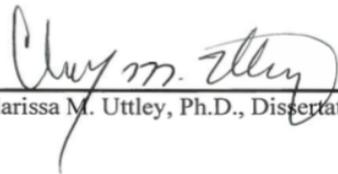AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

Jennifer L. Blake for the degree of Doctor of Education in Curriculum and Instruction presented on March 26, 2020.

Title: Comparison of Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Across Elementary Education Teacher Preparation Programs within Colleges and Universities in New England

Abstract Approved:

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Clarissa M. Uttley, Ph.D., Dissertation Committee Chair

This study was designed to examine general education teacher preparation programs and how colleges and universities in New England approach classroom organization and behavior management in their syllabi. This replication study was based on the 2007 study by Oliver & Reschly who examined syllabi from special education teacher preparation in classroom organization and behavior management. Nine colleges and universities in New England contributed 91 elementary education syllabi. Results indicate that there is still insufficient training in teacher preparation programs in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management. A thematic analysis of the same syllabi was implemented to develop five themes, including Diversity,

Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice.

Limitations for the study are discussed along with further research needs in this area.

Keywords: Teacher Preparation Programs, Diversity, Professional Skills,

Curriculum, Family and Community, Social Justice

Comparison of Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Across

Elementary Education Teacher Preparation Programs within Colleges and Universities

in New England

By

Jennifer L. Blake

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to

Plymouth State University

In partial fulfillment of

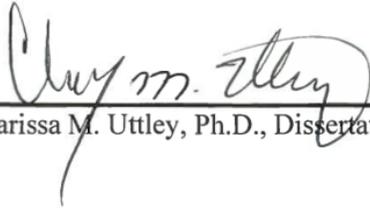the requirements for candidacy for the degree of

Doctor of Education

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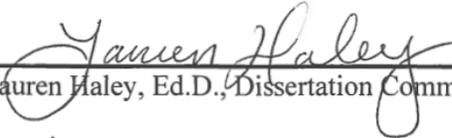
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Dissertation of Jennifer L. Blake

Presented on March 26, 2020

APPROVED:

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Clarissa M. Uttley, Ph.D., Dissertation Committee Chair

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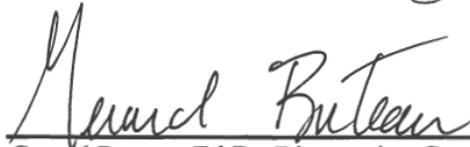
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I understand that my dissertation will become part of the permanent collection of Plymouth State
University, Lamson Learning Commons. My signature below authorizes release of my
dissertation to any reader upon request.

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Jennifer L. Blake, Author

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To my daughter, Caitlyn, you have a very bright future ahead of you. Seize every opportunity and adventure for you never know what regret feels like. You are the reason I strive for all I do every day!

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In K-12 education, a teacher's ability to handle behavior management issues, maintain a safe environment, and educate the diverse needs of all students directly affects student achievement (Baker, 2005; Brady, Forton, Porter, & Wood, 2003; Flower, McKenna, & Haring, 2017; Jones & Jones, 2007; Miller, 2018; Oliver & Reschly, 2010; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). A teacher must be able to engage all learners, sustain student interest, and differentiate lessons and activities that lead to critical thinking and learning while keeping all students safe inside the classroom (Botwinik & Press, 2013; Wyss, Siebert, & Dowling, 2013). The job of a teacher has numerous demands; it is more than teaching reading, writing, math, science, arts, and other academic content. Teaching is about accommodating all students in the classroom including those with significant learning and behavioral problems (Lewis & Sugal, 2019).

Students with disabilities were excluded from the public education system until 1954 when the Supreme Court ruled that students could not be separated and with the belief that individuals with disabilities could be taught (United States Department of Education, 2017). The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990, required schools to provide free and appropriate public education for all students meaning that students with disabilities must be taught in general education classes with their peers (USDOE, 2017). With this movement toward the inclusion of students

with disabilities in the general education classroom, teachers found themselves struggling to learn how to adequately educate students who exhibit disruptive and explosive behaviors (Main & Hammond, 2008). Teachers are facing student behaviors such as talking out of turn, leaving desks without permission, passing notes, poking or hitting other students, making sarcastic or hostile comments (Greer-Chase, Rhodes, & Kellam, 2002), swearing, using drugs, defiance, noncompliance, fighting, assaulting teachers, or carrying weapons to school (Flower et al., 2017; Gage, Scott, Hirn, & MacSuga-Gage, 2018; Main & Hammond, 2008; Nelson, 1996). Teachers rank disruptive behaviors and conduct problems in the classroom as a major barrier to teaching students (Conklin, Kamps, & Willis, 2016; Gage et al., 2018; Main & Hammond, 2008; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). Student disruptive behaviors require teachers to spend considerable time dealing with classroom control and discipline (De Martini-Scully, Bray, & Kehle, 2000) and teachers continue to report that their teacher preparation programs (TPPs) do not prepare them for behavior situations or difficult students they encounter (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; Gunter & Denny, 1996).

