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Kindergarten Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices and Their Implications on Students' Social and Academic Outcomes

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KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS' CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT BELIEFS AND

PRACTICES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS ON STUDENTS' SOCIAL AND

ACADEMIC OUTCOMES

by

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ABSTRACT

KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS' CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT BELIEFS AND PRACTICES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS ON STUDENTS' SOCIAL AND ACADEMIC OUTCOMES

Lauren D. Florin
Old Dominion University, 2011
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The purpose of this study was to utilize Baumrind's parenting style construct, with early childhood educators, as classroom management styles by assessing the proportion of classroom management styles of Virginia Association of Early Childhood Education (VAECE) educators, and secondly to assess classroom management beliefs and practices of among urban kindergarten teachers in addition to examining whether those differing classroom management styles impacted students' social and academic skills. The study investigated the proportion of classroom management styles of VAECE educators using an online questionnaire and used a case study approach with nine kindergarten teachers to better understand the teachers' classroom management beliefs and practices with interviews, self-report questionnaires, and observations. Students' academic skills were measured using standardized literacy assessment scores and social skills using teacher reports. Results revealed that all educators reported themselves to be authoritative using the online questionnaire. Furthermore, the case study teachers also all reported themselves to be authoritative in the interview and the questionnaire; however, observations revealed seven teachers to be authoritative, one to be authoritarian, and one to be negative directive, a newly created style. Overall, the teachers understood their classroom management strategies and where they originated from, and believed their styles to positively impact both their students' social and academic skills, regardless of

the style they utilized. The classroom management styles did not show any statistical significance regarding student outcomes; however, ranking the teachers based on their students' academic and social skills did reveal authoritative teachers to have students' with higher social skills but not academic skills. This study helped create a bridge in the literature for the use of Baumrind's parenting styles to be used with early childhood teachers as classroom management styles. Since Baumrind's parenting styles have been studied for over forty years and are a foundation in the parenting literature, being able to understand them from a teaching standpoint may help answer critical questions regarding the impact of teachers on students.

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Karen, who has always been
there for me with unending love, encouragement, and support. Thank you for everything.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Problem statement. Historically, teachers cite student misbehavior and classroom discipline as one of the top problems in the classroom (Bibou-Nakou, Kiosseoglou, & Stogiannidou, 2000; Merrett & Wheldall, 1993; Veenman, 1984), as well as one of the top reasons why they leave the profession (Hardy, 1999; Harrell, 2004; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Problems with student behavior often stem from issues related to classroom management which teachers continually reveal to be a major concern (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Meinick & Meister, 2008; Henson, 2001; Sugai & Hormer 2002); however, classroom management is not simply managing the behavior of students with rewards and punishments, but rather it encompasses a variety of practices that are essential to teaching. These practices include developing relationships with students, creating a respectful classroom community amongst the students, organizing interesting lessons around a meaningful curriculum, and teaching moral development and citizenship (LePage, Darling-Hammond, & Akar, 2005).

To be a proficient classroom manager, a teacher must maintain order while effectively teaching content. This balance can be hard for both new and experienced teachers, and if classroom management is done poorly, it can lead to student misbehaviors which interfere with both teaching and learning (Friedman, 2006).

The specific classroom management strategies teachers use have a significant impact on children's behaviors; since teachers usually use the strategies that work for

them, their classroom management style is comprised of the naturally occurring patterns of practices they use in the classroom. One aspect of classroom management, and the one most commonly thought of, is controlling unwanted behaviors. To do this, punishment is commonly used because it immediately stops the behavior (Brophy & McCaslin, 1992; Gershoff, 2002). However, research also reveals that punishment does not stop unwanted behavior in the long term (Bear, 1998). In general, punishment results in three possible outcomes: calculation of risks, blind obedience, and revolt (Kamii, 2000). It continues to be used because it is perceived to be effective due to the fact that it immediately suppresses the unwanted behavior and it is what teachers and parents know and understand. The problem is that it does not help change the child's behavior in future situations and may even exacerbate the unwanted behavior (Cameron, 2006). Longitudinal research has revealed that teachers who utilize a more authoritative and proactive classroom management style, rather than attempting to control negative behaviors through coercive means such as punishment, have students who are more committed to school, more academically engaged, and have better achievement (Solomon, Battistich, Watson, Schaps, & Lewis, 2000).

Parenting styles. The way in which teachers manage the students in their classroom can be compared to the styles in which parents raise their children. Research comparing both parenting and teaching shows similar strategies lead to similar child outcomes. However, researchers usually do not use one framework to attempt to understand the practices of both. In regards to parenting, research has clearly revealed the impacts of parenting style on child behavioral and academic outcomes and have found some consistent results when using Baumrind's (1966, 1967, 1971, 1989, 1991,

2010) parenting style framework. Her framework consists of three main styles: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. Each of these styles is comprised of its own set of practices and influences children and adolescents in unique ways.

The authoritarian style consists of parents who are highly demanding and directive, but not responsive. These parents expect children to be obedient and provide structured environments with clearly stated rules. However, they do not give explanations and reasons behind their directives and use punishment when children fail to follow rules and parental requests. Overall, children who have been raised with authoritarian parents are more likely than others to be discontent, withdrawn, and distrustful. Moreover, as adolescents they exhibit aggressive tendencies in boys and a lack of independence in girls (Baumrind, 1966, 1971, 1991; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991).

The authoritative style consists of parents who are both demanding and responsive. These parents typically demand mature, responsible, and independent behavior from their children, but explain their reasoning behind their rules or discipline. The disciplinary methods used by these parents are more supportive than punitive, in that parents may rely on positive reinforcement more than punishment in an attempt to control their children's behavior. Children who are raised in homes with authoritative parents usually are the most self-confident, self-controlled, self-reliant, and explorative. As adolescents, they are more achievement oriented, cooperative, and have high self-control (Baumrind, 1966, 1971, 1991; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991).

Parents utilizing the permissive parenting style are responsive but not demanding. These parents are lenient, do not require mature behavior, and avoid confrontation in an

attempt to provide their children as much control and freedom as possible and allow their children to self-regulate their own behavior. Children and adolescents from these homes are the least-controlled, self-reliant, and have poor academic outcomes (Baumrind, 1966, 1971, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991).

Baumrind's framework has consistently been used for over 40 years to examine the implications of parenting style on the outcomes of children and adolescents. However, it just recently began to be used with middle school teachers to assess their classroom management styles in an attempt to examine teaching styles in a similar fashion as parenting styles (Walker, 2008). This study is the only known published empirical study that directly assesses teaching style based on Baumrind's parenting style classification.

Walker compared students of three middle school teachers who each had a different teaching style (authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive) but similar mastery and performance goal practices. When interviewed, Walker found that the teachers had some understanding of their style, but did not really understand the implications of the style. The study revealed that their teaching style did clearly impact the students. In the beginning of the study, which was also the beginning of the semester, there were no differences between the students on any study variable, but by the end of the semester there were clear differences. Students in the authoritative class had higher academic self-efficacy compared to students from the authoritarian class, and higher academic gains and social self-efficacy compared to students from the permissive class. Overall, style influenced the effectiveness of the teacher practices (mastery and performance), as well as influencing how the students perceived and internalized those practices. This study

supports the assumption that parenting and teaching styles operate in similar fashions (Walker, 2008).

Authoritative teaching. Other studies have evaluated the impact of teaching and classroom management styles on students' social and academic outcomes but have not used Baumrind's framework. Most studies have compared teachers who possess and utilize authoritative characteristics and practices to those who do not. These studies have revealed similar results to those assessing parenting styles using Baumrind's classification (Baumrind, Larzelere, and Owens, 2010; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Lamborn et al., 1991; Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn, 2007; Simons and Conger, 2007; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1992; Williams et al. 2009) and have shown that authoritative teaching seems to be linked to positive behavioral, social, and academic outcomes in adolescents (Kuntsche, Gmel, and Rehm, 2006; Wentzel, 2002).

Wentzel found that teaching style influenced student outcomes even after controlling for demographics. She assessed teachers based on Baumrind's parenting dimensions of nurturance, democratic communication, maturity demands, and control, and evaluated whether those dimensions impacted student adjustment to middle school. Self-report student questionnaires were used to measure student motivation as well as the teaching dimensions of teachers. Results revealed that the five teaching dimensions accounted for significant amounts of variance in the students' motivation, behavior, and academic performance, even after controlling for demographics. Specifically, high expectations (maturity demands) of teachers positively predicted classroom grades. Additionally, negative feedback (lack of nurturance) was a consistent negative predictor

of prosocial behavior and classroom grades as well as a consistent positive predictor of irresponsible behavior (Wentzel, 2002).

While most studies assessing authoritative teaching have focused on adolescents, Baker, Clark, Crowl, & Carlson (2009) found that authoritative teaching also positively impacted elementary school children's school adaptation. Specifically, children had higher academic competence and school satisfaction. Additionally, results from an evaluation of the Incredible Years Program, a program designed to teach social and emotional skills in preschool students as well as helping promote authoritative teaching, revealed that intervention teachers became more authoritative in nature by using more positive classroom management strategies. Consequently, those students showed more emotional self-regulation and social competence and fewer conduct problems than the control students (Webstrer-Stratton, Reid, and Stoolmiller, 2008).

Social and emotional skills. When studying young children, researchers often examine their social and emotional skills, as well as problem behaviors instead of focusing on their academic skills since academic skills are harder to measure with very young children. Interestingly, the components of authoritative teaching as well as the relationships between teachers and students have both revealed their influence on children's social skills. These are important because children's social skills are critical for both their academic and relational success.

Prosocial skills have been shown to be linked through longitudinal studies to early literacy and math achievement (Miles & Stipek, 2006; McClelland, Acock & Morrison, 2006), while children who have difficulties following directions, paying attention, getting along with their peers, and controlling negative emotions like anger, perform lower

academically in school (McClelland, Morrison & Holmes, 2000; McClelland et al., 2006). Furthermore, longitudinal research from first grade to age 16 has revealed that aggressive children who are rejected by their peers early on in school are much more likely to have lower academic achievement, be retained in school, drop out, and be delinquent in adolescence (Jimmerson, Egeland, & Teo, 1999; West, Denton, & Reaney, 2001).

Research conducted by Ladd, Birch, and Buhs (1999) found that children's behavioral orientations (whether they were more prosocial or antisocial) influence their relationships built with peers and teachers, and those relationships impact a child's classroom participation and their achievement level. More specifically, children who act antisocially in class are less accepted by their peers and teachers, participate less in class, and perform more poorly in school compared to their prosocial peers even when children's cognitive skills and family backgrounds are taken into consideration (Ladd et al., 1999). Additionally, longitudinal research conducted on high risk children suggests that children who are exposed to multiple poverty related risk factors are more likely to be less socially competent, have more trouble with their emotional self regulation, and have more behavior problems than their economically advantaged peers in elementary school.

Research clearly reveals the importance of children's social and emotional competence throughout childhood and adolescence. Children who have positive social and emotional skills are more likely to succeed academically and those who have poor social and emotional skills are more likely to perform less well. Due to the importance of

these skills, the question arises as to whether teachers' classroom management styles influence kindergarten children's social skills as well as their academic skills.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the study was twofold. First, to understand the proportion of classroom management styles in members of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators. Secondly, to assess whether kindergarten teachers have an understanding of their classroom management style as well as if their beliefs were similar to their actual classroom management style practices. There was also interest in whether students in classrooms with teachers who utilize different classroom management styles had varying levels of social and academic skills. This study provides a missing link in the academic literature regarding the use of Baumrind's parenting style framework with kindergarten teachers and the impact the classroom management styles have on students' social and academic skills.

Research Questions

There were five research questions, broken up into two groups based on the two parts of the study:

Part one.

1. What is the proportion of authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive teaching styles for members of the Virginia Association for Educators of Young Children (VAECE)?

Part two.

2. How do teachers identify and explain their classroom management style based on their level of education and/or number of years teaching?

  a. Does their level of education influence their classroom management style and impact their understanding of it?

  b. Does their level of teaching experience influence their classroom management style and impact their understanding of it?

3. How do multiple measures of classroom management styles correlate to provide a comprehensive portrait of teachers?

4. How do teachers believe their classroom management style is connected to the development of their students' social and academic skills?

5. How are students' social and academic skills correlated with various classroom management styles?

Hypotheses

There were five hypotheses:

1. Proportionately, there will be more authoritative kindergarten teachers, followed by authoritarian teachers, and finally permissive teachers.

2. Teachers will be aware of their classroom management style, and will be able explain the influences of why they use that style.

  a. Teachers with higher education will have more of an authoritative style and be able to explain their style better than those with lower education.

  b. Teachers with more experience will have a more authoritative style than those teachers with less experience.

3. Teachers will generally see themselves as more authoritative than the observations will reveal.

4. Teachers will believe their classroom management style, regardless of the type they use, will have a positive impact on their students' social skills, but they will not have an understanding of how it will influence their academic skills.

5. Students who have authoritative teachers will have higher levels of social and academic skills than those students whose teachers are permissive or authoritarian.

Delimitations of the Study

The questionnaire was distributed to members of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators (VAECE). This limits the generalizability to only educators who choose to become members of the association. Also, since the questionnaire was self-report, the data may not be completely accurate. Teachers may see themselves to be better classroom managers than they actually are, and therefore their answers are not representative of their actual practices. Additionally, those teachers who chose to respond to the survey may be more comfortable with their classroom management practices than those who chose not to respond, which may have impacted the results.

The case study portion of the study was restricted to only public school kindergarten teachers in an urban school district. This means that all of the teachers were licensed to teach kindergarten. Teachers who are licensed may be very different from those who are unlicensed. Furthermore, those who teach in public schools may be very different from those who teach in private schools. Finally, those who agreed to participate may have better classroom management skills and therefore are more

comfortable being observed and interviewed about the topic than those teachers who chose not to participate.

Due to the fact that there were a small number of participants in the case study portion of the study, the information is not meant to generalize to all public school kindergarten teachers, but rather provide an in depth understanding of the studied kindergarten teachers' beliefs and practices related to their classroom management practices and the effect of those practices on their students' social and academic skills. Since the study was conducted at the end of the school year, and is not longitudinal in nature, the classroom management practices were those that the teachers had practiced all year with their students and probably felt worked the best.

The case study portion of the study has the same issues with the self-report questionnaire that the first part does; however, the participants were not anonymous and so they may have deliberately responded in socially desirable ways to both the questionnaire as well as the questions during the interview. Moreover, they may have acted in more socially desirable ways during the observation. In regards to the students' social skill ratings given by the teachers, teachers may have fundamentally different beliefs and expectations of their students which may have led them to rate the social skills of their students very different from each other when in fact they were not different.

Significance of the Study

Baumrind's parenting styles have helped researchers understand the impact of specific parenting practices on children's social and academic outcomes for over 40 years. While this parenting style construct has recently been examined in the context of teachers, it has only been examined with middle school teachers. This study extends the

research to help understand the classroom management styles of kindergarten teachers and how those styles influence students' social and academic skills. It does so by providing a comprehensive understanding of the classroom management styles by way of self-report questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and observations. Research has continued to confirm that classroom management is an essential component in the classroom. Meta-analyses have revealed that effective classroom management decreases problem behavior in students as well as increases student achievement (Marzano and Marzano, 2003; Wang, Haertel, and Walberg, 1993). This study helps provide a better understanding of how classroom management influences kindergarten children's social and academic outcomes. Additionally, it helps provide further information on kindergarten teachers' beliefs about classroom management and whether they understand the impact that their practices have on their students.

Overview of the Methodology

The present study contained a mixed method design and is broken up into two parts. In the first part, *The Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire* (TSDQ), an adapted version of *The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire* (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, and Hart, 1995), was distributed electronically, via e-mail, to all members of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators (VAECE) to assess their classroom management styles as well as given out at the annual VAECE conference.

The second portion of the study involved a case study in an urban public school district. Nine kindergarten teachers were selected to participate. To recruit participants, the researcher consulted with the school system and a list of authorized elementary schools were given to the researcher. The authorized schools were evenly divided into

three groups, based on the percentage of free and reduced lunch (see Appendix C). Three schools were randomly selected from each group, for a total of nine schools. The principal from each selected school was asked if they were willing to allow the research to take place in their school and were told that one kindergarten teacher was needed, and those that agreed asked their kindergarten teachers if any were willing to participate. One teacher from each school then contacted the researcher with interest to participate in the research. The teacher was given an informed consent document (Appendix A) and a time was arranged for the observation and interview. When a principal declined participation, another school was selected and asked to participate. This process continued until nine teachers agreed to participate.

The teacher was given *The Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire,* in addition to being interviewed about their classroom management style and observed. The observation assessed their actual classroom management style which enabled the data to be triangulated.

Student data was also collected. Teachers were asked to complete *The Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scale* (Elliott & Gresham, 2008) on five randomly selected students from their class to get an understanding of the level of social skills of the students in the class. Additionally, *Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening (PALS)* classroom summary data was obtained to assess student academic level.

Definition of Terms

Parenting style. A psychological construct referring to the manner in which parents utilize specific strategies in regard to the care and upbringing of their children. It consists of "naturally occurring patterns of affect, practices, and values" and it is affected

by the parents' values and beliefs that they hold about their role as a parent as well as the nature of children (Darling and Steinberg, 1993, p. 490). This study will use Baumrind's (1966, 1971) three main parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. These parenting styles are based on the dimensions nurturing/warmth and demandingness/control.

Classroom management style. Based on Baumrind's parenting style construct, the degree to which teachers are nurturing and show warmth to their students as well as how demanding they are and the manner in which they exert control over their students. Examples in the classroom include the manner in which teachers use specific strategies in their classrooms to create and maintain an emotional climate, develop relationships with students, and deal with student behaviors, both positive and negative. The three styles that will be used include authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The influence of parents and teachers on the social and academic outcomes of children and adolescents is critical to understand. Research has shown us that there are a plethora of variables that may possibly affect those outcomes. Many researchers agree that the extent to which adults provide a nurturing and supportive environment that is centered around creating a positive relationship, whether it be at home or in the classroom, significantly impacts the social, emotional, and academic skills and behaviors of children (Baumrind, 1967, 1971; Burchinal, Peisner-Feinberg, Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Hughes, Cavell, & Jackson, 1999; Ladd, Birch, & Buhs, 1999; Pianta, 1999; Pianta & Howes, 2002; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). Additionally, others agree the level of expectations and autonomy that are granted to children and adolescents also have an effect on those outcomes (Baumrind, 1967, 1971; Kaufman et al., 2000; Williams et al., 2009). Both parenting and teaching have been studied to further understand the different dimensions that are exhibited by adults and to assess their influence on children; however, parenting and teaching styles have historically been studied in two different bodies of literature using different lenses through which to investigate their influence.

While it is clear that parents and teachers both impact child outcomes through a variety of means including relationships between the adult and child as well as their expectations for him/her, several questions are raised to extend the search for information regarding the beliefs and practices of parents and teachers in an attempt to comprehend their influence on the outcomes of children and adolescents. How are parenting and

teaching beliefs formed? How influential are these beliefs on the specific behaviors and practices of parents and teachers? Do parenting style and teaching style function in a similar manner and influence children and adolescents in a similar fashion? A systematic review of the literature will attempt to answer these questions, thereby providing the theoretical and research basis for the methodology which will be presented in the next chapter.

This literature review is organized in the following ways. First, the chapter begins by presenting literature that relates to general parent and teacher beliefs, specifically focusing on the origin of those beliefs in addition to a section on classroom management beliefs. Next, there is a discussion about Baumrind's (1967, 1971, 1989) parenting styles that includes a description of the typology in addition to a section describing how parenting styles affect child and adolescent academic and social outcomes. Finally, the chapter explores how teaching/classroom management styles can be linked to Baumrind's parenting style construct and how it influences student outcomes. Each main section will be followed by a concise summary in addition to a summary at the end of the chapter to synthesize all of the information presented and to set the groundwork for the methodological approach presented in chapter three.

Beliefs

Over the last twenty years, there has been a plethora of research conducted that relates to beliefs surrounding both parenting and teaching (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Sigel & McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002). Beliefs are critical to understand because they are the "best indicators of the decisions that individuals make throughout their lives" (Pajares, 1992, p. 307); while others may disagree with Pajares, social psychology

proposes that the strength of the relationship between beliefs and behaviors is influenced by a person's experiences, individual characteristics, and norms of the social group in which he/she is a part of (Ajzen, 2001; Trafimow & Finlay, 2001). Bryan's (2003) review of the literature on beliefs supports Pajares and reports that beliefs support individuals' decisions and judgments as well as drive a person's actions. The problem with beliefs is that they are incredibly complex because they involve multiple psychological constructs including assumptions, understandings, attitudes, and opinions (Bryan, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Sigel & McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 2002). Additionally, they are not easy to measure because they are very context specific which makes them appear more inconsistent than they probably are.

In the literature, beliefs are often compared to knowledge. Bryan (2003) explains that beliefs, although related to knowledge, differ from it in that beliefs do not require a condition of truth. Ernest (1989) suggests that beliefs are more important than knowledge in understanding how individuals make decisions, and Nespor (1987) argues that beliefs are more powerful than knowledge when it comes to behavior because beliefs form as a result of personal and emotional experiences and often over a period a time. Due to the fact that they form over time, they are not easy to change; unless beliefs are proved unsatisfactorily, typically by being challenged and unable to assimilate into the existing belief system, they are unlikely to be replaced. However, this is a rare event because "there is a self-fulfilling prophecy - beliefs influence perceptions that influence behaviors that are consistent with, and that reinforce, the original beliefs" (Pajares, 1992, p. 317). So when they do change it is not typically due to logic since beliefs are not constrained by logic, but rather a "conversion or gestalt shift" (Nespor, 1987, p321).

Parental beliefs. Parental beliefs have been a topic of interest particularly because of how they influence parental behavior and consequently children. While there is controversy over the extent of influence of beliefs on parenting behavior, many agree that beliefs are a key determinant of behavior (Dix & Grusec, 1985; Goodnow & Collins, 1990). There has been little empirical research conducted that relates to the origin and cause of beliefs. Sigel and McGillicuddy-De Lisi (2002) have proposed a dynamic belief system model (see Figure 1) to help in the understanding of parental beliefs and their sources. According to them, "beliefs evolve and the modes of expression are all derived from idiosyncratic and nomothetic cultural experience because everyone is enmeshed in a culture that has shaped the content and the expression of everyone's beliefs" (Sigel and McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002, p.500). The dynamic beliefs system model is an overarching generic, nested model which is situated in the parent-child relationship within the family. Parents' beliefs are formed from their own socialization and acculturation throughout their life; these beliefs include beliefs about themselves, which are then embedded within the family, and then nested in a network of communities (educational, political, social, etc.) and then further nested in the macrosocial context of the world.

Level 1

Domain – Parenting

(worldview)

Level II

Specific parent belief domain

Cognitive   Social-Moral   Interpersonal Skills   Intrapersonal

Level III

Examples of specific beliefs within each Level II domain

Thinking   Honesty   Getting along in   Emotional control
Reasoning   Right from wrong   family, school   Self-awareness
Planning   Ethical   cooperation
                                      Appropriate social
                                      behavior

Level IV

Praxis beliefs

Applicable to any specific belief or constellation of beliefs)

Inquiry strategies, direct instruction, suggestions, etc.

Level V

Modes of expression

Overt actions, e.g., inquiry, discipline, etc.

Figure 1. Dynamic belief system domain. Taken from Sigel and McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002, pg. 502.

Level I is the dynamic belief system as a whole and incorporates all of the beliefs and levels as a worldview. Level II consists of the four main belief domains of parenting and level III contains some examples within each of the domains. Level IV refers to how the beliefs are instantiated and level V refers to how they are expressed. Additionally, according to Sigel and McGillicuddy-De Lisi (2002), every specific belief (level III) includes the eight basic elements listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Eight Basic Elements of Beliefs

Belief component	Description
Constructed knowledge (K)	Beliefs are knowledge based and are constructions of experience. The cognitive processes involved are assimilation and accommodation
Bounded knowledge Domain	Beliefs are organized into categories of knowledge domains, each of which is bounded. The internal coherence of the domains may vary, and the boundaries may vary in permeability.
Absolute/probabilistic nature (A/P)	Beliefs may be held as absolutes or as probabilities
Cultural Tradition (C)	Beliefs serve comparable functions for everyone irrespective of culture, although the content and experiential bases from which beliefs are constructed wihin a cultural milieu are different.
Affect (A)	Beliefs are influenced by affect to varying degrees of intensity and quality of influence
Goals/intentionality (G)	Beliefs are expressed in behaviors that may have one or more goals
Values (V)	Beliefs vary in the degree to which they are valued (i.e. deemed important).
Praxis (P)	There is a subset of beliefs derived from core beliefs as to how and under what conditions to instantiate actions to express core beliefs. These are praxis beliefs about how and in what form beliefs should be enacted. One important category of praxis beliefs is beliefs in one's ability to effectively generate and implement a parenting strategy, as well as other aspects of parenting self-efficacy

Note: This table is taken from Sigel and McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002, pg. 503.

