Required	Optional	Not in Program of study or catalog	SPSS Code*
1.	General psychology									
2.	Educational psychology									
3.	Child/adolesc. development									
4.	Classroom management 1									
5.	Classroom management 2									
6.	Classroom management 3									
7.	Student motivation 1									
8.	Student motivation 2									
9.	Student motivation 3									

<i>1E --Review plan of study for secondary programs</i>								
	Courses listed with following key words?	Course #	Course Name	# Credit / hours	Required	Optional	Not in Program of study or catalog	SPSS Code*
1.	General psychology							
2.	Educational psychology							
3.	Child/adolesc. development							
4.	Classroom management 1							
5.	Classroom management 2							
6.	Classroom management 3							
7.	Student motivation 1							
8.	Student motivation 2							
9.	Student motivation 3							

***SPSS Codes**

- 1= Not mentioned
- 2= Optional—Different title/key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi
- 3= Optional—Key topic and other topic(s) in title
- 4= Optional—Key topic only mentioned in title
- 5= Required—Different title/key topic and others topic(s) mentioned in course description/syllabi
- 6= Required—Key topic and other topic(s) mentioned in title
- 7= Required—Key topic only in title

Section 2A: Classroom Management—Course Syllabi and Internship Handbook Review

Name of higher education institute:		Research # assigned:
State:	Elementary or Secondary (Circle one)	

Research Question 2: To what extent do preservice teachers receive field experience related to classroom management within professional education courses in selected teacher preparation programs?

Scoring Guidelines

PRE=	Evidence of topic(s) implemented/used in field experience during pre-internship
INT1=	Evidence of topic(s) implemented/used in field experience during internship 1
INT2=	Evidence of topic(s) implemented/used in field experience during internship 2

		PRE	INT1	INT2	SPSS Code
1	Rules and procedures: (includes but not limited to): General classroom behavior expectations; Beginning/ending day or period; Transitions/interruptions; Use of materials; Group/seatwork; Teacher-led activities				
2	Classroom management strategies/ techniques: (can be implied or inferred that one or more of the following are implemented): Assertive Discipline (Canter); Reality Therapy/Choice Theory (Glasser); Logical Consequences (Dreikurs) Positive Classroom Management (Jones); School-Wide Positive Behavior Support; Response to Intervention: Behavior				
3	Providing students opportunities to be accountable for their own behavior: (can include varying activities such as): Accommodating different students' learning needs Recognizing/acting on the different developmental levels of students				
4	Evidencing the importance of physical arrangement and safety concerns within the classroom: Establish routines to ensure smooth transitions between activities Monitor learning activities and behaviors for understanding off-task behaviors Demonstrate general classroom awareness (with-it-ness)				
5	Working with the cooperating teacher to develop and implement a discipline plan during the internship.				

Section 2B: Student Motivation—Course Syllabi and Internship Handbook Review

Name of higher education institute:		Research # assigned:
State:	Elementary or Secondary (Circle one)	

Research Question 4: How do preservice teachers receive “hands-on” experience related to student motivation within professional education courses in selected traditional teacher preparation programs?

Scoring Guidelines

PRE=	Evidence of topic(s) implemented/used in field experience during pre-internship
INT1=	Evidence of topic(s) implemented/used in field experience during internship 1
INT2=	Evidence of topic(s) implemented/used in field experience during internship 2

		PRE	INT1	INT2	SPSS Code
1	<i>Motivational theories (including but not limited to):</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioral View including reinforcement and praise; • Humanistic View including basic needs and meta needs; • Attribution theories including discovering the underlying causes for individuals own behavior; • Cognitive views including achievement motivation; • The social perspective including the need for affiliation or relatedness as it relates to learning; 				
2	Student arousal and motivation: boredom and anxiety				
3	Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation				
4	Self-efficacy and motivation				
5	Strategies for reaching low-achieving, hard to reach, or students who are uninterested in learning				

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