Former U.S. Secretary of Education, Richard Riley (1998) outlined the importance of teachers in his discussion about teacher excellence and diversity by saying:

Providing quality education means that we should invest in higher standards for all children, improve curricula, test to measure student achievement, provide safe schools, and increased use of technology-but the most critical investment we can make is in well-qualified, caring, and committed teachers.

Without good teachers to implement them, no educational reforms will succeed

at helping all students learn to their full potential. (p. 18)

While it is known that good teaching is important to raise student achievement,

it is far less clear what makes a good teacher (Goldhaber, 2002; Good et al., 2006).

Well-prepared and well-supported teachers are important to all students, but especially

to students who have a greater need (Darling-Hammond & Berry, 2006; Guha, Hyler,

& Darling-Hammond, 2017; McArdle, 2010). The concern around teacher quality and

good teaching needs to focus on the training of teachers in teacher preparation

programs (De Martini-Scully et al., 2000).

One of the most important problems facing schools is how to best train

preservice teacher candidates in teacher preparation programs to meet the needs of

students with disruptive behaviors (Barnes, 2016; Botwinik & Press, 2013; Burstein,

Kretschmer, & DeMonte, 2016; Smith & Gudoski, 2009; Reddy, Fabiano, &

Jimerson, 2013). Behavior management education and curriculum exists for pre-

service teachers, yet curriculum programs in higher education offer inconsistent levels

of classroom organization, behavior management learning, and training to preservice

elementary education teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Tinkler & Tinkler, 2016).

Each teacher preparation program offers what they believe is best practice for

preservice teachers, like different skills, theories, knowledge, and practicum

experiences which makes the quality of teaching very different in different regions of

the world (Houston & Hood, 2017; Scherer, 2012). Preservice teachers express they

lack training in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management and feel

they do not get sufficient training in these two areas to meet the needs of students with disruptive behaviors (Barnes, 2016; Botwinik & Press, 2013; Burstein, Kretschmer, & DeMonte, 2016; Smith & Gudoski, 2009; Reddy, Fabiano, & Jimerson, 2013).

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine general education teacher preparation programs and how college and universities approach classroom organization and behavior management in their syllabi. To accomplish this research, a replication of the 2007 study by Oliver & Reschly was conducted. According to Oliver & Reschly (2007), teachers should receive adequate training on classroom organization and behavior management prior to their first day of teaching. Oliver & Reschly (2007) reviewed and evaluated 26 special education teacher preparation programs and rated 135 course syllabi through seven descriptors, including: (1) structured environment; (2) active supervision and student engagement; (3) schoolwide behavioral expectations; (4) classroom rules; (5) classroom routines; (6) encouragement of appropriate behavior; and (7) behavior reduction strategies. Oliver & Reschly (2007) designed a Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration (COBMIC) rubric to measure the degree to which essential components of classroom organization and behavior management are represented in coursework for certification. Innovation Configurations have been used for at least 30 years in the development and implementation of educational innovation (Hall & Hord, 2015). Hall & Hord (2015) used Innovation Configurations to study educational change as professional development and they have been used for program evaluation.

Hall & Hord (2015) outline that change is a process, not an event and that an organization cannot change until the individuals within change.

 This study had two research questions specifically designed to measure the degree in which general education teacher preparation programs train preservice teachers in classroom organization and behavior management in New England.

1. Do elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England provide training in classroom organization and behavior management?

2. If so, what components of classroom organization and behavior management are taught more intensely in elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England?

 To answer these questions, a quantitative study of elementary education syllabi from 18 colleges and universities located in New England (Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island) were reviewed. The colleges and universities selected were public institutions, offered a four-year elementary education Bachelor of Arts degree, and offered a student teaching experience for preservice general education teachers as part of their preservice teacher preparation program.

 Research from this study shows what types of education preservice teachers are receiving from colleges and universities in New England in the areas of behavior management and classroom organization. The data from this study may contribute to institutions of higher education and inform how behavior management and classroom organization are important skills that preservice teachers need to understand as

qualified teachers and how teachers can use these skills in every day teaching more effectively to educate students. It is understood that institutions of higher education have a very important role in educating preservice teachers with the needed skills that are required to keep teachers in the teaching profession. A significant gap between behavior management and classroom organization exists within teacher preparation programs and this research intended to inform preservice teacher preparation programs by identifying what is and what is not being taught in New England colleges and universities.

Operational Definitions

- Academic Knowledge - the diverse forms of knowledge and expertise that exist among college and university faculty and staff (Zeichner, 2010).