Using this belief system helps explain why individuals who have similar beliefs behave in different ways. Any expression of a behavior (Level V) is the creation of the various components that are merged together to create an action. Thus, each specific belief (Level III) contains its own components which influence the beliefs in varying degrees. For example, a parent may believe that being demanding, setting limits, using logical consequences, and having high expectations, as well as being nurturing, and focusing on their needs and concerns, is the most effective way to parent. That parent may have that set of beliefs due to her knowledge of child development (K) and the way she was culturally raised (C). This has created strong feelings (A) about the belief and influences the belief in the value of parenting in such a way (V) because it will serve her goals for her children (G). Furthermore, she has high self efficacy (SE) and believes that she will be able to implement this type of parenting and has a clear praxis (P).

Therefore, in this example, the overarching belief of good parenting is level I. Level II contains the various domains that are needed to be a good parent, including socio-moral, interpersonal skills, and intrapersonal. Level III contains all of the specific beliefs (mentioned above); these beliefs can be broken down into the domains of level II. Level IV contains how each of these beliefs are to be instantiated (logical consequences will be used when a child breaks a rule), and level V are the actual overt actions taken by the parent (a child must clean up the kitchen floor before watching his favorite TV show when he angrily dumps his cereal on the floor).

Another parent may also have the same belief of parenting due to her knowledge of child development (same K) but may have been raised in a different manner (different C) and so may not have a high self-efficacy (different SE) and therefore a lower belief

and understanding of when to act in certain ways (different P). Although both parents may have the same content belief about how they would like to parent their child, based on the various components and the exact nature of their interaction, those parents may actually behave in different ways. In this example, Level IV and V may be different due to the uncertainty of the parent. She may believe that when a child deliberately does something wrong that he should be punished (Level IV). Therefore, in the previous example, when the child angrily dumps his cereal on the floor, the parent sends the child to his room to think about what he has done and does not allow him to watch his favorite TV show. The system is dynamic because the components are not static in nature; they are constantly being influenced. These components function in a "holistic, dynamic internal interactive system to influence the quality of the mode of expression" (Sigel & McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002, p. 503).

Other recent research conducted on beliefs has focused on specific aspects of the origin of beliefs, specifically the beliefs of parents from different backgrounds and ethnicities. Rubin and his colleagues (1998) have stressed that culture itself is a set of beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that are characteristics of a group of people. The results of his analysis showed that the cultural meaning individuals give to certain events, as well as child behavior, influence the beliefs and parenting practices. Other researchers have supported this idea (Chen et al., 1998).

Chen et al. (1998) studied Canadian and Chinese mothers' beliefs about behavioral inhibition, or social wariness, in children. The Chinese mothers were more accepting of the behavior and not punitive while the Canadian mothers were more likely to reject it and punish the children because of it. The researchers hypothesized that the

differences were due to the prevailing cultural beliefs; the Chinese culture feels that behavioral inhibition is socially competent because it is a result of social restraint whereas the Canadian culture is more focused on autonomy and social assertiveness.

While the previous research examined cultural groups in different countries, it is important to note that different cultural groups within the same country have also been shown to have varying beliefs. Savage and Gauvain (1998) assessed European American and Latino parent's beliefs about cognitive development by asking parents of children aged 5 - 12 at what age they thought the "average" child, as well as their own child, would be able to plan and decide certain activities, participate in general responsibilities, and make decisions about their own personal care. They discovered that the beliefs were consistent with the cultural values for each group in that the Latino parents believed that the children, in general, would be much older compared to the beliefs of the European American parents. This is in line with other research that has supported the view that Latino parents do not expect early attainment of skills which may be due to more of a belief of interdependence. Additionally, among the Latino families, the higher the level of acculturation, the more consistent the beliefs were to the European families. With higher acculturation, parents believed that children should participate in a variety of activities early on and independently.

Cote and Bornstein (2000) also studied acculturation by examining mothers in the United States who were from Japan or South America. They found that the mother's behaviors acculturated quicker than did their beliefs; the mothers reported on their own behavior, but the observations of the mothers with their babies vastly differed.

These studies have revealed that culture does play a significant role in parenting beliefs; interestingly, they also found that the parenting behaviors were not as different across cultures as the beliefs. When analyzing this information from the dynamic belief system model proposed by Sigel and McGillicudy-De Lisi (2002), it begs the question as to what other components in the belief system influenced the behavior of these parents from the various cultures.

Teacher Beliefs. While the dynamic belief system model (Sigel & McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002) was originally designed to understand parenting beliefs, it can actually explain any beliefs. Understanding the beliefs of teachers can easily be analyzed with the dynamic belief system. When looking at the research on the origin of teaching beliefs, researchers have historically focused on three main sources that impact the development of those beliefs prior to the beginning of teachers' careers: 1) personal experiences that include a wide range influences including "beliefs about self and others; perspectives on the relationship of schooling to society; personal, family, and cultural values and attitudes; and the impact of gender, ethnicity, SES, religion, geography, and life events" (Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006, p. 191-192); 2) experiences individuals have in the education system prior to their entry into a teacher education program; 3) and the experience with formal knowledge of teaching that includes foundation and methods courses that individuals take in education programs and the field-experiences they have at the end of their programs.

Each of these sources can be thought of as derived from various components of the dynamic belief system. The personal experiences can be related to all aspects of the dynamic belief system depending on the experiences that are being examined. The

experiences individuals have prior to their entry into a teacher education program can be related to the cultural tradition (C) as well as to the constructed knowledge aspect since these beliefs are constructions of the experience that individuals have while in school. The formal teacher education classes can be linked to both the constructed knowledge domain as well as the bounded knowledge domain since students are learning specific components while in their classes. Finally, the field experiences can be connected to the constructions of knowledge as well as the praxis beliefs, and consequently the self-efficacy, since it is during these experiences that students are actually in the classroom experiencing for themselves what actually does and does not work.

Personal experience. The personal experiences that individuals have are the same for teachers as they are for parents. These include beliefs about the self and others, personal, family, and cultural values and attitudes; as well as the impact of gender, ethnicity, SES, religion, geography, and life events. For more information see the previous section about the origins of beliefs on parents.

Schooling experience. Research suggests that when students enter teacher education programs they not only have a strong system of beliefs about teaching, students, and classroom management, but that these beliefs do not change significantly over the course of their programs (File & Gullo, 2002; Kagan, 1992). Pajares (1992) suggests this is due to the fact that early experiences set the foundation for beliefs which are very resistant to change. "There is a self-fulfilling prophecy, beliefs influence perceptions that influence behaviors that are consistent with, and that reinforce, the original beliefs" (p. 317). Once a belief structure is set, it influences the individuals'

perception and therefore the processing of new info. This is why newly obtained beliefs are the most vulnerable.

In regards to teaching, students have such an established set of beliefs due to the thousands of hours they have spent in the classroom as students. Lortie (1975) explains that this "apprenticeship of observation" influences preservice teachers' beliefs even more than their education classes and field-experience because they are "not powerful enough to alter the cumulative effects of anticipatory socialization during childhood" (Zeichner, 1986 p. 16). Research has shown that many prospective teachers, both Caucasian and minority individuals, often go into teaching because they had a positive experience in school which encourages the continuation of conventional practice rather than a change (Lortie, 1975; McCray et al., 2002); however, minority students have also been shown to go into teaching because of their perception that their early school experience was particularly negative due to their racial status. This influences their beliefs of the "unequal educational opportunities for the poor and minority children, the irrelevance of the existing curriculum and instruction for minority students, and the need to restructure schools and society" (Su, 1997, p. 332). When students have negative experiences, they typically want to teach in a manner completely opposite from what they encountered growing up in school.

Despite the positive or negative association that future teachers have of school, their classroom experiences have influenced their beliefs as to what constitutes a good teacher. For example, in a study conducted to establish what beginning education students believed to be characteristics of an effective teacher, it was found that the most common theme related to pedagogy/classroom management. They believed that teachers

should make learning fun, interesting, take into account the strengths and weaknesses of the students, and are strict yet praise their students (Fajet, Bello, Leftwich, Mesler, & Shaver, 2005). Other research supports this and suggests that student perceptions reveal that a "good" teacher is one who creates positive relationships with students and shows that they are supportive in both their personal and academic lives as well as creates and maintains order in the classroom and provides limits without being too rigid or permissive (Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006).

These beliefs are based on years of experience in the classroom as students and are essential to understand what they believe constitutes a good teacher and the classroom management practices that a good teacher uses. These beliefs can also be understood with Sigel & McGillicudy-DeLisi's (2002) dynamic belief system model. The Level III beliefs relate to the characteristics of a good teacher and are linked to how they manage their classroom which in turn are instantiated in Level IV by the classroom management strategies that these preservice teachers plan to use.

Anderson et al. (1995) explain that individuals who had positive experiences in school over generalize their own experience and assume that the way they learned in school was effective and attribute specific features to their success. Examples include, "I learned this way, so this must be the best way to learn;" "my teachers taught this way and I learned, therefore it must be the best way to teach" (p. 151). The previous research reveals how the classroom experiences that individuals have throughout their lifetime have a strong influence on their beliefs on effective teachers and teaching as well as classroom management. The strength and establishment of these beliefs influences the

extent to which the methods and foundations courses in a teacher education program are able to persuade them.

Formal courses and field experiences. There is conflicting research as to whether methods and foundation courses in teacher education programs really do influence preservice teachers' beliefs. There appears to be a stronger change of beliefs in teaching methodology regarding the sciences and math compared to overall teaching beliefs. The lack of influence is probably due to the fact that individuals come into programs with a strong preexisting set of beliefs, and these beliefs impact learning and act as a filter to either help with learning or detract from it based on whether the new knowledge is compatible with the existing belief framework (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992).

Overall, it has become accepted that these formal teacher education classes probably have a weak impact on the values, beliefs, and attitudes that students bring with them into their teacher education programs. Teacher educators need to understand that education students each come into the program with different experiences and ways of interpreting and understanding information (Toll, Nierstheimer, Lenski, & Kolloff, 2004), therefore, it is critical that teacher educators take each student where he or she is coming from and help guide that student based on his/her preconceived notions to influence his/her beliefs. Another way that teacher educators have helped students change beliefs is through self-reflection. Brownlee, Purdie, and Boulton-Lewis (2001) observed changes in the epistemological beliefs of students in a teacher education program through a year-long program that focused on the reflective process. Students were required to keep a reflective journal throughout the year that asked them to reflect on their own

epistemological beliefs as well as epistemological literature that they were required to read. Those students, compared to the control group, did indeed show more growth in advanced epistemological beliefs and that was attributed to the self reflection process.

Just as there is mixed results regarding teacher education classes, this is also true for field experiences. Some research supports the notion that students do change their beliefs during their field experiences (Graber, 1996; Joram & Gabriele, 1998; Rust, 1994) while others do not (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Tabacbnick & Zeichner, 1984). Interestingly, the studies conducted that show student change often are examining the impact of a specific program on student beliefs, whereas those studies that suggest no change in beliefs often are not examining specific program attributes but rather general student attributes or cooperating teacher/university teacher attributes. For example, Graber (1996) found through interviews with faculty and students, observations, and document analysis that there were nine unique program features found in a program that had been previously shown to have a strong impact on the beliefs of students. The features included: a thematic approach, cohort groups, constant programmatic reinforcement, professional development courses, professional conduct expectations, progressive and compatible internships, awareness of studentship, faculty consensus, and political involvement.

Similarly, Joram and Gabriele (1998) found that when instruction was specifically targeted at preservice teachers' prior beliefs that instruction had a significant impact on the beliefs of the students. They had students in an educational psychology class complete open-ended questionnaires at the beginning and end of the semester. The professor used the initial questionnaire data to help alter instruction to help modify the

beliefs of the students. Students were asked to define learning and teaching during both pretest and posttest. Additionally, students were asked to explain how their views of learning had changed as a result of the class. The results revealed that 89% reported their views about learning had changed moderately or significantly and 57% reported that their views of teaching had undergone a significant change. Alternatively, some research shows that within individual studies, some of the student teachers changed the beliefs while others did not (McDiarmid, 1990; Nettle, 1998; Smith, 1997).

One possible reason that preservice teachers fail to change their beliefs during their education programs when those beliefs are not directly targeted is because their beliefs filter the knowledge they receive in their education classes as well as the interpretation of their own and others' teaching performances (Johnston, 1992; Kagan, 1992). Additionally, during student teaching, rather than forcing students to examine and evaluate their personal beliefs, the students are often given only positive feedback that reinforces their current beliefs. Kagan (1992) suggests that what students really need is a program to force them to examine their beliefs, scrutinize whether those beliefs are acceptable, and provide them with opportunities to potentially challenge their beliefs and integrate new information into their belief framework.

Beliefs about classroom management. Classroom management beliefs are also critical to examine since classroom management is one of the biggest predictors of student success (Wang, Haertel, & Walbert, 1993). These beliefs, like the others related to teaching, mainly originate from the years of experience in the classroom as students. Students already have formed their opinions about what classroom management practices are the best and the worst before they enter their first teacher education class. Perhaps

this is why much of the research devoted to classroom management beliefs regarding preservice teachers focus on whether or not their beliefs change over the course of their educational studies.

The research conducted on the classroom management of preservice teachers has reported mixed results; some studies indicate that classroom management and discipline beliefs remain unchanged (O'Loughlin, 1991; Tatto, 1996), while others state that they become less idealistic and more authoritarian at the end of their teacher education programs (File & Gullo, 2002; Flores, 2006; Kaya, Lundeen, & Wolfgang, 2010). For example, Kaya et al., (2010) surveyed 220 student teachers at the beginning and end of their full time student teaching semesters and found that students' discipline orientations shifted throughout their student teaching; their beliefs in an assertive discipline model that focuses on rules and consequences increased and their beliefs of a humanistic model that emphasizes relationships and listening decreased.

Other research that focuses on preservice teachers centers on the beliefs about what classroom management is and the best strategies for dealing with students (Jones & Vesilind, 1995; Martin & Baldwin, 1992; Stoughton, 2007; Weinstein, 1998). Student teachers must deal with not only their beliefs but the realization of putting those beliefs into practice, while practicum students mainly deal with how their classroom management beliefs match or conflict with the classrooms that they observe.

For example, Jones and Vesilind (1995) found that at the end of their student teaching experience, student teachers had a conflict between their belief in rules, enforcing those rules, and their desire to create and maintain positive relationships with the students. They understood which behavior management practices worked the best for

them, but had a hard time connecting the various components of their overall classroom management beliefs.

In another study that dealt with the various components of classroom management, Weinstein (1998) surveyed 141 teacher education students regarding caring and order with open-ended and multiple choice questions. She found that overall student teachers believe that management is all about rules and regulating them and not at all about the interpersonal component of caring about students, treating them with respect, and establishing rapport with them. Additionally, when comparing students in differing programs of study (elementary versus secondary) regarding how they explained they would attempt to maintain order in their classrooms, it was found that secondary teachers focused more on using teaching strategies, such as making learning fun, encouraging active participation, and presenting material in a creative way, instead of management strategies, such as creating rules, being consistent, rewarding good behavior, and establishing consequences. Elementary teachers were the opposite in that they focused on management strategies. Interestingly, neither mentioned interpersonal issues, such as establishing rapport with students and treating them with respect. This study clearly shows the classroom management beliefs of student teachers. By having them answer open ended questions, the researchers were able to gather more in-depth information regarding what these student teachers believed to be the best way to manage students.

Another way to gather in-depth information from students is to examine their reflective writing. Stoughton (2007) analyzed students' journals following a practicum experience where they observed elementary school teachers' classroom management styles (Stoughton, 2007). All of the observed teachers used a traditional authoritarian

style where there was an emphasis on order, obedience to authority, and externally enforced control over problem behavior. The results were mixed in regards to how the students felt about the type of behavior management. Some were in favor, some were adamantly opposed, and others were ambivalent. Since the beliefs of these students varied so much, this suggests that there was not a specific type of behavior management style being taught to students. When students are not taught the best ways to deal with classroom management issues, they are left to their own beliefs as to what works for them. This means that they probably will resort to the type of classroom management that they experienced as students (Clement, 2010).

In regards to in-service teachers, most of the research in the last fifteen years involving teachers' classroom management revolves around the Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control Inventory (ABCC) that was developed by Martin, Yin, and Baldwin (1998). The inventory measures people management, instructional management, and behavior management. The instructional management portion deals with issues such as overseeing seatwork and organizing routines. The people management dimension relates to the teacher-student relationship and what teachers believe about their students as individuals. Finally, the behavior management dimension focuses on the proactive strategies teachers make to prevent misbehavior rather than teachers' responses to misbehavior.

These three dimensions combine to measure teachers' classroom management style: non-interventionalist, interventionalist, and interactionalist. These styles are based on Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Wolfgang's (1995) framework that explain teacher beliefs related to child development. The non-interventionalists are the least

controlling and directive, and they believe that "the child has an inner drive that needs to find expression in the real world" (Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2008, p. 11). The interventionalists are on the other end of the spectrum and are the most controlling; they emphasize what the outer environment does to an individual to shape its development. Behavior modification is the basis for this belief system. In the middle are the interactionalists who focus "on what the individual does to modify the external environment, as well as what the environment does to shape the individual" (Martin, Yin, Mayall, 2006, p. 5). These teachers try and find solutions that are satisfactory to both the students and the teacher.

Martin and her colleagues have conducted many studies analyzing a variety of variables on teacher beliefs. Some of these variables include: teacher gender, years of experience, grade level taught (elementary versus secondary), classroom management training, class size, and type of school environment (urban versus rural) (Martin & Shoho, 2000; Martin & Yin, 1997; Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1997; Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2006). One of these studies, comparing the classroom management beliefs of novice teachers (those with less than six years experience) and veteran teachers (those with six or more years experience), found significant differences in instructional management and people management. The experienced teachers were found to be more controlling on the instructional management scale but less controlling on the people management scale. These results indicate that experienced teachers may be more realistic in how to manage their classrooms, while novice teachers may be more naïve causing them to rely on teacher control and survival skills (Martin, Yin, and Mayall, 2006). Some of their other results indicate that rural teachers are more interventionist on

the instructional management scale, while urban teachers are more interventionist on the people management scale (Martin, et al., 1997). The question arises as to whether teachers with those specific classroom management traits are drawn to a specific type of school system or whether the type of school system shapes the teachers' classroom management traits. Additionally, male teachers have been found to be more interventionalist than female teachers (Martin & Yin, 1997).

Summary. The above research provides an overview of beliefs in general, as well as the origins of beliefs for parents and teachers, and more specifically the classroom management beliefs of teachers. In regards to parents, research has typically focused on the cultural impact of beliefs; however, the dynamic belief system (Siegel and McGillicudy-De Lisi, 2002) provides an overarching, comprehensive framework for understanding the many influences, and many facets, of beliefs. This framework can also be used when understanding the beliefs of teachers, and each of the main categories that have been the focus for the origin of teacher beliefs, experiences prior to formal training, foundations and methodology classes, and field experiences, can be understood as part of the dynamic belief system. The research regarding classroom management beliefs is scattered. While the research is broken into the beliefs of inservice versus preservice teachers, there is a variety of components that researchers examine when investigating classroom management beliefs as well as a variety of beliefs in both preservice and inservice teachers.

This research clearly shows that while we do have some understanding of parent and teacher beliefs, there is still much that is not understood. One hole in the literature is research regarding where individuals believe their parenting and teaching beliefs

originate. Despite the conflicting research regarding the extent of influence that beliefs have on behaviors, most agree that they do impact the behavior of parents and teachers in some manner; and it is the way in which parents and teachers behave that creates their parenting/teaching style.

Parenting Styles

Parenting style is a psychological construct referring to the manner in which parents utilize specific strategies in regard to the care and upbringing of their children. The style is comprised of "naturally occurring patterns of affect, practices, and values" and it is affected by the parents' values and beliefs they hold about their role as a parent as well as the nature of children (Darling and Steinberg, 1993, p. 490). Researchers have been interested in studying child socialization and parenting styles since the 1930s, however, it is Baumrind's (1966) classification system that is the most widely known and studied.

In the 1960s, Baumrind (1966, 1967) started observing preschool children and comparing their varying behaviors; this led her to analyze the various styles of parenting. She was specifically interested in whether children who were assertive, self-controlled, and self-reliant had parents with different characteristics compared to children who were withdrawn, distrustful, and discontented, and children who had little self-control and self-reliance and who shied away from new experiences. She observed the children for three to five months at a university preschool and in laboratory settings and conducted home visits, structured observations, and interviews with the parents to determine their behaviors and attitudes. She came to realize that each of the three groups of children had parents with different characteristics. Those children who were the most assertive, self-

controlled, and self-reliant had parents who were controlling and demanding but also loving and communicative. The children who were withdrawn, distrustful, and discontented had parents who were controlling and detached. Finally, the children who were the least self-controlled and self-reliant had parents who were non-controlling, non-demanding, and relatively warm (Baumrind, 1967). The parenting groups were respectively labeled authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive.

Baumrind (1971) conducted another study to help better understand the parent-child relationship by further differentiating patterns of parental authority and assessing their impact on the behavior of preschool children. Subjects for the study were from 13 nursery schools and included 60 Caucasian girls, 74 Caucasian boys, and their respective families. This study was similar to the previous ones in that children were observed for several months in their nursery school classrooms; and the parent data was obtained through two home observations and a parent interview. In contrast to the previous studies, this one also had a self-report parent questionnaire, the Parent Attitude Inquiry, which was used to assess a separate measure of parent values. Additionally, the design of this study differed in that it was assessing pattern membership of the parents. The pattern membership was defined by cluster scores that measured parent attitude and behaviors rather than child behavior.

The child rating tool, the Preschool Behavior Q-sort, measures interpersonal behavior and achievement-oriented behavior. A two-dimensional, eight cluster model of child behavior was used. The clusters included: hostile-friendly, resistive-cooperative, domineering-tractable, dominant-submissive, purposive-aimless, achievement oriented-not achievement oriented, and independent-suggestible.

The results revealed that authoritative parents were more likely to have children who were responsible and independent while authoritarian parents were more likely to have girls who had a lack of independence and boys who had a lack of social responsibility.

Baumrind continued to study preschool children, and later adolescents, and their parents to fully understand parent socialization practices, or parenting styles, and their impact on the children (Baumrind, 1971, 1989, 1991). Maccoby and Martin (1983) analyzed the parenting styles in a review of the literature and broke them down into two dimensions: responsiveness and demandingness. Responsiveness refers to being warm and caring as well as providing and responding to the child's needs. Demandingness refers having strict control and high expectations as well as providing needed support for maturity demands. Additionally, they conceptually added a fourth parenting style, neglectful, to the framework. Neglectful refers to parents who are low in both responsiveness and demandingness. These two dimensions can explain each of the parenting styles, as seen in Figure 2.

High Demandingness/Control

Authoritarian High demanding low nurturance	Authoritative High demanding high nurturance
Neglectful Low demanding low nurturance	Permissive Low demanding moderate-high nurturance

High nurturance/control
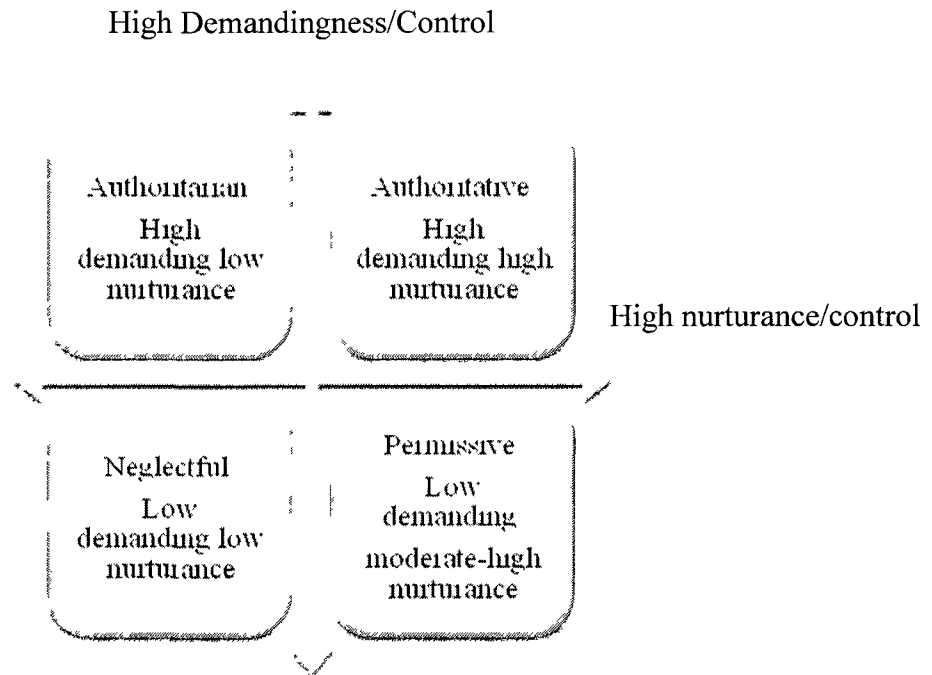
Figure 2. Baumrind's parenting style breakdown using the Maccoby and Martin (1983)

dimensions.