- Behavior Management - a whole school approach in creating environments that promote positive behavior by reducing opportunities for poor behavior and allows students to take responsibility for their behaviors so that they can learn and change (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015).

- Classroom Organization and Management - a system of proactive and reactive strategies employed to influence the physical and social space of the classroom (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015; Little & Akin-Little, 2008) to foster a supportive environment for the academic and social-emotional learning of students (Korpershoek et al., 2016).

- Effective Education - the degree in which schools are successful in accomplishing their educational objectives (Korpershoek et al., 2016).

- Effective Teachers - educators who produce higher student test score gains (Ritter, 2012).

- Emotional or Behavior Disorder (EBD) - a condition exhibiting one or more specific emotional and/or behavioral difficulties over a long period of time that has adverse effects on educational performance (Scholes, Brownlee, Walker, & Johannon, 2017).

- General Education Teacher - the teacher responsible for content knowledge and information for all students, including planning, coordinating, scheduling, and evaluating curriculum and instructional outcomes for all students, including those with disabilities (ProjectIDEAL, 2013).

- Inclusion - the philosophy to educate students to the maximum extent appropriate in the least restrictive environment in the general education classroom (Scholes et al., 2017).

- Modeling - teacher education consists of intentionally demonstrating certain teaching behaviors, techniques, or approaches to students with the objective of facilitating their learning about teaching (Ritter, 2012).

- Preservice Teachers (PSTs) - teacher candidates/student teachers enrolled in a teacher preparation program and working toward teacher certification (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015).

- Private colleges/universities - educational institutions whose funding does not come from taxpayers, but from other sources such as donors or investments (Kargic & Poturak, 2013).

- Public colleges/universities - educational institutions whose funding comes (partly or fully) from taxpayers (Karguc & Poturak, 2014).

- Student with a disability - an individual who needs special education and related services because of the identified disability (mental retardation, hearing impairment, speech or language impairment, visual impairment, serious emotional disturbance, orthopedic impairment, autism, traumatic brain injury, other health impairment, or a specific learning disability). A child who is from ages 3 through 9 may be termed as a student with a disability, if they have been determined to be experiencing developmental delays (ProjectIDEAL, 2013).

- Teacher training - the process in which preservice teachers are trained to gain theoretical field knowledge and practice-orientated teaching knowledge in various teaching practices (Ritter, 2012).

- Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs) – programs that are designed within colleges or universities to prepare undergraduate students to become licensed teachers. The programs offer specialized coursework in the grade level and subjects that students are interested in teaching, foundational knowledge about pedagogy, and early exposure to practical classroom experience (Feuer, Floden, Chudowsky, & Ahn, 2013).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this literature review was to identify previous research conducted on classroom organization and behavior management in teacher preparations programs and to find themes that emerged from this research. In order to do this, an electronic search of Academic Search Premier, Google Scholar, and ProQuest was conducted for studies from 2000 to 2019. A list of key terms was generated to extensively review the existing body of literature in the following areas: elementary teacher education, field experience, teacher education, teacher preparation programs, first year teachers, inclusion, cultural diversity, preservice teacher education, preservice training, student teachings, teacher training, program cohesiveness, teacher preparation program improvement, and accountability. Following the initial electronic search, 131 articles were identified and evaluated to determine common themes. Based on the review conducted in the 130 articles the following themes emerged: No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), Inclusion, Cultural Diversity, Family and School Communication, Family and School Relationships, Teacher Burnout/Teacher Turnover, Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs), Comparing and Contrasting International Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs) According to Darling-Hammond, Reasons Students Choose Public Colleges and Universities, Course Syllabi, Behavioral Management in Teacher Preparation Programs, Theory and Practice in Teacher Preparation Programs, and Classroom Organization and Behavior

Management Competencies. These themes are discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

Research Themes

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)

With the enactment of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001, thousands of schools across the United States had to restructure their educational goals, objectives for teachers, and teaching initiatives to meet the required law (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Korpershoek et al., 2016; No Child Left Behind, 2001). NLCB required schools to staff all classrooms with "highly qualified teachers" which meant that all teachers needed a bachelor's degree in the subject areas they were teaching, and state certification by the end of the 2005-2006 school year.

NCLB showed the true inequalities of student performance, especially by race and class, and targeted the neglected students in many schools (Darling-Hammond, 2007). NCLB also helped classrooms in low income and minority regions become staffed with qualified teachers who have a bachelor's degree in the subjects they were teaching along with state certification (Darling-Hammond, 2007; No Child Left Behind, 2001). Before NCLB most of the inexperienced, untrained teachers were placed in low income, minority regions because of the shortage of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2007). Many untrained teachers were recent high school graduates with no college education that had no experience teaching or classroom management skills (Darling-Hammond, 2007). These untrained teachers learned very quickly they did not have the skills needed to be a teacher, but found themselves in classrooms as a way to

keep students in school. NCLB required teachers who were interested in remaining or entering the classroom to go through teacher training program to obtain a bachelor's degree in order to be considered qualified to teach (Darling-Hammond, 2007).

NCLB helped schools obtain teachers but did not provide the structural changes that needed to happen in systems of teacher preparation and professional development which would produce highly qualified teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2007). To be considered a "highly qualified" teacher, teachers needed a bachelor's degree in the subject they were teaching and state certification by the end of the 2005-2006 school year. The goal of NCLB was to prepare teachers for the challenging job, but NCLB actually made it harder for states to improve the quality of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2007). The federal rule allows teacher preparation schools to immediately label teachers who were enrolled in preparation programs as "highly qualified" since they were obtaining a bachelor's degree in education (Darling-Hammond & Berry, 2006). While NCLB set an expectation of hiring qualified teachers, it did not include supports or processes to hire and support well-prepared teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2007). The teacher-quality mandate under NCLB asked administrators to consider teacher assignments and the distribution of licensed teachers; the problem was not shortage of teachers, but a maldistribution of talent (Darling-Hammond & Berry, 2006).

On December 10, 2015, former United States President Barack Obama signed a law called Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) which replaced NCLB. ESSA was built upon many key areas on NCLB but eliminated the requirements for highly

qualified teachers and focused instead on appropriately certified teachers. ESSA also

allowed each state to set its own goals within that federal framework. The high-need

students were given more protection, and for the first time, all students in America

were to be taught to high academic standards that would prepare them to succeed in

colleges or in careers (USDOE, 2017). ESSA ensured that annual statewide

assessment data would be shared with educators, families, students, and the

communities so that students' progress could be measured against those high standards

(USDOE, 2017). ESSA also allowed the United States to invest $250 million dollars

in preschool grants and allowed students a safe educational environment earlier in

their lives to help prepare for kindergarten (USDOE, 2017). This money supported

preschools in developing consistent routines and structures for students, along with

supporting programs that taught language learning and a variety of social, emotional,

and cognitive skills (USDOE, 2017). These changes were enacted to support a better

classroom environment and allow younger students to enter school earlier for added

success in school.

Inclusion

The federal government mandated that students with special needs be placed in

the least restrictive environment (LRE) with the preferred placement being in the

general education classroom (Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Malmqvist, 2016). Yet, the

concept of inclusion having all students despite physical, emotional, developmentally,

or behavioral needs in the general education classroom, differs in how it is defined

through policy and action in schools and districts across the United States (Hsien,

2007; Winter, 2006). Inclusion allowed all students to access the same education in the

same setting so that students could learn from one another (Hsien, 2007; Winter,

2006). States have experienced a rapid rise in the number of children with disabilities

seeking public general education.

> In 2017-2018, the number of students ages 3-21 who received special
>
> education services under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
>
> (IDEA) was 7.0 million, or 14 percent of all public-school students. Among
>
> students receiving special education services, 34 percent had specific learning
>
> disabilities. (USDOE, 2019, p.1)

Inclusion became a critical part of the reform effort to improve the delivery of

services to students with disabilities by focusing on the placement of these students in

the general education setting (Campbell, 2010; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Praisner,

2003). The goal of inclusion was for all students to be in the general education

classroom, learning from one another in various ways (Campbell, 2010; Scholes et al.,

2017). Ultimately, inclusive education allows students the right to be educated with

their age-appropriate peers and the school will meet the diverse educational needs of

all of its students within the school community (Hsien, 2007; Praisner, 2003). Winter

(2006) concluded that for full inclusion to occur, teachers must have the necessary

training to teach diverse populations of students. Therefore, it must be considered that

the success of inclusion depends on teachers being in a position of readiness to teach

in an inclusive environment (Winter, 2006). According to Winter (2006), lack of

training can result in teachers forming the perception that students with special needs

should be taught in secluded classrooms.

Inclusive classrooms have created many challenges for educational

professionals including principals (Praisner, 2003). Positive principal leadership in the

area of inclusion, integration, and acceptance is a key factor in the success of inclusion

(Campbell, 2010; Malmqvist, 2016; Sass, Flores, Claeys, & Perez, 2012). Since

principals directly influence the allocation of resources, such as staffing, structures,

operating processes, and what can and cannot be done in the school, the principal's

attitude and beliefs either increase, limit, or segregate students with disabilities

(Campbell, 2010; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Malmqvist, 2016; Scholes et al., 2017).