Baumrind incorporated Maccoby and Martin's (1983) dimensions and further developed them. For example, in Maccoby and Martin's typology, the only difference between authoritative and authoritarian styles are the levels of responsiveness since both have high levels of demandingness. However, Baumrind (1989) explains that authoritative and authoritarian styles differ in both responsiveness and demandingness. Demandingness can be detrimental or beneficial, depending on the type of demandingness used by the parents. Authoritarian parents exercise invasive demandingness that can be harmful because it is unreasonable and tries to prevent the child's individuality. Authoritative parents, however, use a demandingness that is beneficial to the child's development because it consists of firm control and takes into account the child's level of maturity which helps facilitate his competence (Baumrind, 1989).

Breakdown of Parenting Styles. The following section provides an overview of each type of parenting style and the child/adolescent outcomes that have been associated with each.

The authoritative parenting style is made up of high demandingness and high nurturance. These parents try to direct the child using logic and explanations. They encourage verbal give and take and give reasons behind requests. Both autonomy and conformity are valued and the parents help guide their children both firmly and consistently. Additionally, while they "willingly confront their children in order to obtain conformity, state their values clearly, and expect their children to respect their norms" (Baumrind, 1989, pg. 355), they also are loving, supportive, and cognitively responsive. This style results in children who are generally the most self-reliant, self-controlled,

content, and explorative (Baumrind 1966; 1971). Research on adolescents confirms that children who are raised with authoritative parents end up being achievement oriented in relation to school, have high self-control, and are both friendly with peers and cooperative with adults (Baumrind, 1991, Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991).

The second style is authoritarian and is made up of high demandingness and low nurturance. In this style, parents are the ultimate authority, the child has limited autonomy, and there is no verbal give and take. The child is expected to listen to his parents and do what they say because they are the parents and are right. These parents also typically use punitive, forceful measures when needed, often as a result of their children's behaviors or actions that clash with their own high standards of acceptability. These children, compared to the others that Baumrind observed, ended up the most discontent, withdrawn, and distrustful; and as adolescents exhibited aggressive tendencies in boys and a lack of independence in girls (Baumrind, 1966, 1971, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991).

The third style is permissive and consists of low demandingness and high nurturance. In this style, the parent does not see himself as an important and active role in shaping and changing the child's behavior. This parent gives the child as much control and freedom as possible and tries to be as "non-punitive, accepting, and affirmative" toward the child's desires and actions. Additionally, the parent allows the child to self-regulate their actions and avoids exercising control. These children were the least self-controlled, explorative, and self-reliant. As adolescents they often had low self-control and low self-reliance. Additionally, they had poor social relationships and academic outcomes (Baumrind, 1966, 1971, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991).

The fourth style is neglectful and consists of low control and low nurturance. Baumrind does not discuss this style in her preschool studies; it was conceptually added by Maccoby and Martin in 1983. It has been found that adolescents who were raised with this type of parenting had poor self-esteem and high levels of aggression and impulsive behavior (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991).

Current Parenting Style Research Relating to Child Outcomes. The following section discusses the recent research, conducted within the last ten years, associated with parenting styles, as defined by Baumrind (1971), and presents the child outcomes. The first section discusses general child outcomes followed by a section that discusses the influence of race on parenting styles and the subsequent adolescent outcomes.

Simons and Conger (2007) explored parenting styles on delinquency, depression, and school commitment of adolescents. However, rather than asking the adolescents solely about their mother's parenting style as previous researchers had done, they questioned them about the parenting style of both their mother and father using a questionnaire. Additionally, they completed observations to assess the parenting styles. The multiple measures were analyzed together since both approaches have strengths and limitations. Their sample included 451 mainly Caucasian youth from intact, two-parent families. The parenting style of both parents were combined to create family styles and these family styles were assessed to understand their impact on adolescent outcomes. There were 16 total family styles that were created, and the most common styles were two authoritative parents, two permissive parents, and two neglectful parents.

It was hypothesized these were the most common due to the "consequence of assortative mating and mutual influence" (Simons & Conger, 2007, p. 235). Two authoritarian parents were not expected, and not found, to be common since it was assumed that it would be difficult to coexist in a family with two authoritarian parents since both would want to control the decision making process. It was found that when an adolescent had two authoritative parents, they had the lowest levels of depression and the highest levels of commitment to school regardless of the reporter. Interestingly, those adolescents who had the lowest levels of delinquency had an authoritative mother and a permissive father when reported by the adolescent or an authoritative father and a permissive mother when reported by the observer. Additionally, overall it was found that adolescent outcomes were more positive when at least one parent was authoritative compared to families in which neither parent was authoritative. This study adds another dimension to understanding the influence of parenting styles of adolescents and confirms that authoritative parenting is ideal for at least Caucasian adolescents.

In a similar study, Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn (2007) assessed both the mother and father's parenting style to see what effect they had on adolescents self-esteem, depression, and life satisfaction. However, compared to Simons and Conger's (2007) study, Milevsky et al. examined each parent's influence independently rather than combining them. Their results confirmed those of Simons and Congers and found that overall, authoritative parenting related to higher self-esteem and life satisfaction and lower depression in adolescents. When examining the differences between mothers and fathers, it was found that while the outcomes were significant when comparing authoritative and permissive mothers, they were less well defined when comparing

authoritative and permissive fathers. This seems to show that mothers' styles are more significant to the outcomes of adolescents compared to fathers' styles; this is somewhat conflicting with Simons and Conger's findings. However, since this study did not examine the impact of the mother and father's styles together, it may not give a complete analysis.

While the previous studies have all been cross-sectional in nature, Williams et al. (2009) examined the association of parenting style, child temperament, and behavioral problems in children in a longitudinal study starting when they were 24 months and continuing until they were 15 years old. Their sample, similar to the other studies previously explored, consisted of mostly Caucasian families from middle to upper-middle class. They found permissive parenting was associated with greater internalizing problems when the children were four years old, in addition to being associated with an increase in internalizing problems over time with children who were behaviorally inhibited. In regard to authoritarian parenting, that style was associated with greater preschool externalizing problems. However, overtime it was associated with a sharper decline in externalizing problems when controlling for the level of behavioral inhibition. This may be due to the fact that children with behavioral inhibition respond differently to authoritarian parenting styles over time than children without behavioral inhibition. Finally, authoritative parenting was associated with less of an increase in internalizing behavior problems over the years, but was not related to externalizing problems at all.

Similar to Williams et al. (2009), Baumrind, Larzelere, and Owens (2010) also conducted a longitudinal study by investigating the effects of parenting style when the children were in preschool and followed up on the outcomes of those children ten years

later, specifically the adolescent competence and emotional health. They also assessed which practices, comparing confrontive and coercive, accounted for those long-term impacts. The results showed that those parents who were authoritative when their children were in preschool, had adolescents who were competent and well adjusted compared to those adolescents whose parents were authoritarian, permissive, or neglectful. Adolescents from authoritarian parents were more maladjusted and incompetent. They found that verbal hostility, psychological control, severe physical punishment, and arbitrary discipline were the most detrimental coercive practices found among authoritarian parenting while the confrontive practices (behavioral control and normative spanking) and maturity demands that were often seen in authoritative parenting were neutral in effect. These studies, among the others (Chan and Koo, 2010), show that authoritative parenting has the most positive impact among Caucasian adolescents.

While all of the above studies focus on the outcomes of adolescents, in regard to younger children, Kaufmann et al. (2000) examined the relationship between parenting style and children's socio-emotional adjustment in elementary school based on the parent's perspective. The sample included 1,230 mothers, most of whom were Caucasian (88%). Results revealed authoritative parenting is positively associated with children's adjustment and negatively associated with emotional and behavioral problems even after controlling for the effects of gender, ethnicity, grade level, and income. However, authoritative parenting did not show a strong link in reducing maladaptive behavior, including acting out behaviors, moodiness, and learning difficulties.

Interestingly, the association between authoritarian parenting and children's adjustment was weak, meaning authoritarian parenting did not have a significant negative impact on students. This may be due to the fact that parents did not accurately portray their parenting styles due to social desirability issues. It has been suggested in prior research that parents' self report data may not be as predictive of child outcomes as data rated from other perspectives (Paulson, 1994). Regardless of the strength of the associations, research has consistently shown that authoritative parenting is linked to better outcomes for children and adolescents alike. However, the previous studies all explored Caucasian families. The following section details the impact of the parenting styles on adolescents from various races/ethnicities.

Influence of Race/Ethnicity on Parenting Styles. Differences in children and adolescent outcomes have been shown across various races/cultures. Baumrind (1971) early on discovered there were differences between African American and Caucasian children. When analyzing the data she had collected from three months of observations in the preschool, and home visits and interviews with the parents, she discovered that there were significant differences between African American and Caucasian parenting styles and the outcomes of their daughters. While there were 69 girls in the study, only nine of them were African American. Due to the small number, it was necessary to standardize the entire sample, thus meaning that the African American families can only be understood by comparing them to the Caucasian families. The results revealed that the African American parents of girls, compared to the Caucasian parents, were more authoritarian and did not emphasize individuality or independence. Interestingly, the African American girls were very independent and domineering; this is in contrast to

Caucasian girls of authoritarian parents who are typically discontent, withdrawn, and distrustful (Baumrind, 1971).

More recently, researchers have begun analyzing the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' academic achievement, social skills, and problem behaviors. Research has revealed authoritative parenting is associated with positive outcomes related to social skills and problem behaviors for all ethnic groups studied (African Americans, Asian Americans, European Americans, and Hispanic Americans), but is only associated with academic performance among European Americans and, to a lesser extent, Hispanic Americans (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991). Dornbusch and his colleagues surveyed 7,836 adolescents in the San Francisco Bay area and discovered parenting styles influenced academic achievement differently among the various ethnicities. When looking at the results across the ethnicities, authoritarian and permissive styles were negatively associated with grades and authoritative style was positive associated with grades. However, when specifically examining each ethnicity, distinct differences emerge. Among Asian students, authoritarian parenting significantly correlated with grades while no other styles affected academic performance. Also, among African American students there were no significant correlations between parenting styles and grades. Interestingly, with Hispanic females there was a negative correlation between authoritarian parenting and grades but not with males.

In a similar study conducted by Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch (1991), authoritarian parenting was positively correlated with academic achievement and negatively correlated with deviant behavior among African American adolescents,

regardless of socio-economic status; however, among Caucasian adolescents, authoritarian parenting resulted in poorer psychosocial functioning. Authoritarian parenting had no impact on Asian or Hispanic adolescents. Interestingly, authoritative parenting predicted lower rates of deviance in all ethnicities, higher academic competence in Caucasian and Hispanic adolescents, and positive psychosocial development in Caucasian, African American, and Hispanic adolescents.

When specifically examining Asian American parents, they are often described as more authoritarian (Dornbusch, et al. 1987; Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992) or restrictive (Lin & Fu, 1990) than their European American counterparts. However, research conducted by Chao (1994) has revealed that it may be due to the fact that components that make up authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles are ethnocentric and simply do not measure some of the parenting components that are used by Asian, specifically Chinese, parents. For example, Chao surveyed 100 mothers of preschool children, 50 Chinese and 50 European-American, to assess authoritative-authoritarian parenting styles, levels of control, and Chinese childrearing concepts of "training." The results revealed the Chinese mothers scored much higher on their "training" concepts, even after controlling for the other measures. This study reveals that "training" goes beyond authoritarian concepts and may explain why there is typically not a negative correlation between authoritarian parenting and grades among Asian students as seen in other studies.

A follow up study was conducted by Wu et al. (2002) to compare the parenting styles and practices of Chinese and American parents of preschool children. This study consisted of 521 parents, 284 from China and 237 from the United States and assessed

styles and practices of childrearing shown in the literature for each culture. The parenting styles from the United states included Baumrind's parenting styles and the practices from China included Chen's (1998) training questionnaire that examines encouragement of modesty, protection, directiveness, shaming/love withdrawal, and maternal involvement. The results revealed that mothers from China scored higher than mothers from the United States on all of the practices emphasized in China except maternal involvement. Additionally, regarding the parenting styles, mothers from China scored lower on the warmth/acceptance and democratic participation subscales of the authoritative subscale, but higher on the physical coercion subscale of the authoritarian style. These studies suggests that Baumrind's parenting style construct is not completely valid when assessing Chinese parents, because it does not take into account some of the other parenting practices that they use. These additional parenting practices may explain why Asian adolescents, whose parents use the authoritarian style of Baumrind's typology, do not have the same negative outcomes as their Caucasian counterparts. Additionally, these studies may help answer the question as to why Baumrind's typology is only consistent for Caucasian children and adolescents. Perhaps African American families and Hispanic families also utilize additional strategies that are not measured by Baumrind's parenting styles. Unfortunately, there is no known typology for the parenting styles of different ethnic groups.

Assessment of Baumrind's parenting styles. This section provides a review of the various measures used to assess parenting styles using Baumrind's classification and evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of each one. While there are a plethora of instruments in use that assess parenting practices and styles, there are very few that

examine it through the lens of Baumrind's classification. In Baumrind's (1967, 1971) research, the parenting styles were evaluated through observations that took place in the families' home and interviews with the parents. However, most of the recent research has used questionnaires. The questionnaires are either given to adolescents so that they can report their parents' behaviors or to the parents for self-report.

Many questionnaires that are used in studies have been developed by the researchers specifically for their particular study instead of attempting to validate other instruments (Holden & Edwards, 1989). For example, Dornbusch et al. (1987) developed three 25 item indices designed to measure each of the three parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive). The items were developed so that no item would contribute to more than one construct. The authoritative index was based on nine items, while the authoritarian and permissive indices were each based on eight items. The reliability of these three indices were assessed using Cronbach's alpha and were found to be .7 for the authoritarian index, .6 for the permissive index, and .66 for the authoritative index. This questionnaire is only used in this study; however, other researchers have taken some of the questions and used them in their own questionnaires or adapted them (Steinberg et al., 1994).

Other questionnaires have been used by many researchers over the years. The *Parental Authority Questionnaire* (PAQ), developed by Buri (1988, 1991), has been cited as the questionnaire used most often when assessing adolescents (Robinson, Mandelco, Frost Olsen, and Hart, 1995). It is designed to assess parenting styles by asking adolescents to report how they themselves were parented in order to determine their parents' parenting styles. This questionnaire consists of 30 questions and has three 10-

item scales: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. Sample questions include "My mother has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to" (authoritarian scale), "My mother gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and she expected me to follow her direction, but she was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me" (authoritative scale), and "My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up" (permissive scale). Buri developed the instrument based on Baumrind's descriptions of the parenting style prototypes and then subjected it to a multidisciplinary expert review. The PAQ has showed good internal consistency (ranging from .74 to .87) and test-retest reliability ranged from .77 to .92. Additionally, the PAQ does not appear vulnerable to social desirability response bias.

The *Parental Authority Questionnaire-Revised* (Reitman et al., 2002) is a parent self-report version of the PAQ designed for parents of children ages three to eight. It was adapted for parent report and to improve readability. Factor analysis and reliability data were obtained from three diverse samples of parents of preschool and elementary school-aged children and showed that the three factor structure, found in the PAQ, was not supported in all the samples. It was strongly influenced by demographics such as SES, ethnicity or both. The authoritative and authoritarian scales had items that loaded on both scales as well as items that loaded on the opposite scales. Reliability data was consistent with the factor analysis. Two of the three scales had modest reliability, and authoritativeness had low reliability in lower SES, primarily African American samples. Additionally, internal consistency ranged from .56 to 77 on the subscales.

Robinson et al., (1995, 2001) developed the *Parenting Styles and Dimensions*

Questionnaire (PSDQ), formerly known as the *Parenting Practices Questionnaire* (PPQ).

This questionnaire was based on the *Child-Rearing Practices Report* (CRPR) developed

by Block (1965), however the PSDQ/PPQ specifically assesses Baumrind's parenting

style typology. This questionnaire has 62 questions, is rated on a five point Likert scale,

and asks participants to rate their own behavior as well as their spouses. The

authoritative scale has 27 items and includes subscales for democratic participation (5

items), good natured/easy going (4 items), reasoning/induction (7 items), and warmth and

involvement (11 items). The authoritarian scale (20 items) includes the subscales

corporal punishment (6 items), directiveness (4 items), nonreasoning/punitive strategies

(6 items), and verbal hostility (4 items). Finally, the permissive scale includes 15 items

and contains the subscales Lack of Follow-through (6 items), Ignoring Misbehavior (4

items), and Self-Confidence (5 items). While the scale does have good internal

consistency (ranging from .75 to .9) and was empirically created, it was developed almost

exclusively using middle class Caucasian parents from intact families from Utah.

In a review of instruments assessing parenting practices, Locke and Prinz (2002)

praised the PPQ/PSDQ as one of the few instruments that had psychometrically

defensible scales relating to parental nurturance and discipline. Additionally, the scale

has been adapted for effective use in various cultural settings, including China (Wu et al.,

2002), Russia (Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olson, & McNeilly-Choque, 1998), and African

American Head-Start communities (Coolahan, McWayne, Fantuzzo, & Grim, 2002). The

scale reported internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach alphas) to be .91, .86, and .75,

respectively, for the authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive scales using a sample of

1251 parents. The majority of the participants were Caucasians from two-parent families; 32% were parents of preschool children and 68% were parents of school age children.

Summary. Research has clearly shown that authoritative parenting is more often associated with the most successful child and adolescent outcomes than any other parenting style. Durkin (1995) suggests that there are three reasons why this is the case. The first reason is because authoritative parents provide their children with a strong sense of emotional security which in turn helps create independence and helps them to be successful academically and socially. The second reason is because authoritative parents are effective communicators and provide clear explanations for the reasons behind actions. This communication helps the child understand, and more than likely internalize, the parents' goals, beliefs, values, and attitudes. When children have the same academic goals and beliefs as parents, they will be more successful. Finally, the third reason Durkin suggests is that authoritative parents have open communication with their children. This bidirectional communication style helps children acquire strong interpersonal skills which contribute to their success in school, both academically and socially.

The research on Baumrind's parenting styles have repeatedly revealed that parents who utilize authoritative characteristics, and are both nurturing as well as demanding, have children and adolescents who are more successful academically, have less behavioral problems and delinquency, and better social/emotional functioning (Baumrind, 1967, 1971; Baumrind et al., 2010; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Kaufman et al., 2000; Williams et al., 2009). While these outcomes have

consistently shown to be true, they can only be generalized to Caucasian families. The research across ethnicities has shown that among adolescents, authoritative parenting is positively associated with social outcomes but in regards to academics it is only positively associated among European-Americans. Among African American and Asian American adolescents, the authoritarian parenting style is positively correlated with academics (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991). However, these studies have all focused on adolescents which brings up an important question as to whether parenting style influences young children's academics among the different ethnic groups the same way it does with adolescents. There have been no known studies that focus on parenting styles and young children's academics, they have only examined parenting style and social-emotional outcomes.

While parents are the main influence on children and adolescents, teachers have also been shown to be very influential since children/adolescents are with their teachers for a large portion of the day (Ladd, Birch, & Buhs, 1999; Phillips, 1997; Pianta, 1999; Roeser & Eccles, 1998). Therefore, the next section will focus on teaching styles and the impact that they have on children and adolescents.

Teaching Styles

The term teaching style typically refers to a wide variety of teaching strategies, ranging from instructional strategies to classroom management strategies, but there is no agreed upon definition. Therefore it is important to note that this review uses the term teaching style to refer to the same characteristics examined in Baumrind's parenting style construct, including the dimensions of nurturing/warmth and demandingness/control.

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As mentioned previously, Durkin (1995) hypothesized three reasons why children who are raised by authoritative parents are the most likely to have positive school outcomes, including a strong sense of emotional security, effective communication using reasoning and explanations, and bidirectional communication. Based on these reasons, it would make sense that teachers who also possess these authoritative characteristics would have a more positive impact on students than teachers who do not have these characteristics. Therefore, the following section will examine research regarding teacher-student relationships, teacher-student communication, and authoritative teachers, those who are both demanding and warm, in addition to classroom management and teaching style using Baumrind's parenting style framework.

There has been a plethora of research on effective teachers, teacher-student relationships, and student outcomes. This research, while not directly examining teaching styles, has found many positive outcomes associated with the characteristics of authoritative teachers, those teachers who are nurturing, warm, and supportive as well as controlling and demanding in the classroom. More specifically, those elementary school teachers who possess authoritative characteristics have students who are better achievers, more engaged, have greater social well-being, and are less aggressive (Hughes, Cavell, & Jackson, 1999; Ladd et al., 1999; Phillips, 1997; Pianta, 1999; Pianta and Stuhlman, 2004; Roeser & Eccles, 1998; Rowan, Chiang, & Miller, 1997).

Classroom management. The characteristics that make up authoritative teaching are aspects of classroom management. Classroom management is more than just dealing with inappropriate and disruptive behavior; it entails all aspects of how the classroom is managed from organizing the physical setting to establishing rules and procedures and

managing students' tasks. Interestingly, not only does classroom management impact students' prosocial development and their self-management and responsibility, but Wang, Haertel, and Walbert's (1993) meta-analysis found that classroom management was the biggest predictor of student success. Bear (1998) found that the teachers who were viewed as the best classroom managers used more positive strategies that prevented negative behaviors from occurring.

Student-Teaching Relationships. Marzano and Marzano (2003) discovered that the quality of the student-teacher relationship was the keystone for all other components of classroom management. Positive teacher-student relationships, similar to parent-child relationships, create a strong sense of emotional security within the classroom and therefore allow students to feel more comfortable and independent, and help them to succeed. Creating these relationships with adults enhances the community that exists with the classroom and the school. This community has been shown to increase student pro-social skills, self-confidence, self-esteem, academic skills, and decrease later problems in adolescence (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). This is due to the fact that within secure relationships children can learn about the effect of their behaviors on others and begin to understand their behavior provides them with control over the environment (Hyson, 2004). These close relationships between children and teachers also have a lasting effect on a child's academic, social, and emotional development.

Pianta and Stuhlman (2004) found that the quality of early teacher-child relationships in preschool and kindergarten predicted children's skills several years later, and are associated with social-emotional skills. They conducted a longitudinal study by observing 490 children with their teachers in preschool, kindergarten and first grade. The

teachers reported their perceptions of the relationship with the children and data was collected about their social and academic skills. Hierarchical regression analysis was able to predict the children's skill level in the first grade based on the teacher-child relationship quality. Interestingly, the teacher-child relationship was associated with the changes in both social and academic skill level from preschool to first grade (Pianta and Stuhlman, 2004).

Other research, supporting Pianta and Stuhlman (2004) but also extending it, has shown the impact of early teacher-child relationships through eighth grade. Hamre and Pianta (2001) followed 179 children from kindergarten through eighth grade to assess whether the perceived relationship that kindergarten teachers felt with children impacted their later academic and social success. Results indicated that children who had a negative and conflicting relationship with their kindergarten teacher also had negative academic and behavioral outcomes. The relationship was significantly stronger between children who had behavior problems and boys. Other studies support this one and have additionally found that those relationships that are warm and supportive may help mitigate the negative outcomes that are associated with children at-risk for school problems (Burchinal, Peisner-Feinberg, Pianta & Howes, 2002; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Lynch & Cicchetti, 1992; Pianta et al., 1995).

Relationships between children and teachers are especially critical in the early grades since teachers help children transition between home and school by helping to promote behaviors that are adaptive to the school context and affect positive adjustment in the later years of school. Specifically, strong, positive relationships with children who come from homes where there are risks can act as a buffer against children experiencing

a negative impact on school performance associated with an unsupportive home environment (Hughes, Cavell, & Wilson, 2001). Alternatively, negative relationships with at-risk children can compound the negative effects of risks that children have at home (Ladd & Burgess, 2001). Negative relationships between children and teachers have been linked to children's negative attitudes toward school, school avoidance, low cooperation, low participation, and low academic achievement (Ladd & Burgess, 2001). Research continues to show the benefits of a strong, supportive relationship between teachers and children on children's school adjustment (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Howes, 2000; Wentzel, 1998).

Teacher-student communication. Teacher-student communication is also critical to examine, though much of the research on the topic has used high school and college students. Research has revealed that when teachers communicate in ways that show that they care about their students, are trustworthy, and are competent, students feel better understood (Schrodt, 2003; Schrodt, Turman, & Soliz, 2006) and respect the instructor more (Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2007). Additionally, students have reported that they respect teachers more who provide rationale for rules, explanations for commands, and use humor to get students back on task instead of being overly rigid and punitive (Stinson, 1993; Metz, 1978; Pomeroy, 1999).

Teaching style using Baumrind's parenting style framework. More recently, researchers have started to question whether Baumrind's parenting style framework can be applied to teaching styles. Several studies have been conducted to establish whether teaching style functions similar to parenting style (Kuntsche et al., 2006; Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 2002; Ziblut, 1990). Ziblut (1990) examined whether teaching styles could be

compared to parenting styles by replicating a portion of Baumrind's 1971 study. She studied the teacher behavior and attitudes of 30 childcare teachers who worked at licensed daycare centers by conducting observations and interviews, as well as having participants complete questionnaires. The measures were all taken from Baumrind's own study and modified to be applicable to teachers. Specifically, Ziblut used cluster analysis to analyze teacher behaviors and attitudes. She then compared those clusters to the clusters Baumrind reported in her study regarding parent behaviors and attitudes that comprised the control style (authoritarian, authoritative, permissive) for parents.

The results reveal the clusters generating the control patterns of teachers are similar to those clusters generating the control patterns of parents. Out of the ten "behavior" clusters that were demonstrated for both parents and teachers, nine of them were the same. These included firm enforcement; encourages independence and individuality; passive acceptant; rejecting; self confident, secure, and potent behavior; enrichment of children's environment; directive; discourages emotional dependency; and discourages infantile behavior. One cluster was unique for both parents and teachers; for parents the cluster was "expect participation in household chores" and for teachers it was "authoritarian." In regards to the clusters that emerged from the Teacher Attitude Inquiry and the Parent Attitude Inquiry, eight out of the nine were the same or comparable. The clusters that were the same included values conformity; firm enforcement; promotes nonconformity; discourages infantile behavior; authoritarianism; and articulated child policy. The clusters that were comparable included "early maturity demands" for the parents and "encourages independence and self-sufficiency" for the teachers as well as "angered over lack of control" for the parents and "admits to negative feelings and values

negative sanctions" for the teachers. The clusters that were unique included "impatient" for the parents and "encourages critical thinking" for the teachers. Interestingly, even though the measures included observations, interviews, and self-report questionnaires, only the questionnaires were used to generate the clusters. Additionally, while Baumrind used these clusters to define parental control patterns (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive), Ziblut did not define teacher control patterns.

An aspect of Baumrind's study (1971) that Ziblut (1990) did not examine was the impact of the teaching style on the children in the classes. The current study, however, extends Ziblut's research by assessing the academic and social outcomes of children who are in classrooms with teachers of who have different teaching styles, as defined by Baumrind.

A second study directly assessing teaching style (based on Baumrind's parenting style classification) and the only published empirical study, compared students of three middle school teachers who each had a different teaching style (authoritarian, authoritative and permissive) but similar mastery and performance goal practices (Walker, 2008). When interviewed, it was found that the teachers had some understanding of their style, but did not really understand the implications of the style. Their students, in the beginning of the semester, did not differ on any of the study variables but by the end of the semester there were clear differences. Students in the authoritative class had higher academic self-efficacy compared to students from the authoritarian class, and higher academic gains and social self-efficacy compared to students from the permissive class. Overall, style influenced the effectiveness of the teacher practices (mastery, performance), showing that teachers can use similar practices

within the classroom and have different effects based on their teaching style, as well as influencing how the students perceived and internalized those practices. This study supports the assumption that parenting and teaching styles operate in similar fashions.

Authoritative Teaching. Other studies have evaluated the impact of teaching style on student academic and social outcomes. However, most of them have studied teaching style by assessing "authoritative" teachers, those who are nurturing, warm, and supportive as well as demanding and controlling, by comparing them to teachers who do not utilize as many authoritative teaching strategies and assessing the differing outcomes on students. Similar to the studies that have assessed parenting styles (Baumrind et al., 2010; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Lamborn et al., 1991; Milevsky et al., 2007; Simons and Conger, 2007; Steinberg et al., 1992; Williams et al. 2009), authoritative teaching has been linked to positive behavioral, social, and academic outcomes in adolescents (Baker, Clark, Crowl, & Carlson, 2009; Kuntsche et al., 2006, Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 2002).

Wentzel (2002) found that teaching style influenced student outcomes even after controlling for demographics. She assessed teachers based on Baumrind's parenting dimensions of nurturance, democratic communication, maturity demands, and control, and evaluated whether those dimensions impacted student adjustment to middle school. Self-report questionnaires were given to 452 sixth grade students from two suburban middle schools to measure both their own motivation as well as the teaching dimensions of 18 teachers. Multiple regressions revealed that the five teaching dimensions accounted for significant amounts of variance in motivational, behavioral, and academic performance, even after controlling for demographics. Specifically, high expectations

(maturity demands) from teachers positively predicted classroom grades and negative feedback (lack of nurturance) was a consistent negative predictor of prosocial behavior and classroom grades and a consistent positive predictor of irresponsible behavior.

While most studies conducted on authoritative teaching have focused on adolescents, Baker et al. (2009) found that authoritative teaching had a positive impact on urban elementary school children's school adaptation including academic competence, classroom adjustment, and most strongly school satisfaction. This was true regardless of whether the children had behavioral problems or not. Additionally, results from an evaluation of the Incredible Years Program, a program designed to teach social and emotional skills in preschool students as well as helping promote authoritative teaching, revealed that intervention teachers who utilized this program, compared to a control group that did not, became more authoritative in nature by using more positive classroom management strategies. Consequently, those students showed more emotional self-regulation and social competence and fewer conduct problems than the control students (Webstrer-Stratton, Reid, and Stoolmiller, 2008).

Interestingly, there are several programs in effect in today's schools that are designed to help increase students' social, emotional, and academic skills by incorporating many authoritative teaching strategies (Battistich, Schaps, & Watson, 2004; Domitrovich, Cortes, & Greenberg, 2007; Rimm-Kaufman, Fan, Chiu, & You, 2007; Solomon, Battistich, Watson, Schaps, & Lewis 2000). Rimm-Kaufman and her colleagues (2007) studied the *Responsive Classroom* (RC) approach, a classroom focused intervention that stresses the equality between the social and academic curriculum. Teachers who use this approach create relationships with their students through positive

interactions and modeling. Additionally, these teachers have high expectations and use logical consequences. There is a strong focus on cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy, and self-control and the importance of helping children acquire these social skills. Teachers help their students do this through many classroom practices, including classroom meetings which create an open communication between the teacher and the class.

The results of the three year quasi-experimental longitudinal study of six elementary schools (three control and three experimental) found that teachers who used more RC approaches had students with better academic and social skills, and more favorable perceptions of school, even after controlling for gender, risk, and previous scores on standardized tests (Rimm-Kaufman et al, 2007; Rimm-Kaufman & Chiu, 2007). Interestingly, the relationship between the RC approach and achievement appeared to show statistical and practical significance for the children who were in classrooms that emphasized the RC approach for two or three years, but not for only one year (Brock, Nishida, Chiong, Grimm, & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008). This suggests that early intervention approaches in preschool or kindergarten may not necessarily be beneficial unless students also receive the same type of program throughout elementary school, or at least while they are still in their early childhood years.

Summary. These studies all support the notion that Baumrind's parenting styles can be effectively applied to teachers; and that teaching styles maintain similar outcomes on children and adolescents as the parenting styles. Authoritative teachers, those who are nurturing, warm, and supportive as well as controlling and demanding, have been shown in the research to have students who have better academic and social functioning (Baker,

2009; Hughes et al., 1999; Ladd et al., 1999; Phillips, 1997; Pianta, 1999; Roeser &
Eccles, 1998; Rowan et al., 1997; Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 2002). This is because
teacher-student relationships are critical and early positive relationships impact social and
academic skills for years to come (Burchinal et al., 2002; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Pianta
et al., 1995; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). Additionally, teachers who hold high
expectations and who are demanding are also shown to have students with better
academic skills (Hinnant, O'Brien, & Ghazarian, 2009; Jussim & Harber, 2005). While
most of the studies that focused on teaching styles, or specifically authoritative teaching,
included teachers of middle or high school students (Kuntsch et al., 2006; Walker, 2008;
Wentzel, 2002), those studies that included aspects of authoritative teaching also
supported the positive impact on elementary students (Baker et al., 2009; Rimm-
Kaufman et al., 2007; Webstrer-Stratton et al., 2008).

Chapter Summary

In reviewing the current literature on parenting and teaching beliefs it becomes
apparent that beliefs do impact behavior of both parents and teachers. These beliefs are
overall based on life experiences and while they can and do change as new information
and experiences are introduced, the stronger the beliefs, the more rigid they remain.
Parenting styles, as understood by Baumrind's typology, have been researched for over
four decades and have consistently shown similar results for Caucasian children and
adolescents: those who are raised in authoritative homes have higher academic skills,
better social and emotional functioning, and less behavior problems and delinquency.

Researchers have just started to examine teaching styles as understood by
Baumrind's parenting style construct. While there is a plethora of research that shows

the influence of each component that makes up the teaching style, there is very limited information regarding the impact of Baumrind's teaching styles on adolescents, and no known research on young children. Since parenting styles have consistently revealed similar outcomes for young children, it is critical to understand how teaching styles influence kindergarten children and their social, emotional and academic skills, especially since early skills have been linked to later skills. Additionally, it is important to understand the role beliefs play in teaching styles since they have a significant influence on behavior.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the current study was to assess the classroom management styles of preschool teachers. The mixed method design that was used for the study combines both quantitative and qualitative data to help provide a more comprehensive understanding of the classroom management styles and their impacts on student social and academic outcomes. The study was broken up into two parts. The first part assesses the classroom management styles of all preschool teachers who are members of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators through a self-report questionnaire. The second part consists of a case study in an urban school system that includes in-depth interviews, observations, and questionnaires, all to assess classroom management styles as well as questionnaires to assess student social skills. The current chapter explains the setting, sample population, measurement instruments, and data collection procedures that were followed to help answer the following research questions.

Research Questions

   Part 1: Questionnaire to VAECE members.

1. What is the proportion of authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive teaching styles for preschool teachers who are currently members of the Virginia Association for Educators of Young Children (VAECE)?

   Part 2: Case study.

2. How do teachers identify and explain their classroom management style based on their level of education and/or number of years teaching?

    a. How does their level of education influence their classroom management style and impact their understanding of it?

    b. How does their level of teaching experience influence their classroom management style and impact their understanding of it?

3. How do multiple measures of classroom management styles correlate to provide a portrait of a specific management style?

4. How do teachers believe that their classroom management style is connected to the development of their students' social and academic skills?

5. How are students' social and academic skills correlated with various classroom management styles?

Participants

The first part of the study recruited participants by distributing information about the questionnaire to attendees at the Virginia Association for Early Childhood Education (VAECE) state conference in addition to electronically distributing, via e-mail from the VAECE e-mail database, a letter asking for the participation of educators to assess their classroom management styles with the online questionnaire.

Eighty individuals responded to the online version of the *Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (*TSDQ*).* Table 2 displays the demographics for the respondents of the TSDQ. Respondents varied across all demographic areas, including their highest degree obtained, certification, current job, age range, and ethnicity. Additionally, results revealed that those individuals had held their current position for an average of 6.2 years (range = 1-32 years; SD=8.32).

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of TSDQ Respondents

	N	%
Highest degree obtained		
Associates	4	5%
Bachelors	48	60%
Masters	26	32%
Doctorate	2	2%
Certification		
None	4	5%
Early Childhood	47	58%
Elementary	26	32%
Secondary	3	4%
Current Job		
Teacher	58	72%
Assistant teacher	8	10%
Administrator	10	12%
Other	4	5%
Age Range 18-24	12	15%
25-34	38	45%
35-44	18	22%
45-54	6	8%
55-64	6	8%
Ethnicity		
African American	10	12%
Caucasian	62	78%
Hispanic	2	2%

Multi-ethnic	6	8%

The second portion of the study included nine kindergarten teachers who were recruited for participation from an urban public school district. To recruit participants, the researcher consulted with the school system and was given a list of authorized elementary schools. The authorized schools were evenly divided into three groups, based on the percentage of free and reduced lunch (see Appendix C). Three schools were randomly selected from each group, for a total of nine schools. The principal from each selected school was asked if they were willing to allow the research to take place in their school and were told that one kindergarten teacher was needed, and those that agreed asked their kindergarten teachers if any were willing to participate. One teacher from each school then contacted the researcher informing her of interest in participating in the research. The teacher was given an informed consent document (Appendix A) and a time was set up to come in for the observation and interview. When a principal declined participation, another school was selected and asked to participate. This process continued until nine teachers agreed to participate.

The following section details the demographics of each teacher and provides basic information about each classroom including the overall atmosphere, the number of students, and any visible classroom management charts and classroom rules. Table 3 follows the description of the case study participants and provides additional demographics information. Teacher names have been changed for confidentiality reasons.

Ms. Anderson. Ms. Anderson had a master's degree in early childhood education and this year was her first year teaching kindergarten. She had been teaching for a total of eight years, and had previously taught third and fifth grade. She is African American

and in the age range of 25-34. Her classroom was inviting and appeared very bright, open, and organized. The class had a total of 23 students, nine boys and 14 girls. Her classroom rules were posted next to the door on a bulletin board. Next to the rules were the three color (green, yellow, red) classroom management chart and an explanation of the rewards and consequences for each color.

Ms. Brown. Ms. Brown had a master's degree in early childhood education and had been teaching kindergarten for a total of six years. She had previously taught first grade and had been teaching for a total of 10 years. She is African American and in the age range of 25-34. Her classroom was inviting, with children's work displayed on walls. Her room also appeared organized. There were a total of 22 students with 8 girls and 15 boys. The classroom rules were posted on a wall above a window, as well as additional rules that were hanging from the ceiling. Her four color (green, yellow, blue, red) classroom management chart was very prominent and large and was posted on a bulletin board next to the door.

Ms. Davis. Ms. Davis had a master's degree in elementary education and had been teaching kindergarten for one year. She had previously taught 4th grade and had been teaching for a total of five years. She is multi-ethnic, both African American and Caucasian, and in the age range of 35-44. Her classroom was bright and welcoming. Colorful pictures were painted on the wall above the windows and student work was on the walls. There were a total of 18 students, six boys and 12 girls. Her room appeared very organized, and the three color (green, yellow, red) classroom management chart was posted in the front of the room next to the classroom rules.

Ms. Gore. Ms. Gore had a bachelor's degree in psychology with a teaching certification in early childhood education. She had been teaching kindergarten for a total of 14 years, and had only taught kindergarten during her teaching career. She is Caucasian and in the age range of 45-54. Her classroom appeared very cluttered, with lots of stuff placed in every possible location. The class had a total of 18 students, 11 boys and 7 girls. Her classroom rules were posted next to the door on a bulletin board, with rewards and consequences posted underneath; however, there was no other classroom management system posted.

Ms. Jones. Ms. Jones had a master's degree in early childhood education and had been teaching kindergarten for 30 years. She had also taught second grade and preschool, and had been teaching for a total of 37 years. She is Caucasian and in the age range of 55-64. Her classroom was inviting with children's artwork displayed on the walls and the room appeared very organized. The class had a total of 22 students, 13 boys and nine girls. The school wide rules were posted on a bulletin board, but no specific classroom rules were visible. There was also not any other posted classroom management system.

Ms. Miller. Ms. Miller had a bachelor's degree in physical therapy with a teaching certificate in early childhood education. She had been teaching kindergarten for 15 years, the entire time she had been teaching. She is Caucasian and in the age range of 35-44. Her classroom was very inviting and colorful, with lots of student work displayed on the walls, but the room did appear to be slightly cluttered. The class had a total of 19 students, 11 boys and eight girls. The classroom rules were posted on a bulletin board in the back of the classroom, and were not very visible or very large. They were posted on a board that contained lots of other information as well. The classroom management

system was also posted in the back of the room next to the door, and was also quite small. It was a four level system that consisted of a stoplight with "crash" underneath.

Ms. Petersen. Ms. Petersen had a master's degree in elementary education and had been teaching kindergarten for three years. She had previously taught third grade and fifth grade and had been teaching for a total of 24 years. She is Caucasian and in the age range of 55-64. Her room appeared well organized but was not bright and colorful. The class had a total of 21 students, 10 boys and 11 girls. There was student work displayed on the wall, and the classroom rules along with the consequences were posted in the front of the room. The three color (green, yellow, red) classroom management system was posted on a moveable easel, and was directly in front of the circle-time carpet during the observation.

Ms. Walker. Ms. Walker had a master's degree in early childhood education and had been teaching kindergarten for four years. She had previously taught 2nd grade and had been teaching for a total of nine years. She is Caucasian and in the age range of 45-54. Her classroom was filled with lots of materials and science displays (terrarium with tadpoles, aquarium with fish, pictures of butterflies, etc.), but did not appear cluttered. There were a total of 19 students, 11 boys and eight girls. The classroom rules were posted next to the door, and on the door was the four level/color classroom management system consisting of four faces (green smiley, yellow straight face, red sad face, gray angry face).

Ms. Williams. Ms. Williams had a master's degree in elementary education and had been teaching kindergarten for three years. She had been teaching for a total of five years, and previously taught second grade. She is Caucasian and in the age range of 25-

34. Her classroom was inviting, with children's work displayed both inside and outside the room. The room was bright and colorful and appeared very organized. The class had 23 total students, 13 boys and ten girls. The classroom rules were not posted anywhere visible in the room, but the three color (green, yellow, red) classroom management chart was posted in the middle of the room next to the classroom calendar.

Table 3

Case Study Participant Demographic Data

Teacher	Williams	Anderson	Gore	Jones	Brown	Davis	Petersen	Miller	Walker
Degree	M	M	B	M	M	M	M	B	M
Certification	EL	EC	EC	EC	EC	EL	EL	EC	EC
# Years taught kindergarten	3	1	14	30	6	1	3	15	4
Total years taught	5	8	14	37	10	5	24	15	9
Race	C	AA	C	C	AA	ME (AA & C)	C	C	C
Age Range	25-34	25-34	45-54	55-64	25-34	35-44	55-64	35-44	45-54

Note. M = Master's degree, B = Bachelor's degree, EL = Elementary Education, EC = Early Childhood Education, C = Caucasian, AA = African American, ME = Multi-ethnic.

Measures

  Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire. Teachers' classroom

management styles were assessed using the *Teaching Styles and Dimensions*

Quesionnaire (TSDQ), an adapted version of *The Parenting Styles and Dimensions*

Questionnaire (PSDQ) (Robinson et al., 1995). This questionnaire is formerly known as

the *Parenting Practices Questionnaire* (PPQ) and is based on the *Child-Rearing*

Practices Report (CRPR) developed by Block (1965); however the PSDQ/PPQ

specifically assesses Baumrind's parenting style typology. See Appendix D for the

questionnaire. The TSDQ was adapted from the PSDQ by changing certain vocabulary

to fit a teacher's perspective rather than a parent's perspective. For example, "child(ren)"

was changed to "students", "home" was changed to "classroom", and "parenting" was

changed to "teaching". Another change to the questionnaire was the removal of the

subscale corporal punishment (6 items) that was within of the authoritarian scale. This

was removed due to the fact that teachers are prohibited from using corporal punishment

in the schools. Additionally, other vocabulary was changed or removed at the request of

the school district, for example, "punish(ment)" was changed to either "consequences" or

"discipline" depending on the context, "scold(ing)" was removed since there were other

descriptors in the items, "threaten" was changed "warn", and "bribe" was removed.

  The adapted questionnaire is rated on a five point Likert scale and asks

participants to rate their own behavior for each question. It has a total of 56 questions

unevenly divided into three scales. The authoritative scale has 27 items and includes

subscales for democratic participation (5 items), good natured/easy going (4 items),

reasoning/induction (7 items), and warmth and involvement (11 items). The authoritarian

scale (14 items) includes the subscales directiveness (4 items), nonreasoning/punitive strategies (6 items), and verbal hostility (4 items). The permissiveness scale (15 items) consists of the subscales ignoring misbehavior (4 items), lack of follow through (6 items), and self-confidence (5 items). To determine the classroom management style for each teacher, the mean scores for each style (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) are calculated. The scale with the highest mean score establishes the main style for the teacher.

An important limitation to note is that while the authoritarian scale does have good internal consistency (ranging from .75 to .9) and was empirically created, it was developed almost exclusively using middle class Caucasian parents from intact families from Utah. However, overall the PSDQ was praised as one of the few instruments that had psychometrically defensible scales relating to parental nurturance and discipline in a review of instruments assessing parenting practices (Locke & Prinz, 2002). Additionally, the scale has been adapted for effective use in various cultural settings, including China (Wu et al., 2002), Russia (Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olson, & McNeilly-Choque, 1998), and African American Head-Start communities (Coolahan, McWayne, Fantuzzo, & Grim, 2002). The scale reported internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach alphas) to be .91, .86, and .75, respectively, for the authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive scales using a sample of 1251 parents or predominately school-age children.

Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scales. The Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scale (Gresham & Elliott, 2008) is a revised version of the Social Skills Rating System (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). It assesses the social skills for children ages three to eighteen and provides norms for ages three to five, five to 12, and

13 to 18. Social skills subscales include communication, cooperation, assertion, and responsibility. The teacher questionnaire (see Appendix E) asks teachers to rate how often the student displays each social skill on a 4-point scale of *never, seldom, often, and almost always*. Additionally, there is a 3-point importance scale for each item that asks the teacher to rate how significant each social skill is to the student's development and classroom success. The scale is *not important, important, critical.*

The SSIS has been shown to have "extensive validity evidence based on test content, internal structure, intercorrelations among scales and subscales, item-total correlations, and relations with other variables" using a nationwide sample of 4,700 children aged 3 to 18 (Gresham, Elliott, & Kettler, 2010, p. 811). Intercorrelations among scales and subscales are moderate to high for the social skills. Furthermore, reliability is also moderate to high for internal consistency, test-retest, and interrater reliability. The internal consistency coefficient alphas for ages 5-12 on the teacher form range from .84 to .97. For test-retest reliability of the teacher forms, the median adjusted reliability coefficients are .82 for social skills. Finally, for interrater reliability, adjusted reliability coefficients on the teacher form ranged from .36 to .69, with a with a median of .58 for the social skills subscales.

The correlations between the SSIS and other established measures are also moderate to high. The correlation of the social skills on the teacher form between the SSIS and the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) (Gresham & Elliott, 1990) has been shown to be .75 for ages 5-12. Another measure, the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition* (BASC-2) has been correlated with the SSIS and shown coefficients of .78 for the social skills scales for ages 5-12.

The Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening-Kindergarten. The

Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening-Kindergarten (PALS-K) measures

kindergarten students' knowledge of important literacy skills. Specifically, it measures

phonological awareness, alphabet knowledge, knowledge of letter sounds, spelling,

concept of word, and word recognition in isolation. These literacy skills are all important

because they are predictive of later reading success. PALS is administered at the

beginning of the year to assess the needs of the individual students and the classroom as a

whole, and again at the end of the year to monitor growth. Invernizzi et al. (2004)

determined that PALS-PreK was both reliable and valid. They assessed the internal

consistency and the inter-rater reliability and found that both were moderate to high with

inter-rater reliabilities ranging from $r = .96$ to .99 and reliability coefficients for

individual tasks ranging from $\alpha = .79$ to .89 to demonstrate the internal consistency.

Additionally, they assessed content, criterion, and construct validity and found that

PALS-K is a valid instrument.