Challenges such as administrative support, collaboration, and training interfere with

the implementation of an inclusive classroom, therefore, teachers need to increase

their knowledge and understanding of how to implement inclusive practices (Sass et

al., 2012). Effective inclusion of these students relies heavily on teachers possessing

the understanding, expertise, and proficiencies to make inclusion work in the

classroom (Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Scholes et al., 2017; Winter, 2006).

Cultural Diversity

Since the early 1990s, schools have been experiencing increasing ethnic

diversity in their school enrollment (Glock, Kleen, & Morgenroth, 2019). The focus

for many schools is to create inclusive school environments that support students from

ethnically and culturally diverse backgrounds by acknowledging differences,

reflecting differences in the school curriculum, supporting the development of critical

thinking, and supporting actions that empower both students and their parents (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; Glock et al., 2019). Teachers have a responsibility to understand, develop, and manage how to implement culturally responsible teaching approaches in their classrooms (Hue & Kennedy, 2012; King & Butler, 2015). Being culturally responsive involves understanding cultural differences within diverse student populations, understanding the norms and values of these diverse populations, being sensitive to the transitions of students between home and school, and adapting the communication with parents to be responsive to cultural norms (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015). Many U.S. states now include diversity requirements within their teacher certification frameworks, but the implementation of those requirements are vague (King & Butler, 2015).

Most teachers are preparing to manage culturally diverse classrooms without any professional knowledge about multicultural education (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; Glock et al., 2019). Teachers see their role in managing cultural diversity as limited and they lack the understanding of how to teach cultural diversity, so that cultural diversity is accurate (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; King & Butler, 2015). Teachers justify that it is impossible to manage cultural diversity in the classroom due to the lack of time available to implement this in the curriculum (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015). Teachers stressed that when fulfilling the diverse learning needs of students, they were unable to promote fairness, justice, and equity in the classroom (Hue & Kennedy, 2012). In order to better manage diversity issues in

the classroom, teachers also realized that it was crucial to collaborate with parents

(Glock et al., 2019).

Family and School Communication

Communication between students' families, their teachers, counselors, and

principals are extremely important for students' academic success (Davis & Yang,

2005; Greifner, 2006; Jones & Jones, 2007). Even brief informal moments of

interaction between teachers and parents during the summer, at the beginning or the

end of the school day, or in social settings serves to make parents feel welcome at

schools (Xavier & Fahrmi, 2019). Family and school relationships develop largely

during face-to-face interactions (Davis & Yang, 2005). A few ways that teachers can

build trust and positive school interactions include face to face communication, a

welcoming phone call highlighting something positive, making an effort to get all

parents to parent-teacher conferences, and/or going to student centered functions

(Constantino, 2008). Teachers have the greatest power in influencing families'

feelings about school as an institution (Davis & Yang, 2005; Jones & Jones, 2007).

A welcoming environment implies that the schools focus their efforts on

maintaining an atmosphere where it invites families into the school and honors their

presence (Constantino, 2008). When parents feel welcomed at their child's schools,

and two-way channels of communication are established, parents can gain knowledge

and confidence which helps supports their children's learning (Constantino, 2008;

Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2017). Parents who have strong connections with

their child's school, feel stronger levels of satisfaction and therefore are more open

and responsive to school supports that facilitate learning alignment between the family and school (Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2017). Such engagement can boost children's self-esteem, increase motivation and engagement with learning, and can lead to increased learning outcomes (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014). If families understand how effective they can be and believe that their partnership with the school is critical, they have the power to create positive change in their child's achievement and learning (Constantino, 2008).

Family and School Relationships

Every child needs at least one significant adult in their life who believes that they can do well (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Ideally, students should receive positive support from a parent, but this is not always the situation. In most cases, teachers become significant adults in a child's life (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Teachers play a critical role in cultivating a positive relationship between home and school (Davis & Yang, 2005). Good school and family relationships result in positive outcomes for students such as increasing attendance and students reaching higher levels of achievement (Constantino, 2008; Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2017; Woods, Morrison, & Palincsar, 2018). The major goal of family and school relationships is to increase the understanding, communication, respect, and cooperation between the parents and the teacher (Boynton & Boynton, 2005).

Relationships must be built on trust between the school personnel and the families (Constantino, 2008). Rebuilding and supporting trusting relationships are essential for engagement of families in the academic lives of students (Constantino,

2008; Jones & Jones, 2007). The quality of the relationship between the school and the family supports parental involvement and is a key factor in a student's educational outcome and experience (Jones & Jones, 2007; Xavier & Fahrmi, 2019). Schools that value parent involvement find ways to build effective collaboration with families and every effort should be made to keep parents updated and informed (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Some schools have begun providing all employees school-wide family engagement training through workshops. These trainings offer effective ways to communicate, provide new strategies that support family engagement, and provide school personnel with role playing opportunities to work through awkward or difficult conversations (Constantino, 2008). This interaction enforces communication and collaboration and shows a partnership based on trust between parents and teachers (Constantino, 2008; Xavier & Fahrmi, 2019). Positive interactions between schools and families lead to higher levels of parental satisfaction and in turn, better educational achievement among students. (Constantino, 2008; Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2017).

Teacher Burnout/Teacher Turnover

Once new teachers enter the classroom, the expectations of what they perceived the education profession to be and the realities faced in the classroom can be daunting (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; Melnick & Meister, 2008). Novice teachers do not necessarily realize how complex the teaching profession can be (Beck, Kosnik, & Rowsell, 2007; Melnick & Meister, 2008). Many new teachers become discouraged and leave the field due to lack of training and experience needed to

manage twenty-five children in a small space for seven hours a day (Brady et al., 2003). Teachers who are able to manage behaviors in the classroom are more successful and tend to remain in the teaching profession longer, which is better for the continuity of student education (Sass et al., 2012). However, experienced teachers feel overwhelmed by the growing demands placed on them as more and more students come to school with poorly developed social skills, a lack of impulse control, and little capacity to handle their anger and frustrations (Brady et al., 2003). When teachers dedicate the majority of their resources and energy to their teaching, they often feel emotionally exhausted (DeMonte, 2016; Glock et al., 2019).

It is easy for new teachers to become overwhelmed with the demands of being a teacher since classrooms include students with varying special and/or behavioral needs, require additional personnel and special methods or materials (Botwinik & Press, 2013; De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Jones & Jones, 2007). Managing student behaviors is often the most frustrating aspect of teaching and often can lead to teacher stress and burnout (De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Glock et al., 2019; Taylor, 2011). Four major factors strongly influence whether a teacher remains in the field of education: salaries, working conditions, preparedness, and mentoring support in the early years of teaching (Botwink & Press, 2013; Darling-Hammond, 1999; McArdle, 2010). Nearly half of new teachers leave the profession within five years and more than three in five teachers said their training left them unprepared for the classroom (Botwinik & Press; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Scherer, 2012). Little and Akin-Little (2008) found that 30% of teachers identified

struggles with classroom management to be the reason for leaving the teaching

profession. But it is not only new teachers who feel this discouragement (Scherer,

2012). A study by Ronfeldt, Schwarts, & Jacob (2014), stated that preservice teachers

who have received longer clinical periods of training felt more prepared to teach and

were more likely to stay in the teaching profession. Stevens-Smith, Warner, & Padilla,

(2014), stated that society is becoming too diverse and in order to educate all students

and develop successful learners, preservice teachers need a strong foundation.

Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs)

Most parents in the United States and the world wish for a gifted teacher to

teach their children (Reddy et al., 2013). The reality is that there are many gifted

teachers who love teaching and work hard to raise student achievement (Darling-

Hammond, 2007). Studies have found that teacher quality is a critical influence on

student achievement, (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Korpershoek et al., 2016) and the

quality of the teacher in the classroom is the single greatest influence on student

learning (Reddy et al., 2013). Schools want teachers with a combination of strong

academic abilities, who are capable of being alert and attentive to the care of students

as well as teachers who can manage and support a classroom of students (Scherer,

2012). Teacher preparation programs (TPPs) were created to prepare teachers to

acquire certification and teach in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2007).

In traditional college and university TPPs there has been a lack or disconnect

between campus/university-based teacher education courses and field experiences

(Strand, Linker, Deutsch, Hahne, & Douglas, 2016; Zeichner, 2010). It is common for

cooperating teachers, with whom preservice students work during their field placements, to know very little about the specifics of the methods and foundations courses that their student teachers have completed (Zeichner, 2010). Preservice teachers frequently do not have opportunities to observe, practice, and receive focused feedback about their teaching (Konig, Ligtvoet, Klemenz, & Rothland, 2017; Zeichner, 2010). Often, with the exception of a few assignments in methods courses that students are asked to complete in their field placements, preservice teachers and their cooperating teachers are often left to work out the daily business of student teaching by themselves with little guidance and connection to campus courses (Konig et al., 2017; Zeichner, 2010). Often the training preservice teachers receive in field placements are disconnected from the training preservice teachers have received in college (Jones & Jones, 2007).

The concern around classroom organization and behavior management is that teachers come from different TPPs and possess different skills and perspectives on best practice strategies dependent upon where they went to school (De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Good et al., 2006). When many individuals enter a field with unequal, and often inadequate training, the quality of the profession is reduced (Scherer, 2012). The capacity of providing good teaching lies in the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and skills of educators who teach, and the key focus of quality enhancement should be on initially preparing the educators who teach and developing their teaching capacities within TPPs (De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Houston & Hood, 2017).