Observation Checklist. The observation checklist was developed specifically for

this study (see Appendix F) by consulting with other observation tools and generating the

prominent components of classroom management styles that were related to those

components discussed in the parenting style literature. The observation tools that were

examined included Baumrind's Parent Behavior Dimensions (Baumrind, 1967), the

Classroom Assessment Scoring System, Kindergarten through Third Grade (CLASS, K-

3) (Pianta, LaParo, Hamre, 2008), KidTalk Code (Delaney, Ezell, Solomon, Hancock, &

Kaiser, 1997), and Quality Indicators of Child Learning and Achievement in Teacher-

Child Interactions (Hester, 2011).

The parenting styles, and subsequently the classroom management styles, are based on four basic components: nurturance/warmth, control, communication, and maturity demands. Each component was broken down into characteristics/practices that are associated with each style to create a user friendly chart/checklist. During the observation, the observer created tallies for each practice/characteristic that was seen and wrote field notes throughout the observation to provide more detail about each observed practice. Three of the observations were observed by a second observer, and inter-rater reliability was assessed to ensure that the observations were reliable.

The overall observation style was evaluated by adding the additional components of communication and maturity demands to Maccoby and Martin's (1983) breakdown of the styles that was previously shown in *Figure 2*. Since Maccoby and Martin only explained each style using control and nurturance, it was necessary to expand their explanation to include all four style components so that the styles were able to be assessed in a comprehensive manner. *Figure 3* illustrates how each style is comprised of control, nurturance, communication, maturity demands. The components for each teacher were compared to the figure and the overall style was determined.

authoritarian:

High demanding,

high maturity demands,
low nurturance,

low communication,

authoritative:

high demanding, high
nurturance, high
communication, high
maturity demands

neglectful (not focused
on in this study)

low demanding,

low maturity demands,

low nurturance,

low communication

permissive:

low demanding,

low maturity demands

moderate-high
nurturance,

high communication

Figure 3. Expanded breakdown of styles based on Maccoby and Martin's (1983)

definition.

Interview. The interview schedule is a modified version of the questions that were asked to parents by Baumrind (1967) in one of her first studies. The questions from Baumrind's study that were relevant to teachers were taken and adapted so that they contained more modern vocabulary and corresponded with the teacher perspective. The questions that were not relevant to teachers were removed. Several additional questions were added to expand upon classroom management beliefs and practices. The interview questions are grouped by topic to include questions regarding beliefs about control (five questions), maturity demands (three questions), nurturance (two questions), communication (two questions), and overall questions (two). Additionally, there are six questions about teacher performance. Examples of questions include: What kind of consequences are the best when dealing with misbehavior?, In what areas, if any, do you think kindergarten aged children should be able to make decisions affecting their own behavior?, How important do you think it is for a teacher to have a positive relationship with her students?, Do you believe that a child should be allowed to disagree openly with his teacher?, and What do you do to get your students to behave as you want them to behave?. During data analysis, three of the interviews were dual coded, and inter-rater reliability was established to ensure that the analysis was reliable. See Appendix H for a full list of interview questions.

Each interview was analyzed for an overall classroom management style by assessing the given answers for each classroom management component (control, nuturance, communication and maturity demands) on a scale of low, medium, and high. Since each component had multiple questions asked about it, the answers were individually, and as a group, compared with the classroom management style profiles

(see Appendix I). The teachers were assigned the classroom management style to which

they had the most characteristics.

Table 4 provides a data collection chart to depict the measures used in each part

of the study.

Table 4

Data Collection for each part of study

Measures	Part I: VAECE Members	Part II: Case Study with NPS Teachers
Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire	X	X
Observation		X
Interview		X
PALS		X
Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scale		X

Procedure.

Teachers who agreed to participate were asked to complete *The Teaching Style and Dimensions Questionnaire* (TSDQ), take part in an in-depth interview, and have their classroom observed. The questionnaire was given to assess teachers' classroom management style and was supplied to the teachers in a packet that was given them following the observation and interview. Therefore, this questionnaire was not scored by the researcher until the end of the study so that the researcher was not biased during the interview and classroom observation. The packet, including the TSDQ and the student SSIS, was picked up approximately two weeks following the observation and interviews by the researcher.

Interviews and observation times were scheduled with teachers at their convenience and were scheduled so that the observations took place before the interviews. The observations took place in the classroom for approximately one hour during the afternoon portion of the day. The researcher used the developed checklist designed to assess the major components of the classroom management styles. Out of the nine observations, three of them were also observed by a second researcher. The checklists were compared to ensure that the inter-rater reliability was high. The observation helped the researcher assess how accurate the teachers' perceptions were of their own classroom management style.

Teacher Interviews were all conducted following the observations on the same day. The researcher read each question as it was printed on the interview schedule to ensure that every teacher was asked the same questions in the same order. Additionally, throughout the interviews, the researcher maintained a positive demeanor by smiling and

nodding in response to the teachers' answers so that they would feel comfortable and answer the questions honestly. The interviews lasted between 25 and 40 minutes, and all of the teachers appeared very open and willing to answer all questions asked without any hesitation. The interviews supplemented the questionnaires and asked teachers about their beliefs regarding their own classroom management styles, why they felt they had those beliefs, how effective they thought their classroom management style was, and whether they believed their classroom management style impacted student outcomes. The interviews were recorded with a digital audio recorder and were transcribed by the researcher.

To measure student outcomes, each teacher was asked to assess five students using *The Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scales* (Gresham & Elliott, 2008). The researcher randomly selected the students from each class by giving the teacher two lists of random numbers. One list corresponded to the male students and one to the female students. The teachers were asked to alphabetize and number their students based on sex (with one list for the males and one list for the females) and then to rate the students whose numbers were given to them. The SSIS was used to assess students' social skills. The end of the year classroom summary reports of PALS data was used to assess students' academic skills at the end of the year. The social skills and academic skills data were used to see whether the teachers' classroom management style influenced the student outcomes.

Data Analysis

Part 1: Questionnaire to VAECE members.

1. What is the proportion of authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive teaching styles for preschool teachers who are currently members of the Virginia Association for Educators of Young Children (VAECE)?

For question one, the percentages of each classroom management style were calculated to understand the proportion of styles and the demographic data was analyzed to assess the correlations between the various demographics and the classroom management styles.

Part 2: Case study.

2. How do teachers identify and explain their classroom management style based on their level of education and/or number of years teaching?

   a. Does their level of education influence their classroom management style and impact their understanding of it?

   b. Does their level of teaching experience influence their classroom management style and impact their understanding of it?

For question two, qualitative data from interview question one, five, and 13 was coded and analyzed for possible trends to examine teachers' beliefs regarding how level of education and/or number of years teaching impacts their classroom management style.

3. Do multiple measures of classroom management styles correlate to provide a portrait of a specific management style?

For question three, the self-report questionnaire, interview, and observation were triangulated to assess whether the three different classroom management measures correlate. Each measure was analyzed individually to determine the classroom

management style of the teacher. The classroom management style of each teacher was assessed by their score on the questionnaire. The observation checklist was evaluated to determine which classroom management style the teacher portrayed during the observation. All interview questions, except number 14, were analyzed to assess the classroom management style of each teacher by comparing the answers to those questions with prototypical portraits of each classroom management style. After each has been separately analyzed, they will be compared.

4. How do teachers believe that their classroom management style is connected to the development of their students' social and academic skills?

For question four, the data from interview question 14 was coded and analyzed for possible trends to examine how teachers believe their classroom management style is connected to the development of their students' social and academic skills.

5. Are students' social and academic skills correlated with various classroom management styles?

Question five was analyzed by using a MANOVA to determine if the different classroom management styles influenced students' social skills (SSIS) and/or academics (PALS). Additionally, the teachers were rank ordered based on their students' PALS scores as well as their social skills scores to provide further understanding of the differences in the classroom management styles.

Reliability

To ensure accuracy of the case study measures, reliability was assessed on the interview analysis and the observation data collection and analysis. A graduate research assistant trained in Baumrind's classroom management styles independently analyzed

three out of the nine interview transcripts to assess classroom management style. The three interviews were randomly chosen for the analysis. Interrater agreement was determined by calculating the percent of agreement for the assigned style for each classroom management style component (control, nurturance, communication, maturity demands). The overall interrater reliability percentage for the interview analysis is 100%.

Interrater reliability was also measured on three of the nine observations and observation analysis. A second observer, trained with the observation checklist, observed three of the teachers at the same time as the researcher and then analyzed the results. Interrater reliability was determined by calculating the percent of agreement between assigned levels for every aspect of each classroom management style component. The overall interrater reliability percentage for the observation analysis was 96%, and the interrater reliability percentages for each component are as follows: a) control = 94% (Range = 83-100%), b) nurturance = 93% (range = 80-100%), c) communication = 100%, d) maturity demands = 100%.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction and Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the results of a classroom management style study focusing on a case study with nine kindergarten teachers from an urban school district in the United States. Teachers' beliefs and practices were examined to better understand how the classroom management belief system impacts actual classroom practices; additionally, students' social and academic outcomes were analyzed to investigate how the classroom management styles influence student outcomes. Finally, results from an online questionnaire help provide an understanding of classroom management beliefs and practices in a larger sample of educators.

Two sections will address the five hypotheses of the study. The first section discusses the online *Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire* (TSDQ) results followed by a section addressing the case study hypotheses results. Following the results of the hypotheses, a section provides the reliability data based upon the classroom observation analysis and the interview coding.

The hypotheses for the study are as follows:

Part 1 - Questionnaire

1. Proportionately, there will be more authoritative educators, followed by authoritarian educators, and finally permissive educators.

Part 2 – Case Study

2. Teachers will be aware of their classroom management style, and will be able to explain the reasons why they use that style.

   a. Teachers with higher education will have more of an authoritative style and be able to explain their style better than those with lower education.

   b. Teachers with more kindergarten experience will have a more authoritative style than those teachers with less experience.

3. Teachers will generally see themselves as more authoritative than the observations will reveal.

4. Teachers will believe that their classroom management style, regardless of the type they use, will have a positive impact on their students' social skills, but they will not have an understanding of how it will influence their academic skills.

5. Students who have authoritative teachers will have higher levels of social and academic skills than those students whose teachers are permissive or authoritarian.

Section 1: *Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire* **Results**

Section one discusses the results of hypothesis one which focuses on the online TSDQ results. The purpose of this hypothesis is to understand the proportion of teaching styles among educators who are members of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators.

Hypothesis 1. Proportionately, there will be more authoritative educators, followed by authoritarian educators, and finally permissive educators.

The results from the 80 respondents of the questionnaire, which had a possible range of scores from 1 to 5, found that one hundred percent considered themselves authoritative (mean = 4.11; range = 3.56-4.70; SD = .29), with the highest authoritative subscale being warmth and involvement (mean=4.33; SD = .29) and the lowest being democratic participation (mean=3.53; SD= .54). Table 5 displays the results of the questionnaire. All teachers rated themselves as authoritative, as indicated by the mean score being higher for the authoritative scale compared to the authoritarian and permissive scales. However, when comparing the mean scores for the authoritarian and permissive scales, the teachers rated themselves as having slightly higher permissive tendencies (mean=1.94; range=1.47-2.73; SD=.29) than authoritarian tendencies (mean=1.69; range=1.21-3; SD=.31). Data was examined and compared across race, education level, and years of experience, but no differences were found. While the hypothesis was supported since there were more authoritative educators, it was not expected that all of the respondents would be authoritative since previous research using this questionnaire to assess parenting styles revealed parents who rated themselves in each of the three styles (Coolahan et al., 2002; Hart et al., 1998; Wu et al., 2002).

Table 5

TSDQ Means and Standard Deviations for Teaching Style Scales and Sub-Scales

	Mean	SD
Authoritative	**4.11**	**0.29**
Warmth and Involvement	4.33	0.29
Reasoning/Induction	4.26	0.40
Democratic Participation	3.53	0.54
Good Natured/easy Going	3.94	0.47
Authoritarian	**1.69**	**0.31**
Verbal Hostility	1.90	0.44
Nonreasoning/punitive strategies	1.29	0.28
Directiveness	2.06	0.55
Permissive	**1.94**	**0.29**
Lack of follow-through	2.00	0.48
Ignoring Misbehavior	1.93	0.35
Self Confidence	1.91	0.36

Note. The range for each style is 1-5. Data was examined across race, education level, and years of experience, and no differences were found.

Section 2: Case Study Teachers' Beliefs, Practices, and the Outcomes on Students

Section two addresses hypotheses two through five which focus on the case study teachers and their students (for a description of each case study teacher and her classroom, see chapter 3). These hypotheses address the beliefs and practices relating to the classroom management styles of the teachers as well as the academic and social skill outcomes of their students. The purpose of these hypotheses was to understand the implications of teachers' beliefs on their classroom management styles and to assess whether those styles impacted student outcomes. It should be noted that the case study teachers' names have been changed for confidentiality reasons.

Hypothesis 2. Teachers will be aware of their classroom management style, and will be able explain the influences of why they use that style.

For hypothesis number two, data from the following questions of the teacher interview transcripts were analyzed using an inductive analysis approach: (1) Would you say you have a position about classroom management which helps to guide you? If so, please explain. and (2) Describe your classroom management style. Two tables were created from the data, one that related to teachers' awareness of their classroom management style, and another for their explanations as to why they use the style that they do. The data was analyzed across all nine teachers and several revelations and patterns emerged.

Results from the interviews revealed that most teachers are aware of the classroom management techniques and practices that they regularly use that come together to create their classroom management style; however, typically the teachers only look at classroom management from a control standpoint and bring in the nurturing

component when specifically asked about it. For example, questions from the interview that focused on the nurturing component included: "Do you believe that teachers should express their negative feelings to their students just as they feel them or should they control what and how they communicate to their students?", "Do you believe that teachers should express their positive feelings to their students just as they feel them or they should control what and how she communicates to the students?", "How openly affectionate should kindergarten teachers be?", and "How important do you think it is for a teacher to have a positive relationship with her students?" The fact that the teachers, regardless of their classroom management style, only viewed classroom management from a control standpoint is in opposition to Baumrind's classroom management style construct which combines control and nurturance to create a complete style. Specifically, it is interesting that the authoritative teachers, who did display high levels of nurturance when observed, as well as expressed the importance of being nurturing when directly asked about it, overall did not mention any nurturing components when asked about classroom management. This reveals how nurturance may be separate from classroom management in the minds of the teachers. These results are consistent with research on student teachers which revealed how classroom management is only looked at from a control and managerial standpoint and not a nurturing one that focuses on student-teacher relationships (Weinstein, 1998). Only Ms. Petersen focused on nurturing in her interview and mentioned that her classroom management style/philosophy was based on "the relationship, and really caring for [her] kids". All of the other teachers focused on management strategies that relate to routines, expectations, and discipline as detailed in the three patterns below.

While each teacher was able to amply explain their classroom management strategies, when analyzing the responses across all teachers, three patterns emerged. The first pattern, and the most common, was the belief and use of being consistent. Six of the nine teachers specifically mention the importance of being consistent, among other components, probably because they have found how critical consistency is in the classroom.

"Well I think you really have to be consistent and have to be very strict... I don't want them to be confused. Is this ok today? Yesterday it was ok. I want them to know the rules. If you break it, this is what will happen." (Ms. Anderson)

"I'm the fair, firm, consistent person." (Ms. Jones)

"You have to be fair and consistent, but firm." (Ms. Davis)

"I try to be consistent, give them warnings, tell them why they misbehaved, and remind them of the rules." (Ms. Petersen)

"...and from the first day of school you have to make it clear that you are going to follow through whatever you say. So no matter what you say, you have to do it." (Ms. Miller)

"Children's behavior must be managed consistently and positively." (Ms. Walker)

Another pattern that emerged between two teachers, Ms. Williams and Ms. Miller, was the importance of utilizing routines and procedures in their classrooms. While this could be thought of along the same lines as being consistent, having an established set of routines and procedures enables the students to know exactly what to

do during the day and what to expect while being consistent refers more to being reliable

with one's discipline techniques and strategies.

> "I think that using routines and procedures are the best way, then [the students]
>
> know what to expect...I can't stand chaos, and you can't get much done with
>
> chaos. And the kids know exactly how they are supposed to do things." (Ms.
>
> Williams)
>
> "My systems in the classroom make the day very predictable and we pretty much
>
> do the same things so they know what to expect." (Ms. Miller)

The final pattern that emerged regarding the teachers' classroom management

strategies was between Ms. Petersen and Ms. Walker. Both specifically mentioned that it

was important to be positive in the classroom with the students as part of their classroom

management strategies. This may be because they have come to the realization that

focusing on the positive behaviors of young children often is a proactive way to get them

to behave (Bear, 1998).

> "Children's behavior should be managed in a positive way. I really like to try
>
> and focus on students who are behaving and use them as an example. And
>
> sometimes it really helps to have the other kids follow them." (Ms. Petersen)
>
> (when asked if she had a philosophy about classroom management which helps
>
> to guide her) "I'm not sure it's a philosophy. I believe it should be positive, it
>
> definitely should be positive... I love finding positive ways to get children to do
>
> what you want them to do it." (Ms. Walker)

While the three classroom management strategy patterns covered seven of the

nine teachers' responses regarding their classroom management philosophy, two of the

teachers' responses did not fit into any of the patterns. Ms. Gore explained that her classroom management was centered around "getting them to be responsible for their own behavior and internalize the decision making for themselves rather than being teacher directed." She went on to explain "I ask a lot of questions like 'is that what you are supposed to do?' instead of telling them what to do." Furthermore, Ms. Brown explained that her classroom management was centered around "respect" and that she manages their behavior by "moving their names". Interestingly, those two teachers were the only ones who were found in the observations not to be authoritative. Overall, every teacher was able to explain her classroom management philosophy and strategies, regardless of what they were, and do so with great ease.

In regards to the influences of classroom management strategies and styles, every teacher was able to explain the influences of why they use the classroom management strategies that they do. During the interview, each teacher was specifically asked: "Where do you think your classroom management philosophy/position originated from? Do you think it was your experience in school growing up, your experience in college, your teaching experience, something else, or a combination of factors?" While most of the teachers believed that it was a combination of factors, six of the teachers believed that their experience teaching was the strongest factor, and one teacher said that it was the second most important factor other than college. This is probably due to the fact that while teachers may learn the theory of classroom management in college, it is their actual teaching experience that helps solidify their beliefs once they learn what does and does not work for them (File & Gullo, 2002; Flores, 2006; Kaya, Lundeen, & Wolfgang, 2010).

"I do think my experience impacted my classroom management the most because you learn from your mistakes and you think well, this child needs something different from that child and this group needs something different from that group." (Ms. Williams)

"Overall, I think definitely my experience impacted my classroom management the most. Because I was really sweet and nice when I started teaching and the kids would be obedient to my face, but when my back was turned they would be doing all sorts of things that I wasn't aware....So I realized that I needed to be always watching my students and having that high expectations because you know when you aren't looking you want them to still be doing what they are supposed to be doing." (Ms. Anderson)

"I just teach the way I have found I am most effective with the students. I have changed along the way because the requirements have changed. And when I first started teaching there were no requirements, so it was a whole different game. And now it is bing, bing, bing, you have to do all this. Where as I might have been freer before, now I can't be as free." (Ms. Jones)

"Mainly from my teaching experience. When I first started teaching I came from being a substitute, so I was more of a shark on them. And I really had to learn to sit back and let them work out their own problems and to just be more patient." (Ms. Brown)

"I think it has been my experience teaching...I think it has gotten better. It really has...when I went to school we didn't have those management classes." (Ms. Petersen)

"Definitely teaching in the classroom. I learned everything from the classroom..." (Ms. Miller)

"College was definitely the most influential because it taught me to be positive. And then experience helped me modify those beliefs." (Ms. Walker)

While seven of the nine teachers strongly thought that their experience was one of the most important factors that influenced their classroom management beliefs and practices, two of the teachers believed that it was multiple factors that combined together to create their basis for their beliefs and practices. Their experience may provide the most relevant and recent influence to classroom management, prior work experience, experience being a student in the classroom, and the home environment all come together to create a belief system in an individual's mind as to how others should be treated and managed (Pajares, 1992; Sigel & McGillicudy-De Lisi, 2002; Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006).

"Probably a little of everything. When I was a student teacher I had a horrible cooperating teacher. It was just awful...I think that probably had something to do with it. And this is a second career for me, so when I decided to be a teacher I went to a lot of places. I subbed, taught homebound, and went to St. Mary's. I did all kinds of stuff...I also went to a Montessori school and looked at that...I really like that whole philosophy, and I think that is how education should be set up...Growing up I was in private schools where I was given a lot of freedom, so I think that has something to do with it too....Oh, and I used to work at a group home for adolescent girls, and that definitely influenced my management style." (Ms. Gore)

"I think it has been a little bit of everything: church, my home environment, my experience teaching, and I have two sisters who are also teachers so I think they influence me as well. I can't pick just one." (Ms. Davis)

Overall, hypothesis two was supported through the interview transcript data. The teachers had a thorough understanding of the classroom management strategies and styles, and had strong beliefs as to what they thought influenced them the most.

Hypothesis 2a. Teachers with higher education will have more of an authoritative style and be able to explain their style better than those with lower education.

This hypothesis was analyzed by examining the results of the TSDQ, interview transcript data, and observation data. Since both the questionnaire and the transcript data were self-report, they were combined together to create an overall self-report teaching style. As seen in Table 6, the results of these measures found that the level of teaching experience did not appear to influence how authoritative teachers believed themselves to be. All nine teachers were found to be authoritative in both the interviews and the TSDQ, meaning that they believed that they had high levels of control and nurturance. Additionally, all nine teachers were fully able to explain both their beliefs and practices related to classroom management based on the following interview questions: 1) How do you think children's behavior should be managed? What do you think are the best ways of managing the behavior of preschool children? What kind of consequences are the best when dealing with misbehavior? 2) Would you say that you have a position about classroom management which helps to guide you? Where do you think your classroom management philosophy/position originated from? Do you think it was your experience

in school growing up, your experience in college, your teaching experience, something else, or a combination of factors? 3) Describe your "classroom management style".

The observation data was used to form a practicing teaching style and the teacher's education level was taken from demographic information that was asked in the TSDQ. Table 6 shows the education level, self-report teaching style, and the practicing teaching style for each teacher. All nine teachers reported themselves to be authoritative, and the practicing teaching style data found four different types of teaching styles: Authoritative- high emphasis on positive behaviors (HPB), authoritative- low emphasis on positive behaviors (LPB), authoritarian, and negative directive. See the results of hypothesis three for a detailed explanation of each teaching style.

Seven of the nine teachers had a master's degree, and out of those seven, three of them were observed to have an authoritative style that was highly positive (authoritative HPB), three of them had an authoritative style that had low emphasis on positive behaviors (authoritative LPB), and one was authoritarian. Of the two teachers that had a bachelor's degree, one was authoritative and highly positive and one was negative directive. Since the results were mixed among the teachers, regardless of their level of education, this hypothesis must be rejected. However, further data collection should be conducted on more teachers with varied education levels to more fully understand this question and establish whether the case study data are generalizable. The case study does not include enough teachers with varied education levels to accurately assess this hypothesis.

Table 6

Teacher Education Level, Teaching Experience, and Self-Report and Practicing

Teaching Style

Teacher	Education Level	Years of Experience teaching kindergarten/overall	Self-Report Teaching Style	Practicing Teaching Style
Gore	Bachelors	14 / 14	Authoritative	Negative directive
Walker	Bachelors	4 / 9	Authoritative	Authoritative – HPB
Anderson	Masters	1 / 8	Authoritative	Authoritative – LPB
Brown	Masters	6 / 10	Authoritative	Authoritarian
Davis	Masters	1 / 5	Authoritative	Authoritative – HPB
Jones	Masters	30 / 37	Authoritative	Authoritative – LPB
Miller	Masters	15 / 15	Authoritative	Authoritative – LPB
Petersen	Masters	3 / 24	Authoritative	Authoritative – HPB
Williams	Masters	3 / 5	Authoritative	Authoritative – HPB

Note: Authoritative – HPB = Authoritative – high emphasis on positive behaviors
Authoritative – LPB = Authoritative – low emphasis on positive behaviors

Hypothesis 2b. Teachers with more kindergarten experience will have a more authoritative style than those teachers with less kindergarten experience.

This hypothesis was rejected, and in actuality, the reverse was found to be true of kindergarten experience once the observational data was further split into the additional teaching styles. All of the teachers who were authoritative and highly positive had less than five years of experience teaching kindergarten as displayed in Table 6. While Ms. Petersen had been teaching overall for over 20 years, she had only been teaching kindergarten for three years. The only teacher that also had less than five years teaching experience that was not labeled as authoritative and highly positive was Ms. Anderson. She was labeled as authoritative with low emphasis on positive behaviors. The other teachers' levels of kindergarten experience ranged from six years to 30 years and their practicing teaching styles were split between authoritative with low emphasis on positive behaviors, negative directive, and authoritarian. Further observational data should be conducted on more teachers to confirm whether teachers who have taught kindergarten for less than five years are more likely to be authoritative and highly positive compared to those who have taught kindergarten for more than five years.

Hypothesis 3. Teachers will generally see themselves as more authoritative than the observations will reveal.

Question three was assessed by analyzing the data from the teacher interview transcripts, the *Teaching Style and Dimension Questionnaire* (TSDQ), and the teacher observations. As displayed in Table 7, both teacher interviews and the self-report TSDQ analysis revealed that all of the teachers believed themselves to be authoritative in nature.

Conversely, the observation analysis discovered that two of the nine teachers were not authoritative, with one being authoritarian and the other negative directive.

Table 7

Teacher Interview Results

	Williams	Anderson	Gore	Jones	Brown	Davis	Petersen	Miller	Walker
Control	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High
	AV	AV/AN	AV	AV	AV/AN	AV	AV	AV	AV
Nurturance	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High
Communication	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	Medium
Maturity Demands	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High	High
Overall	AV	AV	AV	AV	AV	AV	AV	AV	AV

Note. Authoritative = AV, Authoritarian = AN

Results from the teacher interviews found that overall, all nine teachers believed themselves to be authoritative in nature. While all of the teachers believed themselves to be highly nurturing and have high maturity demands, there were slight differences in teacher responses regarding control among two teachers, Ms. Anderson and Ms. Williams, and a difference regarding communication with one teacher, Ms. Walker.

In regards to nurturance, teachers were asked three questions: (1) Do you believe that teachers should express their negative feelings to their students just as they feel them or should they control what and how they communicate to the students? (2) Do you believe that teachers should express their positive feelings to their students just as they feel them or should they control how they communicate those feelings to their students? and (3) How important do you think it is for a teacher to have a positive relationship with her students? All nine teachers expressed views that teachers should control their negative emotions, express their positive emotions, and that a positive relationship with their students was essential.

Maturity demands was another area in which the teachers all had similar responses. The teachers were asked three questions related to maturity demands: (1) In what areas, if any, do you think kindergarten children should be able to make decisions affecting their own behavior? (2) Do you think that students should be asked to share in the work of the classroom? (3) How much would you expect in the way of conscious development from a kindergarten student? All of the teachers felt that students should be able to make as many decisions as possible and included topics such as where to sit on the carpet rug, what to choose to eat at lunch, who to play with on the playground and sit by at lunch, etc. Additionally, all teachers expected students to help clean up throughout

the day and gave their students classroom jobs to help carry out tasks to help the room run more smoothly. Finally, regarding conscious development, all teachers felt that their students knew right from wrong and knew about telling the truth versus lying.

There were slight differences in responses regarding the issue of control. Ms. Anderson and Ms. Williams described their classroom management strategies in ways that contained both authoritative characteristics as well as authoritarian characteristics. For example, when asked to "explain your classroom management style", Ms. Anderson commented:

> I'm very controlling, I like things a certain way. I don't have a lot of leeway. I don't want them to be confused. Is this ok today, yesterday it was ok. I want them to know the rules. If you break it, this is what will happen. I will not be pleased with you. You will get a consequence. If you do these things, then this is how I will be toward you, if your not, I'm going to ride you. We are all together in this classroom. We are a family, we work together...

Within this explanation she clearly expresses herself to be authoritarian with her controlling nature and yet authoritative by working together as a family and being consistent with her discipline. On the other hand, other teachers when asked the same question only described themselves in authoritative ways. Ms. Williams explained:

> I have and add things every year to my procedures and management and here toward the middle of the year we just do things and I don't even think about it anymore. We just have so many processes, I mean from the minute they walk in the room they know what they are supposed to do....

Her classroom management stemmed around routines and procedures so that the students knew what to do and how to do it and there weren't any questions.

The final area that related to classroom management was communication. While eight of the teachers were rated as having high levels of communication with their students, Ms. Walker was not. When asked if students should "be allowed to disagree openly with their teacher" Ms. Walker stated "No I don't think I agree with that. I think it is disrespectful." The other eight teachers all commented that they believed it was ok for students to openly disagree as long as they did so in a respectful way. For example, Ms. Williams mentioned that she felt "everyone is allowed to have an opinion… as long as it is respectful and they talk to me about it, I think it is ok to disagree."

Just as with the interviews, the results of the TSDQ found that all of the case study teachers were authoritative (Mean = 3.96; range = 3.7-4.26; SD = 0.20) as shown in Table 8. When examining the subscales for the authoritative scale, six of the nine teachers scored highest in the reasoning/induction subscale, with the other three teachers scoring highest in the warmth and involvement subscale. Additionally, seven teachers scored lowest in the democratic participation subscale with the other two scoring lowest in the good natured/easy going subscale.

When examining the overall authoritarian mean scale scores (Mean = 1.92; range = 1.43 – 2.07; SD = 0.46), it was found that they were higher than the overall permissive mean scale scores (Mean = 1.84; range = 1.6 – 2.4; SD = .31). This is the reverse of the online TSDQ responses which found the teachers to have higher permissive mean scale scores than authoritarian mean scale scores, as seen in Table 9. Furthermore, when examining the authoritarian subscales of the case study teachers, it was found that eight

out of the nine teachers had lower scores on the non-reasoning/punitive strategies

subscale (M = 1.35; SD = .36; Range = 1 – 1.83) with Ms. Jones being the only teacher to

have verbal hostility as the lowest. Additionally, eight of the nine teachers scored highest

on the directiveness subscale (M = 2.56; SD = .73; Range = 1.5 – 4.25), with Ms. Davis

as the only teacher to score highest on verbal hostility. The permissive subscales

revealed that four of the teachers had higher lack of follow-through mean scores, four had

higher ignoring misbehavior mean scores, and one had both subscales mean scores the

same.

Table 8

Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire Case Study Results

Teacher	Williams	Anderson	Gore	Jones	Brown	Davis	Petersen	Miller	Walker	Overall
Authoritative Mean	**4.11**	**3.78**	**4.00**	**3.89**	**3.96**	**4.26**	**3.70**	**4.20**	**3.78**	**3.96**
Warmth and Involvement	4.36	3.91	4.18	4.27	4.09	4.55	3.55	4.55	3.91	4.15
Reasoning/Induction	3.86	4.71	4.57	4.14	4.29	4.71	4.71	4.14	4.00	4.35
Democratic Participation	3.80	2.60	3.40	3.00	3.20	3.60	2.80	3.40	3.20	3.22
Good Natured/easy Going	4.25	3.25	3.25	3.50	4.00	3.50	3.50	4.50	3.75	3.72
Authoritarian Mean	**1.64**	**3.00**	**2.00**	**2.00**	**1.79**	**1.50**	**1.86**	**2.07**	**1.43**	**1.92**
Verbal Hostility	2.00	3.25	2.75	1.75	1.75	2.25	2.00	2.00	1.50	2.14
Nonreasoning/punitive strategies	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.83	1.16	1.00	1.33	1.67	1.16	1.35
Directiveness	2.25	4.25	2.75	2.50	2.75	1.50	2.50	2.75	1.75	2.56
Permissive Mean	**1.60**	**1.93**	**1.80**	**1.93**	**1.47**	**2.40**	**2.20**	**1.60**	**1.60**	**1.84**
Lack of follow-through	1.67	2.16	1.83	2.00	1.17	3.00	2.50	1.50	1.67	1.94
Ignoring Misbehavior	1.75	1.75	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.75	2.00	1.50	1.86
Self Confidence	1.40	1.80	1.60	1.80	1.40	2.00	2.20	1.40	1.60	1.69

Note: The range for each of the scales on the TSDQ is one to five.

Table 9

TSDQ Means and Standard Deviations for Online and Case Study Samples

| | Online | | Case Study | |
| | n = 80 | | n = 9 | |
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Authoritative	**4.11**	**0.29**	**3.96**	**0.20**
Warmth and Involvement	4.33	0.29	4.15	0.33
Reasoning/Induction	4.26	0.40	4.35	0.33
Democratic Participation	3.53	0.54	3.22	0.38
Good Natured/easy Going	3.94	0.47	3.72	0.44
Authoritarian	**1.68**	**0.31**	**1.92**	**0.46**
Verbal Hostility	1.90	0.44	2.14	0.55
Nonreasoning/punitive strategies	1.29	0.28	1.35	0.39
Directiveness	2.06	0.55	2.56	0.78
Permissive	**1.95**	**0.29**	**1.84**	**0.31**
Lack of follow-through	2.00	0.48	1.94	0.55
Ignoring Misbehavior	1.93	0.35	1.86	0.18
Self Confidence	1.91	0.36	1.69	0.28

While interviews and the questionnaires revealed that all nine teachers were authoritative, this was not the case with the observations. The observations revealed that seven teachers were authoritative and one was authoritarian as seen in Tables 10a, 10b, and 10c. The remaining teacher did not fit into any of Baumrind's three styles, and so a new style, negative directive, was created. Furthermore, the observations discovered that the authoritative teachers had various emphases on positive behaviors and so the authoritative style was split into two sub-styles: teachers who had a high emphasis on positive behaviors (HPB) and those who had a low emphasis on positive behaviors (LPB).

Table 10a

Teacher Observation Results: Control Component

	Williams	Anderson	Gore	Jones	Brown	Davis	Petersen	Miller	Walker
Teacher Coercion (#)	Low (0)	Low (0)	Low (1)	Low (0)	High (8)	Low (0)	Low (0)	Low (0)	Low (0)
Restriction of movement (#)	Middle (2)	Low (0)	Middle (4)	Low (1)	Middle (3)	Low (0)	Low (1)	Low (0)	Low (0)
Consistency (%)	High (90%)	High (90%)	Low (20%)	High (90%)	Middle (50%)	High (90%)	High (86%)	High (90%)	High (90%)
Expectations and rules (#)	High (12)	Middle (5)	Middle (4)	High (10)	Low (2)	High (10)	Middle (4)	Middle (4)	Middle (5)
Redirection of misbehavior (%)/(#)	Middle (41%)/12	Middle (43%)/7	Low (29%)/35	High (75%)/8	Low (18%)/28	Middle (50%)/10	Middle (42%)/19	Middle (57%)/7	Middle (42%)/12
Reminders of positive behavior (#)	High (7)	Low (3)	Low (1)	Low (1)	Low (0)	Low (1)	Middle (4)	Low (2)	Low (3)
Overall Control	Mid/high + low coercive	Middle + low coercive	low + low/mid coercive	Mid/high + low coercive	Low + Mid/high coercive	mid/high + low coercive	Middle + low coercive	middle + low coercive	Middle + low coercive
OVERALL STYLE	Authoritative – HPB	Authoritative – LPB	Negative Directive	Authoritative – LPB	Authoritarian	Authoritative - HPB	Authoritative – HPB	Authoritative - LPB	Authoritative – HPB

Note. # indicates the number of times a component was observed during the observation. % indicates the percentage of time a component was observed during the observation. Positive levels of control are indicated by "+" within the Overall Control row. The Overall Style is based on a combination of control, nurturance, communication, and maturity demands components as found in Tables 10a, 10b, and 10c. See Appendix G for the observation checklist definitions and analysis explanation.

Table 10b

Teacher Observation Results: Nurturance Component

	Williams	Anderson	Gore	Jones	Brown	Davis	Petersen	Miller	Walker
Positive affect	High	High	low – negative	middle – neutral	low – negative	high	High	high	middle – neutral
Respect	High	High	low – negative	High	low – negative	high	High	high	High
Empathic responses (%)	high – 90%	NA	low – 1 missed	Low - 1 missed	low – 2 missed	high – 90%	High – 80%	high – 90%	NA
Affirmations/praise (#)	High (10)	Low (1)	Low (4)	Low (0)	Low (3)	Middle (6)	High (17)	Low (2)	High (12)
Hostility (#)	Low (0)	Low (3)	High (19)	Low (0)	High (24)	Low (0)	Low (1)	Low (0)	Low (0)
Overall Nurturance	High	middle/high – low praise	low – negative	middle – neutral	low – negative	high	high	middle/high	middle/high
OVERALL STYLE	Authoritative – HPB	Authoritative – LPB	Negative Directive	Authoritative – LPB	Authoritarian	Authoritative - HPB	Authoritative – HPB	Authoritative - LPB	Authoritative - HPB

Note. # indicates the number of times a component was observed during the observation. % indicates the percentage of time a component was observed during the observation. The Overall Style is based on a combination of control, nurturance, communication, and maturity demands components as found in Tables 10a, 10b, and 10c. See Appendix G for the observation checklist definitions and analysis explanation.

Table 10c

Teacher Observation Results: Communication and Maturity Demands Components

	Williams	Anderson	Gore	Jones	Brown	Davis	Petersen	Miller	Walker
Opinions and feelings (#)	NA	1	2	1	2 missed	2	2	2	NA
Responsiveness (#)	1 positive	1 positive	3 negative	2 positive	6 negative	3 positive	2 positive	10 positive	6 positive
Overall Communication	Not enough data	Medium	Low	Medium	Low	Medium	Medium	High	High
Overall Maturity Demands	High	Middle	Middle	High	Middle	High	Middle	High	High
OVERALL STYLE	Authoritative HPB	Authoritative – LPB	Negative Directive	Authoritative – LPB	Authoritarian	Authoritative - HPB	Authoritative – HPB	Authoritative – LPB	Authoritative - HPB

Note. # indicates the number of times a component was observed during the observation. The Overall Style is based on a combination of control, nurturance, communication, and maturity demands components as found in Tables 10a, 10b, and 10c. See Appendix G for the observation checklist definitions and analysis explanation.

The creation of the new classroom management style was needed in light of the observation results. The new style, negative directive, was observed in Ms. Gore who overall had low to medium control, and who was constantly trying to redirect the students, but was largely negative and had low nurturance. From Baumrind's classification, as previously explained in *Figure 3*, someone who has high control and high maturity demands, and low nurturance and communication, would be considered authoritarian; however, the observed teacher was not characteristic of an authoritarian teacher in that she was not coercive in nature and did not resort to punishment. Rather, she attempted to constantly redirect the students' behavior without providing or following through with consequences. As the observation progressed and the students continued to behave in the manner in which she did not like, she became increasingly more hostile. Baumrind's fourth parenting style, neglectful, also should be addressed due to the results of Ms. Gore's observation. This style is characteristic of someone who has low control and low nurturance; however, the teacher does not fit into this style either because she attempts to control the students. While this style may be found among parents, it is not a style that would typically be seen in the classroom.

In addition to the creation of the negative directive style, the authoritative style was split into two sub-styles: those teachers who had high emphasis on positive behaviors (HPB) and those who had low emphasis on positive behaviors (LPB). These teachers all were high in control and high in nurturance; however, those with low emphasis on positive behaviors were low in their affirmations and praise ($n \leq 3$) as well as low in their reminders about positive behavior ($n \leq 3$). The teachers who had a high emphasis on positive behaviors were all medium to high in either affirmations and praise,

reminders about positive behavior, or both. Table 11 contains a description of the differences between authoritative teachers who differ on their emphasis of positive behaviors.

The triangulation of the data sources suggest that those teachers who are not authoritative in nature do not realize how they act. Often it is assumed that teachers will purposely change their answers during interviews and on questionnaires due to social desirability; however, if this were the case then those teachers should also have changed their behavior during the observation. Since only the observations revealed the authoritarian and negative directive styles, the hypothesis was supported due to the fact that those teachers who were observed as not being authoritative did believe themselves to be authoritative in nature. However, further research should be conducted to determine if the results found in the current study are representative.

Table 11

Differences in Behavior Characteristics for Authoritative LPB and HPB Teachers

	Authoritative LPB	Authoritative HPB
Control	Teachers who rarely remind their students of positive ways to behave.	Teachers who often remind their students of positive ways to behave.
Nurturance	Teachers who infrequently offer encouragement to students or praise/affirm their students.	Teachers who offer encouragement to students or praise/affirm their students on a regular basis.
	Teachers who infrequently acknowledge a students' emotions and fail to provide comfort when needed	Teachers who regularly acknowledge the students' emotions and provide comfort when needed

Note. Authoritative LPB = Authoritative with low emphasis on positive behaviors; Authoritative HPB = Authoritative with high emphasis on positive behaviors

Hypothesis 4. Teachers will believe that their classroom management style, regardless of the type they use, will have a positive impact on their students' social skills, but they will not have an understanding of how it will influence their academic skills.

The first part of this hypothesis was supported: all teachers, regardless of their observed classroom management style, believed that their classroom management practices positively influenced their students' social skills. These data were taken from the teacher interviews. Teachers were specifically asked, "How do you think your classroom management style influences your students in their behaviors and actions?" Teachers who have positive beliefs about their classroom management naturally believe that those practices work for them. If they did not think that their classroom management practices positively influenced their students' behaviors, then they would change those practices, or seek help as to how to change them.

The teacher responses to the question previously mentioned were inductively analyzed for patterns and four patterns emerged. The first pattern focused on how the teacher sets up procedures, structures the environment, and sets up expectations for the students and how that positively influences the students. This pattern has more of a focus on the teacher's actions instead of the students'.

"I think it works really well, I think each year I get better at making a management plan. And they respond well to management and following procedures and I think that if I didn't have a lot of the procedures I did then they would behave differently. There would be more issues with touching, hitting, talking, those kind of things." (Ms. Williams)

"Yes, because they know that I expect certain things from them." (Ms. Petersen)

"I'd like to think they influence them in a positive way. Because they do fairly well. I think the way I structure things they respond fairly well to." (Ms. Walker)

The second pattern revolved around how the students respond well to the teacher because they want to please the teacher. This pattern takes the focus away from the classroom management strategies and practices of the teachers and instead revolves around the relationship that has been built between the teachers and students.

"I think they want to please me. They don't like to see me upset and it helps the to regulate themselves. They can see by my body language how I'm feeling. They can see by the tone of my voice how I'm feeling, and they try to please me and they know what gets my eyes and my smiles." (Ms. Anderson)

"I think they want to behave for me because they like me, so I think that helps my classroom management because they don't want to disappoint me... So I think them liking you is very helpful in your classroom management." (Ms. Miller)

The third pattern that emerged focused on how the students become more responsible and make better choices as a result of the teacher's classroom management practices.

"I think they get that they are responsible, responsible for cleaning up, for their actions, responsible for their stuff. And they start telling each other." (Ms. Gore)

"I think it makes my students mature and they are conscious of their actions and how it affects the other teachers and students around them and the classroom as a whole as well." (Ms. Brown)

"I think they are good citizens, overall on the playground and stuff they make good choices, and about who they really want to be friends with. I think it helps them make good decisions." (Ms. Davis)

Regardless of the type of response the teacher gave, all of the teachers believed that their classroom management strategies, practices, and style positively influence their students' behaviors and actions. This was also true for academics and contrary to the second part of the hypothesis which stated that teachers would not have an understanding of how their classroom management influences their students' academics. There was only one teacher who did not believe her classroom management style positively influenced the students. When asked, "Does your classroom management style influence your students' academics at all?", Ms. Anderson responded that:

"some of the kids fall through the cracks because I can't give them as much time as they need from me. I am always thinking about the group as a whole, I am not usually thinking about individuals.... And that's kind of bad, because everybody learns differently. But in my eyes I have so many kids I have to focus on the majority, so the ones that are kind of under the radar don't get as much support from me."

However, the eight other teachers all believed that their classroom management practices do positively influence their students' academics. When the question responses were analyzed across all of the teachers, two patterns emerged from the data. The first pattern, and the largest one, revolved around how the structure of the environment and the routines that the teacher has created influence their academics. This pattern

specifically centers on the actions of the teacher and how those actions create an environment that is conducive to learning and is focused on working.

"We have so much to teach and so much to do that time is an issue, so if you have better management you have more time to get things done. And then you can learn more b/c the classroom, instead of being noisy and loud, is more controlled and more of a learning environment for all the kids." (Ms. Williams)

"Because the way I am, how can I say it, we lose less time, we don't waste a lot of time. Once we are in the classroom and they got it down pact, they know how I am, and I know how they are. So less time is lost, and we can focus more on what we need to do." (Ms. Brown)

"Yes, because I have such a structured environment, and things aren't all over. Like they understand the mission, they understand what we are supposed to do, how we are supposed to do it, and when we are supposed to do it. And they know when we get done with it, we can move on to something else. And they know if there is time then we will dance and sing and shout and have a good time." (Ms. Davis)

"Yes, because they have to be on-task, even if they just want to draw a picture over here, I try to be very involved with what they are doing. Yeah, because if they are going nuts then they can't do what they are supposed to do." (Ms. Miller)

The second pattern that emerged focused on the expectations that the teacher has for the students and how those influence their academics. These teachers emphasized

that the things they tell their students influence the way in which the students work which corresponds to their learning.

> "Yeah, because I tell them that is their job. They know they are supposed to listen. They get that is their responsibility. The carpet is a learning place. When they sit there they are supposed to be quiet. When they get to school they are supposed to get to work." (Ms. Gore)

> "I let them know the expectations. I remind them… If there is a mistake, I help them see it and work through so they can correct it. Everyone makes mistakes, but the thing is, what do you do with your mistake. If you try to correct it, you have learned something." (Ms. Jones)

> "Absolutely. I tell my kids they are the smartest kids in this kindergarten. And whether or not it is true, they believe it. You have to give them something to believe in themselves because I don't think they always see it. I don't think they are always told elsewhere, 'you are the best, you are the brightest.'" (Ms. Petersen)

> "They know they are expected to do things." (Ms. Walker)

Overall, the hypothesis was partially supported since it was predicted that teachers would only think that their classroom management would influence their students' social skills but not their academic skills. The data revealed that the teachers believed that their classroom management would positively influence both their students' social skills and their academics. This was contrary to previous research in which the teachers did not understand the impact of their classroom management on student academics (Walker, 2008). However, it may be that the case study teachers have a better understanding of

their influence over the students since they are kindergarten teachers who are with their students all day and really get to learn about each student and see firsthand the impact that their classroom management has on the students compared to the teachers in the previous study who were middle school teachers and only with their students for 50 minutes a day.

Hypothesis 5: Students who have authoritative teachers will have higher levels of social and academic skills than those students whose teachers are permissive or authoritarian.

Hypothesis five was evaluated by conducting a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine the effect of the four observed classroom management styles (authoritative –HPB, authoritative-LPB, authoritarian, and negative directive) on the two dependent variables, the students' social skills and academic outcomes as measured by the SSIS and PALS scores. As displayed in Table 11, those teachers who were labeled authoritative-LPB had students with the highest mean social skill scores ($M = 99.33$; $SD = 7.37$) and the negative directive teacher had students with the lowest mean social skill scores ($M = 91.00$). For academics, the authoritative-LPB teachers had students with the highest mean scores ($M = 95.72$; $SD = 2.63$) and the authoritative-HPB teachers had students with the lowest mean scores ($M = 91.66$; $SD = 1.31$). Despite these differences in scores, there were no significant differences found among the four classroom management styles on the dependent measures, Wilks's $\Lambda = .18$, $F(6, 8) = 1.79$, $p = .22$. Table 11 contains the means and the standard deviations on the dependent variables for the four groups.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations on the Dependent Variables for the Four Groups

Classroom management style	Social Skills (SSIS)		Academics (PALS)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Authoritative-HPB	92.00	12.30	91.66	1.31
Authoritative-LPB	99.33	7.37	95.72	2.63
Authoritarian	95.00	*	95.61	*
Negative Directive	91.00	*	93.89	*

Note. *The authoritarian and negative directive styles only contain one score each.

While the results of the MANOVA revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the classroom management styles of the teachers and the social and academic skills of the students, Tables 12 and 13 display the teacher rank order based on the PALS scores and the SSIS scores, respectively.

The results of the rank ordering based on the PALS scores revealed that classroom management styles do not appear to make any difference for the academic skills of the students except in the case of the authoritative HPB teachers. The four teachers who were categorized as authoritative with a high emphasis on positive behaviors were ranked as the bottom four regarding PALS scores; however, it should be noted that all teachers did score above the set district benchmark score of 81.