Teacher preparation routes vary considerably from country to country, state to state, university to university, and program to program (Korpershoek et al., 2016; McArdle, 2010; No Child Left Behind, 2001; Scherer, 2016). The TPPs throughout the United States vary extensively in structure and quality and the standards across the U.S. (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Zeichner, 2010). Of nearly the 1,200 teacher preparation programs throughout the country, each differs in how the program is structured (Darling- Hammond, 2003; Wyss et al., 2013). Programs differ on many characteristics including the requirements for entry, the length of the program, the coursework that is required, and the field experience (Darling-Hammond, 2007). "In all but a few states, education schools act as the Bermuda Triangle of higher education-students sail in but no one know what happens to them after they come out. No one knows which students are succeeding as teachers, which are struggling, and what training was useful or not." (Duncan, 2009)

States must decide what is required and expected for highly qualified teachers enrolled in TPPs (USDOE, 2017). States also need to configure their programs to be developmentally appropriate and rigorous for all preservice candidates (USDOE, 2017). While a growing number of teachers are prepared for rigorous educational programs, others enter the profession through alternative ways that provide few courses and little student teaching experience (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Strand et al., 2016).

Comparing and Contrasting International Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs)

According to Darling-Hammond

Dr. Linda Darling-Hammond began her career as a public-school teacher and co-founded a preschool and a high school (Learning Policy Institute, 2020). She received an EdD from Temple University and consulted widely with federal, state, and local officials and educators on strategies for improving education policies and practices (Edutopia, 2020). From 1994–2001, she was the executive director of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future and in 2006, Darling-Hammond was named one of the nation's ten most influential people affecting educational policy. In 2008, she served as the leader of President Barack Obama's education policy transition team (ASCD, 2020; Learning Policy Institute, 2020). Her research and policy work focuses on issues of educational equity, teaching quality, and school reform. Dr. Darling-Hammond has dedicated her life to educational research, changing education policy, and redesigning teacher education programs.

In many parts of the world, preservice teachers spend more time in schools during their initial teacher preparation programs than they did a decade ago (Darling-Hammond, 2017). In Luxenberg, TPPs consist of a 7-year program due to professional training that is blended with pedagogical learning and extensive supervised practice (Darling-Hammond, 1996). In most European and Asian countries, preservice education is a 5-year program with an intensive internship (Darling-Hammond, 1996). Countries such as Australia, France, Finland, Germany, Hong Kong, Ireland, Italy,

Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Portugal, and Taiwan have moved teacher education to the graduate level (Darling-Hammond, 2005). These countries have added extensive in-depth pedagogy studies and intensive internship that allow teachers to be more prepared (Darling-Hammond, 2005). In Germany, preservice teachers earn two degrees in two subjects and pass a series of essays and oral exams before taking pedagogical training and entering a mentored practicum experience (Darling-Hammond, 2005). Finland has relied on developing sophisticated teaching training where all teachers hold at least a 2-year master's degree that is built on strong subject matter and pedagogical preparation along with research and practice (Darling-Hammond, 2005). Admission to teacher preparation schools in Finland are stringent (Darling-Hammond, 2017). The preparation of candidates occurs at the graduate level and are fully paid for by the government with guaranteed employment (Darling-Hammond, 2017).

In many countries, the focus is on building a strong profession, understanding the standards, preparation, and supports (Darling-Hammond, 2017). Many nations celebrate teachers and understand that teaching is an essential profession (Darling-Hammond, 2017). In Finland, teachers take responsibility for curriculum and assessment development as a part of their professional role (Darling-Hammond, 2017). In Finland and Singapore, teachers and leaders are encouraged to visit other schools to observe and collaborate on best practices (Darling-Hammond, 2017). In Japan, beginning teachers receive 20 days of in-service training for their first year on the job, plus 60 days of professional development where master teachers are released

to advise and counsel them (Darling-Hammond, 1996). In China, new teachers work

with a reduced teaching load, observe other teachers, and prepare lessons and plans

under master teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1996). In most European and Asian

countries, teachers spend 15-20 hours a week in their own classrooms and the

remaining times are divided into developing lessons with colleagues, visiting parents,

counseling students, research, attending seminars, and going to other schools (Darling-

Hammond, 1996). This allows teachers to reduce the teaching load, attend in-school

training that is designed under master teachers and receive out-of-school training

(Darling-Hammond, 2005). Other countries are able to invest in teachers' knowledge

and time because they hire fewer nonteaching staff (Darling-Hammond, 1996).

In contrast, U.S. teachers work a 7.5-hour day and most teachers have a 45-

minute planning period a day. U.S. teachers are not expected to meet with other

teachers, develop assessments and curriculum, or to observe other classrooms as there

is not enough time allotted for these tasks (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Kominiak,

2016). Teachers in the U.S. have almost no in-school time for professional learning.