The rank order based on the SSIS scores showed a different pattern than did that of the PALS scores. Out of the seven scores, since three teachers ranked sixth with a score of 91, the top four were either authoritative HPB or authoritative LPB. Additionally, those top four scored at least five points higher than the remaining teachers. This appears to show a trend that teachers with authoritative classroom management styles have students with higher social skills than those with other styles. It should be noted that Ms. Walker's social skills scores are 16 points lower than any of the other teachers. This may indicate that she is more critical when it comes to assessing the social skills of her students compared to the other teachers. Overall, based on the rank order results, hypothesis five is partially supported with authoritative teachers having students with higher social skills; however, the academic portion of the hypothesis was rejected since authoritative teachers do not have students with higher academics, and in fact those authoritative-HPB teachers have students with the lowest scores.

Table 13

Teacher Rank Order based on Class PALS Scores

Rank	Teacher	PALS Score	Style
1	Miller	99	Authoritative LPB
2	Brown	96	Authoritarian
3	Jones	95	Authoritative LPB
4	Gore	94	Negative Directive
5	Anderson	94	Authoritative LPB
6	Walker	93	Authoritative HPB
7	Petersen	91	Authoritative HPB
7	Williams	91	Authoritative HPB
8	Davis	90	Authoritative HPB

Table 14

Teacher Rank Order based on Class SSIS Scores

Rank	Teacher	SSIS Score	Style
1	Anderson	105	Authoritative LPB
2	Williams	102	Authoritative HPB
3	Jones	102	Authoritative LPB
4	Petersen	100	Authoritative HPB
5	Brown	95	Authoritarian
6	Gore	91	Negative Directive
6	Davis	91	Authoritative HPB
6	Miller	91	Authoritative LPB
7	Walker	75	Authoritative HPB

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this dissertation was to utilize Baumrind's parenting style construct with early childhood teachers as classroom management styles by first assessing the proportion of classroom management styles of VAECE educators, secondly to assess the beliefs and practices of classroom management styles among urban kindergarten teachers, and finally to examine whether those differing styles impacted students' social and academic skills. Analysis of data yielded multiple findings that were outlined in Chapter 4. This chapter begins with a brief overview of the study and its' outcomes followed by an examination of the implications of these findings. The chapter concludes with a discussion of some of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

Study Overview

While Baumrind's parenting styles have been studied at length for over 40 years, they have just recently been looked at through the lens of teaching styles (Walker, 2008). Since the concept 'authoritative teaching' has already been a focus of research and found to be beneficial to students compared to teachers who do not utilize those characteristics (Baker et al., 2009; Kuntsche et al., 2006; Wentzel, 2002), attempting to utilize Baumrind's parenting style framework with teachers was a logical choice. While Walker's study looked at the 'teaching styles' with middle schools teachers, there had been no known studies that examined the construct with early childhood teachers. Since early childhood teachers lay the foundation for school, it seemed critical to examine the

styles with kindergarten teachers. The current study not only implemented a case study with nine kindergarten teachers from an urban public school district, but also examined the proportion of styles with early childhood educators who were members of VAECE through an online questionnaire. The case study included a self-report questionnaire, teacher interviews, and classroom observations. The current study used the term classroom management styles to address the styles that the teachers used rather than the term teaching styles which had previously been used. This was due to the fact that the components that make up the styles are all aspects of classroom management and classroom management has been shown to be a critical aspect in the classroom (Bear, 1998; Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Wang et al., 1996).

New Classroom Management Styles

For seven out of the nine teachers, the *Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (*TSDQ*)*, interview, and observation results all revealed the teachers to be authoritative in nature. The triangulation of the three measures provides strong support that these teachers do indeed have an authoritative classroom management style. However, data from the remaining two teachers' observations differed from the self-report measures of the TSDQ and the interview.

The observations did yield a new classroom management style, negative directive, as well as breaking down the authoritative style into two substyles: those teachers with a high emphasis on positive behaviors (HPB) and those with a low emphasis on positive behaviors (LPB). While Baumrind's four parenting styles appear to cover all bases in theory, the observation with the negative directive teacher revealed that in actuality they do not. As previously discussed in Figure 3, the four styles are explained on a continuum

of the classroom management components: control, nurturance, communication, and maturity demands. The authoritarian teacher is one who has high levels of control and maturity demands but who has low nurturance and communication. The authoritative teacher is one who has high levels of control, maturity demands, nurturance, and communication. The permissive teacher has low levels of control and maturity demands, but high levels of nurturance and communication. Finally, the fourth style, which was not discussed in depth in this study due to the assumption that teachers would not have these characteristics because of the nature of the classroom, is a neglectful individual who has low levels of control, maturity demands, nurturance, and communication.

Negative directive was created because Ms. Gore displayed characteristics that did not appear to fit into any of the categories. Overall, she had medium levels of control and maturity demands and low levels of nurturance and communication. Her negative types of control were higher than her positive types of control. More specifically, she attempted to control the students through redirection but was unsuccessful in her many attempts, probably due to the fact that she was not consistent in her discipline. Moreover, as the students failed to comply to her constant redirecting she became increasingly more hostile and less positive. This caused her to rate very low on the nurturance scale. While she would have traditionally fallen into the authoritarian style based on her overall observation score, she did not utilize typical authoritarian control techniques such as being coercive, punitive, and a lack of explanations surrounding her demands. Further research should be conducted to assess whether this new style is commonly found among teachers, and whether teachers with certain characteristics are more likely to utilize this style compared to other teachers.

While Baumrind's styles are meant to provide an overview of classroom management styles, it is imperative that each teacher clearly fits into a style. Historically, researchers have merely classified parents into the four parenting styles in an attempt to understand how parenting styles influence children and adolescents (Baumrind et al., 2010; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Lamborn et al., 1991; Milevsky et al., 2007; Simons & Conger, 2007; Steinberg et al., 1992; Williams et al. 2009). However, no one has challenged her styles or attempted to add more based on their research. This is probably due to the fact that most studies have simply used questionnaires to classify parents and have not attempted to verify that the parents did indeed utilize the style through observations (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Kaufmann et al., 2000; Lamborn et al., 1991; Milevsky et al., 2007; Steinberg et al., 1992; Williams et al., 2009). Moreover, when observations were used, researchers were trying to fit the parents into the categories. The exception to this has been with researchers examining the parenting styles of Asian parents in an attempt to understand why child outcomes differed among Asian youth despite parents being labeled as authoritarian (Chao, 1994; Wu et al., 2002). These researchers have come to the conclusion, based on their research, that Baumrind's parenting styles are ethnocentric and do not measure all of the components of typical Asian parenting; perhaps, this is also the case with the classroom management styles in that there are components that are not measured appropriately. While the current study attempted to create an observation component that covered all aspects of the classroom management styles, it was based off of Baumrind's parenting style observation components and may have missed some aspects. Further research should be

conducted to assess whether there are additional components that need to addressed when examining classroom management styles.

While there were seven authoritative teachers in the current study that did all comfortably fit into the style, important differences were found during the observation analysis that created the need to breakdown the authoritative style into two substyles: authoritative HPB and authoritative LPB. It was important to break the authoritative style in the substyles since research has revealed that the best classroom managers use more positive strategies that prevent negative behaviors from occurring (Bear, 1998; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Examples of some of the strategies include making eye contact, use of humor, cuing appropriate behaviors, and praising peers (Bear, 1998).

While all authoritative teachers use these strategies at some level in the classroom, those that emphasize the positive behaviors may have an easier time with their classroom management by preventing more negative behaviors. When teachers are able to focus on the positive behaviors of their students, make a big deal about the behaviors they want to see, and recognize the children who are acting that way, the other children will often imitate those positive behaviors so that they too can receive some sort of recognition. This technique can work proactively and reduce future misbehavior or it can work to correct misbehavior. Another reason that those teachers who focus on the positive may have an easier time with classroom management is because they may be able to create more positive relationships with their students quicker and easier (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Those positive relationships then assist in decreasing problem behaviors in students since those relationships help the students understand the effects that their own behaviors have on others and in turn gives them a feeling of empowerment

because they recognize that their behavior provides them with control over the
environment (Hyson, 2004; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004).

Authoritative Teachers

The results of the *Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire* for both the
online respondents and the case study participants revealed that 100% of the respondents
were authoritative. These results were not expected since previous research using the
Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire revealed that parents rated themselves to
be authoritarian and permissive in addition to authoritative (Coolahan et al., 2002; Hart et
al., 1998, Wu et al., 2002). There are several predicted reasons why the results turned out
as they did. One explanation is that those individuals who chose to respond to the
questionnaire online, as well as those who volunteered to be part of the case study, are
better classroom managers than the general population of teachers. On the other hand,
they could have deliberately answered the questions in a more authoritative manner since
authoritative teaching is more socially acceptable and seen as better than authoritarian
and permissive styles.

Another explanation is that teachers may not fit neatly into Baumrind's parenting
styles, as the observations in this study proposed, despite what has previously been
suggested in research with teachers (Walker, 2008). This discrepancy between teachers
and parents may be due to the fact that teachers are professionals who have specific
training in classroom management whereas parents do not necessarily have any training
in discipline or even child development. Consequently, due to the lack of training and
education of parents, they may be more willing to be open and honest when it comes to
answering questions regarding their parenting practices since they don't have any

preconceived notions as to the ideal way to parent. Teachers, on the other hand, may choose to answer questions about their classroom management that show them in the best light since their prior training and experience have exposed them to best practices. This may help explain why the interview analysis showed all nine teachers to be authoritative.

Teachers' classroom management practices should be further observed and evaluated to assess whether the nine teachers depicted here cover all of the classroom management styles. This is important since the permissive style was not seen and a new style was added. However, since the teachers in this study volunteered to participate, it calls into question whether they are simply more comfortable with their classroom management practices compared to the average teacher and have better classroom management practices.

Teacher beliefs

The teachers in the case study overall had a strong sense of their classroom management style and the aspects that influenced it, understood why they utilized the techniques they did, and believed that their style positively impacted their students' social and academic skills. While some of these results were predicted, others were surprising because they were in opposition to results from previous studies. While it is understood that beliefs are complex and hard to measure, researchers strongly believe that beliefs are one of the greatest influences on practices which is why they are critical to understand (Bryan, 2003; Ernest, 1989; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). The literature on the influence of teachers' beliefs has revealed that beliefs come from personal experiences, previous schooling, and their formal teacher education in college (Kagan, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006). Surprisingly, there has been little research

specifically related to the origin of classroom management beliefs. Since classroom management is critical to the success of both teachers and students alike, one would think that there would be more research conducted on the topic. Most of the research to date has merely been conducted about the classroom management beliefs of teachers, not where they originate from (File & Gullo, 2002; Flores, 2006; Kaya et al., 2010; Martin et al., 1998; O'Loughlin, 1991; Tatto, 1996). This study adds to the body of literature since it specifically focuses on the origin of classroom management beliefs.

The results found that overall teachers believed that their experience in the classroom was the most significant influence followed by their college courses on the topic. It is not surprising that teachers believe that their classroom experience is the most significant influence on their classroom management beliefs since it is in the classroom that teachers take what they have learned in college, or through other experiences, and put it to use. They then continue to use what works, make modifications as they see necessary, and discard what doesn't work.

Interestingly, those teachers who had been teaching for over twenty years did not believe their college courses influenced their classroom management. One reason for this may be due to the fact that teacher education has changed and now focuses more on classroom management. Ms. Petersen commented that when she "went to school, [they] didn't have those classroom management classes". Another factor may simply be because over the years they have learned what works for them and they went to college so long ago that they don't specifically remember what aspects about classroom management they learned in college.

The teachers also generally believed that their classroom management would positively influence both their students' social skills and academics. These results suggest that the case study teachers have high levels of self-efficacy, the belief that they are "capable to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 783). Prior research has revealed that self-efficacy has an impact on a variety of essential student variables including achievement (Bergman et al., 1977; Moore & Esselman, 1992; Ross, 1992) and self-esteem and prosocial attitudes (Borton, 1991; Cheung & Cheng, 1997), in addition to teacher variables including classroom management strategies (Woolfolk, Rosol & Hoy, 1990) and teacher stress (Bliss & Finneran, 1991; Parkay, Greenwood, Olejnik & Proller, 1988).

When teachers have a strong belief in their ability to manage their classroom and influence their students, they are more persistent when they encounter problems as well as being more resilient. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) have broken self-efficacy into three realms: efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for student engagement. When teachers have higher levels of classroom management efficacy, as the case study teachers appear to have, they use more positive strategies (Emmer & Hickman, 1991); when they have higher levels of efficacy related to instructional strategies and student engagement, they have the belief that they are competent in teaching skills and getting and keeping their students' attention and interest. Based on their interviews, all of the case study teachers appeared to have high levels of all three types of self-efficacy and the fundamental beliefs that their behavior and actions would positively influence their students. It may be that teachers who have

more authoritative beliefs are more likely to have higher levels of self-efficacy (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). Teachers who believe that they are effective also are less likely to be stressed which may increase the nurturing component of classroom management styles. Finally, high efficacy teachers have higher expectations for their students and are more willing to work with struggling students which may help increase the communication between the teachers and students. Research has shown that higher student expectations lead to high student achievement (Johnson, Livingston, Schwartz, and Slate, 2000; Marzano, 2003).

However, the question is raised concerning the two teachers who were not observed to be authoritative. Their answers to the interviews were very similar to the other teachers and they too appeared to have high levels of self-efficacy. It may be that while the negative directive teacher and the authoritarian teacher did have high levels of all three types of self-efficacy, they simply do not realize how they actually act. For example, Ms. Brown specifically commented about how she "used to be a shark" when it came to classroom management. Perhaps her classroom management strategies have become better over the years compared to how they used to be, but she simply does not realize how she acts compared to other teachers. On the other hand, it could have been that those two teachers' classroom management self-efficacy was actually lower than that of the other case study teachers, but they did not want the researcher to know of their lack of confidence in themselves. If this was the case, then the observation may have created a significant amount of stress in the teachers which may have changed the way they normally act in the classroom. However, since the current study did not examine the self-efficacy of the teachers, there is no concrete way to know. Future research should

examine the relationship between self-efficacy and classroom management styles to assess if their truly is a correlation.

Student outcomes

The results of the MANOVA conducted to evaluate whether classroom management styles influenced the student academic and social outcomes revealed that there was no statistical significance on either dependent variable. The lack of statistical significance on the students' academics may be because this study used PALS scores as a measure of the students' academic outcome. Since the main concentration in kindergarten is language and reading skills, students spend a significant portion of the school day on activities relating to these skills whether it be in large or small group instruction, literacy related centers, or on the computer. This strong emphasis and time devoted to these skills may override the classroom management style of the teacher, regardless of what that style is.

Conversely, it is not shocking that there contained no differences in the academic outcomes between the classroom management styles, since research on parenting styles has consistently revealed that the authoritative style is only correlated with higher levels of achievement among Caucasian adolescents and Hispanic adolescents while the authoritarian style has been correlated to higher levels of academics among African American and Asian adolescents (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991). Since the current study took place in an urban school district, a majority of the students in the district are African American. The demographics for the district are as follows: 63% African American, 22% Caucasian, 6% Hispanic, 6% Multi-Racial, and 2% Asian. If the classroom management styles do indeed function like the parenting

styles, the demographics for the school district could help explain why the classroom management styles did not appear to make much of a difference except with the authoritative HPB teachers who all ranked the lowest. It could be that those authoritative teachers who focus on positive behaviors have more of an emphasis on relationships and nurturance and tend to emphasize relationships over academics. These teachers may believe that being positive impacts their students in the long term and their relationship is equally as important as academics. Therefore they may spend more time focusing on the emotional needs of the students compared to those teachers with other classroom management styles which may explain the slightly lower scores. Since all of the case study teachers' students scored well above the benchmark, the authoritative HPB teachers know that their students are still learning at a high level.

The social skills outcome of the students in this study is more perplexing since previous research has shown variations in social skills as a result of parenting styles (Baumrind, 1967; 1971; 1989; Baumrind et al., 2010; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Milevsky et al., 2007; Steinberg et al., 1991; Williams et al., 2009) and teaching styles (Walker, 2009) while the current study found no statistically significant differences in social skills as a result of the classroom management styles. Of course, the small sample size may have influenced the outcome. However, when examining the social skills from the case ranking, a different story emerges. The authoritative teachers had students with higher social skills compared to the teachers with the other styles. This supports the data on parenting styles that has revealed that the authoritative style is associated with higher levels of social skills among Caucasian, African American, Asian, and Hispanic adolescents (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg et al., 1991).

The impact on students' social skills may hold true among classroom management styles, as it does with parenting styles, since the relationship quality has been found to be the most important aspect of classroom management and the key for all other components (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Marzano and Marzano found that the positive teacher-student relationship helped the students succeed due to creating an environment where the students felt comfortable and independent. Another important aspect to consider is that research has consistently revealed that early positive student-teacher relationships predict later academic achievement as well as social skills (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004), meaning that kindergarten teachers who do have authoritative teaching styles and create positive relationships with their students do have an impact on those students' later academic skills. It may be the case that if the students of the current study were followed for several years, academic differences would emerge in favor of the authoritative teachers.

Limitations

This study contains a number of limitations that are inherent to its design. Limitations that are important to address include the small number of case study participants, low response rate for the online questionnaire, the volunteer basis of both case study participants and online questionnaire participants, and the short duration of the study. The case study was limited to nine participants which restricts the ability to generalize to larger populations. Further direct research or replications of the study would help contribute evidence to the understanding of classroom management styles.

Not only were there a small number of case study participants, but there was a very low response rate for the online questionnaire. Information regarding the

questionnaire was distributed to approximately 1500 individuals and only 80 completed the questionnaire. The low response rate could have significantly altered the results since the answers from those who responded may be significantly different from those who chose not to respond, resulting in a biased estimate of the characteristics of the population (Bean & Roszkowski, 1995). Additionally, since all of the participants volunteered to take part in the study, these individuals may not be representative of the population. In regards to the questionnaire, the individuals that chose to participate not only may be more comfortable with their classroom management skills, but they may not have accurately answered the questions whether it was unintentional or intentional. Teachers may think that they are better classroom managers than they actually are and unintentionally report themselves as so or the teachers may answer the questions as to what sounds more socially acceptable. This is also true for the interview and observations in the case study; the case study teachers may not be representative of urban kindergarten teachers and may have better classroom management strategies and beliefs than the population. On the other hand, the teachers may know what is more socially acceptable and so may act differently than they normally do during the observation and answer questions about their beliefs and practices in ways that are more socially acceptable.

Another limitation arises from the fact that there is no way to determine whether the self-report measures or the observation are correct in their designation of classroom management style. While both the self-report measures as well as the observations have their strengths and weaknesses, there is no concrete way to evaluate which is more accurate; however, previous research on the impact of parenting styles and involvement

on adolescent achievement has shown that adolescents' reports of their own parents' parenting styles were more predictive of achievement compared to parental reports (Paulson, 1994) thus suggesting that self-report data from parents (or teachers) may be biased and not be as accurate as data obtained from another source like an observer.

The short duration of the study also calls into question the validity of the identified classroom management styles of the teachers. Since the study took place in the spring semester of the school year, and only included a one hour observation in addition to the teachers' self reports about their classroom management style, the question arises as to whether the teachers accurately portrayed their classroom management styles or whether they were acting differently due to the observation. Furthermore, teachers' classroom management styles may change throughout the year as they develop relationships with their students and as the students understand the expectations of the teacher. A teacher may start out in the beginning of the year as more authoritarian and end up at the end of the year as more authoritative.

Regarding the student outcomes, using the SSIS has its' own limitations when trying to understand the social skills for kindergarten students. Given that the teachers rated their own students' social skills using the SSIS, the reliability of the scores may be questioned. The differences in the social skills scores may be simply due to the variations in how the teachers rated the students, since each teacher has her own opinion and way to rate her students.

Future research

While this study examined the classroom management styles of kindergarten teachers from an urban public school district, future research should examine other types

of kindergarten and elementary teachers: those in non-urban school districts and those in private schools. Additionally, pre-kindergarten and early childhood teachers with and without licensure in various environments should also be examined to evaluate whether the classroom management styles taken from Baumrind fit these populations of teachers or whether additional styles are necessary as the current study suggested.

While the current study did not reveal any statistically significant influence of classroom management styles on students' social and academic skills, future research should also be conducted on whether students' social and academic skills are enhanced or diminished when parenting and classroom management styles match or mismatch since parenting styles have historically shown to influence students' social and academic skills. Furthermore, research on the interaction of parenting and classroom management styles of young children in childcare could examine the implications on social skill outcomes starting with toddlers and young preschoolers.

Conclusion

The findings of this study are important for the field of education and classroom management. This study has opened the door for Baumrind's parenting styles to be used with early childhood teachers as classroom management styles. Baumrind's parenting styles have been a foundation for research in the parenting literature for over forty years, and being able to create a bridge to the teaching literature may help answer critical questions regarding the impact of teachers on students. Since this study mainly examined the classroom management styles of nine teachers, it is not meant to be generalized to the kindergarten teaching population; rather it was meant to explore the link between parenting and classroom management styles with teachers of young children.

The study revealed that the case study teachers did indeed understand their classroom management techniques and philosophies, where they came from, and how they impacted their students; however, the study also raises significant questions as to why there were discrepancies between some of the teachers' self-report data and observation data. While this discrepancy is seen in nearly all research conducted on teachers' beliefs and practices, the question remains as to whether the misinformation is from the teachers' viewpoint or from the researcher's. Additionally, the question arises as to whether teachers' classroom management styles truly do fit in with Baumrind's framework or whether there needs to be adjustments made. This study appeared to be the first one conducted utilizing Baumrind's framework with teachers of young children and assessing the impact of those styles on student outcomes. It provided further evidence to support using the framework with classroom management styles as well as helping understand the beliefs and practices of teachers and why they use the techniques that they do in the classroom which ultimately will help students be successful in both school and life.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR CASE STUDY PARTICIPANTS

PROJECT TITLE: Preschool Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices and their Implications on Student Outcomes

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BACKGROUND:
The purposes of this form are to give you information that may affect your decision whether to say YES or NO to participation in this research, and to record the consent of those who say YES. You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Please ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear of if you need more information.

The purpose of this study is to better understand the classroom management styles of preschool teachers by assessing the proportion of classroom management styles in the preschool teachers who are members of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators; additionally, it is to assess whether preschool teachers' have an understanding of their classroom management style as well as if their beliefs are similar to their actual classroom management style practices. Finally, there is interest in whether students in classrooms with teachers who utilize different teaching styles will have varying levels of social and academic skills.

STUDY PROCEDURE:
Your expected time commitment for this study is approximately three hours and includes completing a classroom management style questionnaire (approximately 15 minutes), taking part in an interview regarding your classroom management beliefs (approximately 30-45 minutes), allowing your classroom to be observed (approximately 60 minutes), and completing a social skills rating scale on five of your students (approximately 60 minutes). The interview and observation will be scheduled at a time that works best you.

The observation will be completed prior to the interview so that the researcher is not biased during the observation. The questionnaire and social skills rating scales will be given to you at the time of the observation and you will be asked to complete them and mail them back to the researcher in a preaddressed and stamped envelope within two weeks following the observation.

RISKS:

The risks of this study are minimal. These risks are similar to those you experience when disclosing work-related information to others. You may decline to answer any or all questions in the questionnaire or the interview and you may terminate your involvement at any time if you choose.

BENEFITS:

There will be no direct benefit to you for your participation in this study. However, we hope that the information obtained from this study may help you better understand your own classroom management beliefs and practices and how those may impact your students.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

For the purposes of this research project, participant data will be kept confidential except in cases where the researcher is legally obligated to report specific incidents. These incidents may include, but may not be limited to, incidents of abuse. Every effort will be made by the researcher to preserve your confidentiality. Each participant will be assigned a code number that will be used on all researcher notes and documents. In addition, completed questionnaires, observation notes, interview transcriptions, and any other identifying participant information will be kept in a locked file cabinet in the personal possession of the researcher. When no longer necessary for research, all materials will be destroyed. Each participant has the opportunity to obtain a transcribed copy of their interview. Participants should tell the researcher if a copy of the interview is desired.

PERSON TO CONTACT:

Should you have any questions about the research or any related matters, please contact the researchers:

Andrea DeBruin-Parecki, PhD
757-683-6759
Adebruin@odu.edu

Lauren Florin, MSEd
757-404-0631
Lflorin@odu.edu

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in this study. If you do decide to take part in this study, you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part in this study, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. You are free to not answer any question or questions if you choose. This will not affect the relationship you have with the researcher.

UNFORSEEABLE RISKS:

There may be risks that are not anticipated. However every effort will be made to minimize any risks.

COMPENSATION:

There is no monetary compensation to you for your participation in this study.

CONSENT:

By signing this form, you are saying several things. You are saying that you have read this form or have had it read to you, that you are satisfied that you understand this form, the research study, and its risks and benefits. The researchers should have answered any questions you may have had about the research. If you have any questions later on, then the researchers should be able to answer them:

Dr. Andrea DeBruin-Parecki   Lauren Florin
757-683-6759   757-404-0631
Adebruin@odu.edu   lflorin@odu.edu

If at any time you feel pressured to participate, or if you have any questions about your rights or this form, then you should call Dr. George Maihafer, the current IRB chair, at 757-683-4520, or the Old Dominion University Office of Research, at 757-683-3460.

And importantly, by signing below, you are telling the researcher YES, that you agree to participate in this study. The researcher should give you a copy of this form for your records.

Subject's Printed Name & Signature	Date

INVESTIGATOR'S STATEMENT

I certify that I have explained to this subject the nature and purpose of this research, including benefits, risks, costs, and any experimental procedures. I have described the rights and protections afforded to human subjects and have done nothing to pressure, coerce, or falsely entice this subject into participating. I am aware of my obligations under state and federal laws, and promise compliance. I have answered the subject's questions and have encouraged him/her to ask additional questions at any time during the course of this study. I have witnessed the above signature(s) on this consent form.

Investigator's Printed Name & Signature	Date

APPENDIX B

HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW COMMITTEE APPROVAL

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY

DARDEN COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
OFFICE OF THE DEAN
NORFOLK, VIRGINIA 23529-0156
PHONE (757) 683-3938
FAX (757) 683-5083

February 16, 2011   Proposal Number __201002048__

Professor Debruin-Parecki:

Your proposal submission titled, "**Kindergarten Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices and their Implications on Students' Social and Academic Outcomes**" has been deemed EXEMPT from IRB review by the Human Subjects Review Committee of the Darden College of Education. If any changes occur, especially methodological, notify the Chair of the DCOE HSRC, and supply any required addenda requested of you by the Chair. You may begin your research.

We have approved your request to pursue this proposal indefinitely, provided no modifications occur. Also note that if you are funded externally for this project in the future, you will likely have to submit to the University IRB for their approval as well.

If you have not done so, PRIOR TO THE START OF YOUR STUDY, **you must send a signed and dated hardcopy of your exemption application submission to the address below.** Thank you.

Edwin Gómez, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Human Subjects Review Committee, DCOE
Human Movement Studies Department
Old Dominion University
2021 Student Recreation Center
Norfolk, VA 23529-0196
757-683-6309 (ph)

APPENDIX C

NORFOLK PUBLIC SCHOOLS GROUP ASSIGNMENT

Norfolk Public Elementary Schools: Group Assignment based on Free and

Reduced Lunch Percentages

Group Number	School Name	Percent of free and reduced lunch
1	LARCHMONT ELEM.	20.00%
1	GHENT ELEM	28.77%
1	W.H. TAYLOR ELEM.	31.35%
1	TARRALLTON ELEM.	53.24%
1	LARRYMORE ELEM.	54.45%
1	WILLOUGHBY ELEM.	55.10%
2	CAMP ALLEN ELEM.	57.04%
2	WILLARD MODEL ELEM.	61.12%
2	**TITLE 1 ↓** POPLAR HALLS ELEM	63.29%
2	CROSSROADS ELEM	68.21%
2	SHERWOOD FOREST ELEM.	70.31%
2	FAIRLAWN ELEM.	71.00%
3	RICHARD BOWLING ELEM.	73.83%
3	OAKWOOD ELEM.	73.85%
3	TANNERS CREEK ELEMENTARY	73.91%
3	COLEMAN PLACE ELEM.	76.04%

3	NORVIEW ELEM.	80.91%
3	CHESTERFIELD ACADEMY ELEM.	84.25%
3	ST. HELENA ELEM.	85.03%

Note: For each group, three schools were randomly selected. In each school, one teacher agreed to participate.

APPENDIX D

TEACHING STYLES AND DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

Preschool Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices and their Implications on Student Outcomes

The purpose of this research study is to better understand preschool teachers' classroom management beliefs and practices and how they impact students' social and academic skills. This questionnaire is designed to measure your classroom management style. Please read each statement and rate the frequency of each belief or behavior. After finishing the survey, please return it in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope.

Your answers will be confidential, and no one at your school will have access to your survey responses. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. The questionnaire has been coded with a number that is associated with you that only the researcher knows.

It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Participation in this study is voluntary. You can choose not to take part and you can also choose not to finish the questionnaire or omit any question you prefer not to answer.

By returning this questionnaire, you are giving your consent to participate.

Thank you for your help! We really appreciate it.

Lauren Florin, MSEd
Old Dominion University
(757) 404-0631

Andrea DeBruin-Parecki, PhD
Old Dominion University

Teaching Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire

Information: Please provide information about yourself prior to responding to this questionnaire.

1. Highest degree earned *(Circle one)*   Associates   Bachelors   Masters

Other _____

2. Certification *(Circle one)*   none   Pk-3   Pk-6

Other _____

3. Area(s) of Specialization   Elementary Ed   Early Childhood Ed
Special Ed *(Circle all that apply)*   Other _____

4. How many years have you taught preschool/prek? (including this year) _____ years

5. What other grades have you taught and for how long?   __ __ grade   __ __ years

   __ __ grade   __ __ years

   __ __ grade   __ __ years

6. Your ethnic status:

_____African American/Black   _____Asian/Pacific Islander

_____Caucasian   _____American Indian/Alaskan Native

_____Hispanic/Latino   _____Multi-ethnic (individuals identifying with more than one of the above categories

7. Your age range:

_____18 - 24   _____25 - 34   _____35 - 44   _____45 - 54

_____55 – 64   _____> 64

Instructions: The following pages contain a list of behaviors that teachers may exhibit when interacting with their students. The questions are designed to measure how often you exhibit certain behaviors toward your students

		Never	Once in a while	Half the time	Very often	Always
1	I know the names of my students' friends	1	2	3	4	5
2	I find it difficult to discipline my students	1	2	3	4	5
3	I give praise when my students are good.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I joke and play with my students	1	2	3	4	5
5	I withhold lecturing and/or criticism even when my students act contrary to my wishes.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I show sympathy when my students are hurt or frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
7	I discipline by taking privileges away from my students with little if any explanations	1	2	3	4	5
8	I spoil my students	1	2	3	4	5
9	I give comfort and understanding when my students are upset.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I raise my voice when my students misbehave.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I am easygoing or relaxed with my students.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I allow my students to annoy other students	1	2	3	4	5
13	I tell my students my expectations regarding behavior before they engage in an activity.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I lecture and criticize to make my students improve.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I show patience with my students.	1	2	3	4	5

16	I state consequences to my students and do not actually do them.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I am responsive to my students' feelings or needs.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I allow my students to give input into classroom rules.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I argue with my students.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I appear confident about my teaching abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I give my students reasons why rules should be obeyed.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I appear to be more concerned with my own feelings than with my students' feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I tell my students that I appreciate what they try or accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I discipline by putting my students off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I help my students to understand the impact of behavior by encouraging them to talk about the consequences of their actions.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I am afraid that disciplining my students for misbehavior will cause the child to not like me.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I take my students' desires into account before asking them to do something.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I get angry, and show my disapproval, when my students do not listen or behave.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I am aware of problems or concerns that my students have in school.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I warn my students with consequences more often than actually giving them.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I express affection by smiling at or hugging my students.	1	2	3	4	5

32	I ignore my students' misbehaviors	1	2	3	4	5
33	I carry out discipline after my students misbehave.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I apologize to my students when I make a mistake in teaching	1	2	3	4	5
35	I tell my students what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I give in to my students when they cause a commotion about something	1	2	3	4	5
37	I talk it over and reason with my students when they misbehave.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I disagree with my students	1	2	3	4	5
39	I allow my students to interrupt others.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I have warm and nurturing times with my students	1	2	3	4	5
41	When two students are fighting, I discipline them first and ask questions later.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I encourage my students to freely express themselves even when disagreeing with me or other teachers	1	2	3	4	5
43	I use rewards to get my students comply with my wishes.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I criticize when my students' behaviors doesn't meet my expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
45	I show respect for my students' opinions by encouraging them to express themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I set strict, well-established rules for my students	1	2	3	4	5
47	I explain to my students how I feel about their good and bad behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I warn my students with consequences with little or no justifications	1	2	3	4	5

49 I take into account my students' preferences in making plans for the class.	1	2	3	4	5
50 When my students ask why they have to conform, I state because I said so, or I am your teacher and I want you to	1	2	3	4	5
51 I am unsure of how to solve my students' misbehavior.	1	2	3	4	5
52 I explain the consequences of my students' behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
53 I demand that my students do things.	1	2	3	4	5
54 I channel my students' misbehavior into a more acceptable activity.	1	2	3	4	5
55 I emphasize the reasons for rules.	1	2	3	4	5
56 I encourage my students to talk about their problems.	1	2	3	4	5

Adapted from Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PTSQ) by Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, and Hart (1995).

APPENDIX E

SOCIAL SKILLS IMPROVEMENT SYSTEM RATING SCALE

SSiS Social Skills Improvement System

Rating Scales
Teacher
Hand-Scoring Form

Frank M. Gresham, PhD, and Stephen N. Elliott, PhD

Instructions

This booklet contains statements describing a student's behavior and level of academic performance It consists of three parts Social Skills Problem Behaviors, and Academic Competence

Social Skills & Problem Behaviors

Please read each item and think about this student's behavior during the past two months Then, decide **how often** this student displays the behavior

    If this student **never** exhibits the behavior, circle the **N**
    If this student **seldom** exhibits the behavior, circle the **S**
    If this student **often** exhibits the behavior, circle the **O**
    If this student **almost always** exhibits the behavior circle the **A**

For each of the Social Skills items, please also rate **how important** you think the behavior is for success in your classroom

    If you think the behavior is **not important** for success in your classroom, circle the
    If you think the behavior is **important** for success in your classroom, circle the
    If you think the behavior is **critical** for success in your classroom, circle the

Academic Competence (for students from kindergarten through Grade 12)

Please assess this student's academic or learning behaviors in your classroom Compare this student with other students in the same classroom

Mark all items using a scale of 1 to 5 Mark "1" if this student is in the lowest 10 % of the class Mark "5" if this student is in the highest 10% of the class

Lowest 10%	Next Lowest 20%	Middle 40%	Next Highest 20%	Highest 10%
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

How to Mark Your Responses

When marking responses, use a sharp pencil or ballpoint pen, do not use a felt tip pen or marker Press firmly, and be certain to **circle** completely the letter you choose, like this.

N S Ⓞ A

If you wish to change a response, mark an **X** through it, and **circle** your new choice, like this

N Ⓢ O Ⓧ

Please mark every item. In some cases, you may not have observed this student perform a particular behavior If you are uncertain of your response to an item, give your best estimate There are no right or wrong answers

Before starting, be sure to complete the information in the boxes on the right-hand side of page 3.

Remember | *Please mark*

How Important

Social Skills

N S O A		N S O A		N S O A
1		11		21
2		12		22
3		13		23
4		14		24
5		15		25
6		16		26
7		17		27
8		18		28
9		19		29
10		20		30

Problem Behaviors

N S O A		N S O A		N S O A
47		53 Fidgets or moves around too much		59
48		54 Has stereotyped motor behaviors		60
49		55		61
50 Becomes upset when routines change		56 Withdraws from others		62
51		57		63
52		58		64

Academic Competence

(for students from kindergarten through Grade 12)

Remember.

| 77 | 1 2 3 4 5 | 79 |
| 78 | 1 2 3 4 5 | 80 |

k every item.

kills

N S O A	31. Takes criticism without getting upset.	N S O A	41. Responds appropriately when pushed or hit.	N S O A
n i c		n i c		n i c

N S O A — 32. Respects the property of others. — N S O A — 42. Takes responsibility for part of a group activity. — N S O A

N S O A — 33. Participates in games or group activities. — N S O A — 43. Introduces herself/himself to others. — N S O A

N S O A — 34. Uses appropriate language when upset. — N S O A — 44. Makes a compromise during a conflict. — N S O A

N S O A — 35. Stands up for others who are treated unfairly. — N S O A — 45. Says nice things about herself/himself without bragging. — N S O A

N S O A — 36. Resolves disagreements with you calmly. — N S O A — 46. Stays calm when disagreeing with others. — N S O A

N S O A — 37. Follows classroom rules. — N S O A

N S O A — 38. Shows concern for others. — N S O A

N S O A — 39. Starts conversations with peers. — N S O A

N S O A — 40. Uses gestures or body appropriately with others. — N S O A

naviors

N S O A — 65. Is inattentive. — N S O A — 71. Gets distracted easily. — N S O A

N S O A — 66. Has nonfunctional routines or rituals. — N S O A — 72. Uses odd physical gestures in interactions. — N S O A

N S O A — 67. Fights with others. — N S O A — 73. Talks back to adults. — N S O A

N S O A — 68. Says bad things about self. — N S O A — 74. Acts sad or depressed. — N S O A

N S O A — 69. Disobeys rules or requests. — N S O A — 75. Lies or does not tell the truth. — N S O A

N S O A — 70. Has low energy or is lethargic. — N S O A — 76. Acts anxious with others. — N S O A

petence

1 2 3 4 5 — 81. In terms of grade-level expectations, this student's skills in mathematics are: — 1 2 3 4 5 — 83. Compared with other students in my classroom, this student's intellectual functioning is: — 1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5 — 82. This student's overall motivation to succeed academically is: — 1 2 3 4 5

3

APPENDIX F

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Kindergarten Classroom Management Observation - Data Collection Sheet							
Teacher # -	Subject/Activity Observed -						Time -
Teacher Control							
							Comments
Teacher coercion							
Restriction of movement							
Consistency – T enforces							
-T doesn't enforce							
Expectations and rules – T brings up rules							
-T doesn't bring up rules							
Redirection of misbehavior -focus on positive							
-focus on negative							
Nurturance							
	10min	20min	30min	40min	50min	60min	
Positive Affect							
Respect							
Empathic responses – attempts							
-opportunities missed							
Affirmations							
Praise							
Hostility							
Communication							
Uses reason to obtain compliance							
-child responds to T comment							

Encourages verbal give and take		
-prompted by teacher		
-not prompted by teacher		
-solution achieved		
-no solution achieved		
-opportunities not taken		
Maturity Demands		
Respects child's decision - attempts		
-opportunities		
Permissiveness for exploration - attempts		
-opportunities		

APPENDIX G

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST DEFINITIONS AND ANALYSIS EXPLANATION

Teacher Control					
	explanation	Criteria	Low	Medium	High
Teacher Coercion	The teacher's attempts to compel students into compliance through yelling, threats, and harsh punishments	Frequency	≤ 5		≥15
Restriction of movement*	The teacher's attempts to control the movement and placement of students during activities by using direct command based on movement	Frequency	? based on data		
Consistency^	The teacher consistently enforces directives and follows through with consequences within two times of stating directives	Percent that the teacher enforces directives and follows through with consequences	≤30%		≥70 %
Expectations and Rules	The teacher brings up rules based on students' behavior	Percent of attempts based on opportunity	≤30%		≥70%
Redirection of Misbehavior*	The teacher focuses on the positive behavior (rather than the negative), and uses positive consequences rather than negative	Percent of focus on positive rather than negative	≤30%		≥70%

Nurturance					
	Explanation	Criteria	Low	Medium	High
Positive Affect*	The teacher displays smiling, laughter, and enthusiasm	Every ten minutes a rating will be given for the general feeling of positive affect shown by the teacher	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Respect*	The teacher uses eye contact, maintains a warm, calm voice, uses respectful language	Every ten minutes a rating will be given for the general feeling of respect shown by the teacher to the students	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Empathic responses#	The teacher acknowledges the students' emotions and provides comfort when needed	Percent of attempts based on opportunity to respond	≤30		≥70
Affirmations# and Praise+	The teacher offers encouragement to students and affirmations of children's knowledge, skills, and behaviors	Frequency	≤3		≥10
Hostility^	The teacher displays irritability, anger, harsh voice, or escalating negativity	Frequency	≤3		≥15

Communication					
	Explanation	Criteria	Low	Medium	High
Uses reason to obtain compliance^	The teacher explains reason behind her directive and describes consequences of actions (b) as well as listening to child's arguments if any are presented	Frequency	Based on data		
Encourages verbal give and take^	The teacher prompts the students to express their ideas and find solutions in situations that arise due to peer conflict	Percent of attempts based on opportunity (teacher prompted versus not prompted; solutions made or not)	≤30		≥70
Solicits students opinions and feelings	The teacher asks students about their opinions and feelings when the opportunity exists	Percent of attempts based on opportunity	≤30		≥70
Responsiveness	Any response given by the teacher to a student's statement.	Percent of students' initiations followed by response based on opportunity	≤30		≥70
Maturity Demands					
	Explanation	Criteria	Low	Medium	High
Respects child's decision^	The teacher retracts a directive on the basis of child's argument	Percent of attempts based on opportunity	≤30		≥70
Permissiveness for exploration and experimentation^	The teacher provides opportunities for the students to make their own choices (where to sit on the carpet, where to sit at their tables, what centers to participate in, choosing partners during activity)	Percent of choices given based on opportunities that are presented	≤30		≥70

APPENDIX H

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Preschool Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices and the Implications
on Student Outcomes: Interview Questions

Control

1. How do you think children's behavior should be managed? What do you think
    are the best ways of managing the behavior of preschool children? What kind of
    consequences are the best when dealing with misbehavior?

(probes – ways of managing behavior) (a) time out (b) praising positive behaviors (c)
ignoring negative behavior (c) yelling/scolding (d) taking away privileges

2. Some people believe that teachers know what is best for their students. Do you
    agree or disagree and why? Do you think that students should be obey their
    teachers? Why?

(if teacher replies affirmatively, the following probes are appropriate)
    (a) Respect for teachers
    (b) Teacher's rights
    (c) Child's safety and welfare
    (d) Conformity is what is expected
    (e) Child's best interests in the long run

(if teacher replies negatively, the following probes are appropriate)
    (a) Child's right to make own decision
    (b) Teacher's reluctance to enforce own standards
    (c) Teacher's uncertainty as to what is right

3. Some teachers expect their students to obey immediately when they are directed
    to do something. Others do not think it's terribly important for a child to obey
    right away. How do you feel about this?

4. Do you think that teachers should supervise the activities of their students rather
    closely or do you think that they should allow their students more freedom?
    (a) During free play or center time
    (b) Outside on the playground
    (c) Checking to see that directives are carried out

5. Would you say that you have a position about classroom management which helps to guide you? Where do you think your classroom management philosophy/position originated from? Do you think it was your experience in school growing up, your experience in college, your teaching experience, something else, or a combination of factors?

Maturity Demands

6. In what areas, if any, do you think preschool children should be able to make decisions affecting their own behavior?
    a. Probe for: (a) where to sit at classroom tables or at circle time (b) which centers to participate in

7. Do you think that a student should be asked to share in the work of the classroom?
    a. Classroom jobs   b. help cleaning up throughout the day

8. How much would you expect in the way of conscience development from a four-year-old
    a. Injury to another child   b. not telling the truth

Communication

9. Should a child be allowed to disagree openly with his teacher? Why or why not?

10. Do you believe that teachers should express their negative feelings to their students just as she feels them or she should control what and how she communicates to the students?
    a. Regarding the conduct of the student;   b. regarding how the actions of the student make her feel;   c. regarding her feelings about the child in general

Nurturance

11. Do you believe that teachers should express their positive feelings to their students just as she feels them or she should control what and how she communicates to the students? How openly affectionate should preschool teachers be?
    a. Appropriateness of physical expression – hugs   b. verbal approval

12. How important do you think it is for a teacher to have a positive relationship with her students?
   a. If teacher agrees: How do you think a teacher should try and develop the relationship?

Overall

13. Describe your "classroom management style".

14. How do you think that your classroom management style influences your students?
   (a) Child behaviors/actions? Positive/negative
   (b) Academics? Their ability to learn? How much they learn?

Teacher performance

15. What do you do to get your students to behave as you want them to behave? What works best for you?
   a. Time out; b. take away privileges; c. making them feel ashamed or embarrassed; d. ignoring negative behavior; e. focusing on positive behaviors

16. How much do you try to explain things and reason with your students?

17. What do you do if your students are unusually good? Do you let them know you are pleased? How?

18. What classroom rules do you have? How did you come up with them?

19. When your students need to be disciplined, who usually takes care of it? You, your assistant, the administration?

20. How often do you tell your students to do something and then for some reason do not follow through? If a student doesn't do something you ask him to do, perhaps not cleaning up, what do you do then?

APPENDIX I

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STYLE PROFILES

Authoritative

- Control – high demandingness. Discipline is both firm and consistent. Teachers try to direct the students using logic and explanations.

- Nurturance – high nurturance. Teachers show their students that they care through both physical and emotional means. Teachers are supportive of students when need be. Teachers are cognitively responsive to their students.

- Maturity Demands – autonomy is valued. Teachers believe that students are capable of making decisions and given multiple opportunities (examples include classroom jobs, students using the restroom without asking, etc.).

- Communication – encourage verbal give and take with both adults and peers. Teachers give reasons behind requests. Teachers ask students about their opinions and feelings.

Authoritarian

- Control – highly demanding. Teacher is ultimate authority. Students are expected to listen to teacher immediately and follow directions without reasons given. Discipline is usually punitive and coercive with forceful measures taken when needed.

- Nurturance – low nurturance. Teachers do not believe that they should be physically or emotionally nurturing with their students. Teachers are not responsive toward their students.

- Maturity Demands – limited autonomy. Teachers do not believe that students are capable of making sound decisions by themselves. Teachers limit the amount of opportunities to make decision.

- Communication – no verbal give and take. Communication is one way, from teacher to student. Teachers do not ask students about their opinions and feelings.

Permissive

- Control – low demandingness – teacher gives students as much freedom and control as possible. Tries to be non-punitive and affirmative toward child's desires and actions. Avoids exercising control.

- Nurturance – high nurturance. Teachers show their students that they care through both physical and emotional means. Teachers are supportive of students when need be. Teachers are cognitively responsive to their students.

- Maturity Demands - autonomy is valued. Teachers believe that students are capable of making decisions and given multiple opportunities to regulate their own actions (examples include classroom jobs, students using the restroom without asking, etc.).

- Communication – encourage verbal give and take with both adults and peers. Teachers give reasons behind requests. Teachers ask students about their opinions and feelings.

VITA

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EDUCATION

Ph.D., 2011, Early Childhood Education. Old Dominion University. Dissertation title: Kindergarten Teachers' Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices and their Implications on Students' Social and Academic Outcomes.

M.S. Ed, 2006, Early Childhood Education. Old Dominion University.

B.S., 2004, Psychology. Old Dominion University

EXPERIENCE

Adjunct Instructor, Old Dominion University. Norfolk, Va. August 2011 – present. Taught *The Child and the Family* (TLED690).

Graduate Teaching Assistant, Old Dominion University. Norfolk, Va. August 2009 – August 2011. Taught undergraduate and graduate level education courses. Courses included: *The Child and the Family* (TLED690) and *Fundamentals of Human Growth and Development, birth through adolescents* (SPED313).

Adjunct Instructor, Old Dominion University. Norfolk, Va. July 2009 – August 2009. Taught *Foundations and Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood Education* (TLED474/574).

Child Development Center Instructor, Old Dominion University. Norfolk, Va. July 2007 – July 2009. Taught class of three year olds and supervised undergraduate and graduate practicum students.

Kindergarten Teacher, Virginia Beach City Public Schools. Virginia Beach, Va. January 2007 - June 2007.

Preschool Teacher, Sunnybrook Day School., Virginia Beach, Va. August 2004 – June 2006.

PRESENTATIONS

Florin, L. (2009, March). *Integrating Social-Emotional Learning into the Preschool Classroom.* Presented at the annual meeting of the Virginia Association of Early Childhood Educators, Richmond, Virginia.

Florin, L. (2008, November). *Emotional Intelligence in the Early Childhood Classroom.* Presented at the annual meeting of the National Association of Educators of Young Children, Dallas, Texas.

LICENSURES

Virginia Postgraduate Professional Teaching License, Virginia Department of Education, 2006 – June 2015.

MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

National Association of Educators of Young Children, 2007 – Present

COMMUNITY SERVICE

Church Preschool Teacher Volunteer, Spring Branch Community Church, 2006 - Present