Nearly all professional development opportunities happen in small workshops or in

courses that are held after school, on weekends, or during a small number of

professional development days (Darling-Hammond, 2005). Darling-Hammond (2012)

described teacher education as a program that is related to the development of teacher

proficiency and competence that enables and empowers teachers to meet the

requirements of the profession and face many challenges. Enabling teachers to

continue to grow, learn, and be excited about their work depends upon high-quality

learning opportunities and career opportunities (Darling-Hammond, 2017).

Reasons Students Choose Public Colleges and Universities

Choosing the right college is a critical part in most high school seniors' lives

(Peterson, 2017). This choice can be very stressful or very exciting for some high

school seniors and their parents. A great number of factors are associated with making

the right choice about which college or university a student will attend, the most

important factors include price, school structure, and types of schooling (Peterson,

2017).

Social inequalities in many countries have been factors in how students attend

colleges and universities (Sisolak, 2016). Students that come from lower educational

income families had an increased desire to go to college but were faced with a few

roadblocks (Troiano & Elias, 2013). Students in lower educational families struggle

with the funds to go to college, and in most cases, have not had the same educational

opportunities as their higher education family peers and are farther behind in levels of

education (Troiano & Elias, 2013). These two roadblocks often affect a student's

performance in school (Troiano & Elias, 2013). Public schools are funded by

taxpayers and state governments which allow the cost to be less than private colleges

and universities making public schools more attractive (Sisolak, 2016). Many students

choose to attend public institutions because they are less expensive than private

institutions and typically offer lower tuition rates for in-state residents and out-of-state

students can also qualify for lower tuition rates (Holt, 2018).

Students who desire a wide choice of majors, athletic programs, student activities, tutoring services, large fitness centers, and counseling services can find them at public colleges and universities (Holt, 2018; Peterson's, 2017; Sisolak, 2016). The job market increasingly has been one of the reasons students are making school and degree choices and it also relates to attitudes and motivation about school (Troiano & Elias, 2013). Motivation clearly affects student interest and by being interested in a program of study, it allows students to be clearer on stable jobs in the labor market (Troiano & Elias, 2013). Employers contact public colleges and universities seeking future interns during campus career fairs or through introductions from college professors (Troiano & Elias, 2013).

Many public colleges & universities attract diverse populations of students in regard to race, gender, religion, and socioeconomic status (Anderson, 2019). This allows students to acquire different perspectives, enhance social development, and prepare students for careers all over the world (Anderson, 2019). This also allows students to meet other students and get a clearer understanding about the world around them (Troiano & Elias, 2013).

Course Syllabi

Documents containing information about higher education courses have changed significantly over the years. In 1656 *Oxford English Dictionary* referenced a syllabus as a table of contents, and in 1889 it became more of an outline (Parkes & Harris, 2002). Now, a higher education syllabus is an essential component of a college course and it represents the development of the course, communicates the process of

the class between the students and the instructor, and serves as a practical and

intellectual guide to the academic term ahead (Appling et al., 2015; Doolittle &

Siudzinski, 2010; Parkes & Harris, 2002; Servizzi, 2015; Valentin & Grauerholz,

2019). A syllabus is a document that communicates both content coverage and a

description of class logistics, requirements, important deadlines, and grading criteria

(Parkes & Harris, 2002; Richmond, Morgan, Slattery, Mitchell, & Cooper, 2019).

Higher education course syllabi vary from state to state, school to school, and

instructor to instructor.

Typically, a student's first contact with any course is through the syllabus

(Parkes & Harris, 2002; Richmond et al., 2019). The syllabus outlines the course

content for students so that they are able to see where the course aligns with other

classes they have taken or will take (Appling et al., 2015; Parkes & Harris, 2002).

Equally important, the syllabus provides a brief description about how the course will

enrich the student's life (Parkes & Harris, 2002; Wasley, 2008). Many syllabi range

from 10-20 pages and outline the professor's rules, expectations, goals, operating

principles by which students should abide (Doolittle & Siudzinski, 2010; Palmer et al.,

2016; Servizzi, 2015). Research has suggested that a lengthier course syllabus with

more detail may increase positive impressions of instructor effectiveness and

competency (Jenkins, Bugeja, & Barber, 2014; Wasley, 2008). Students who were

given a longer, more detailed syllabus perceived instructors as more approachable,

creative, and more effective communicator (Saville, Zinn, Brown, & Marchuk, 2010).

Ultimately initial impressions about instructors and institutions of higher education

can be formed rapidly by the information or lack of information that is put in a syllabus (Jenkins et al., 2014). The tone an instructor uses in a syllabus is perceived as friendly or unfriendly which is also associated with how approachable the professor is, how warm, and the willingness to teach the course (Jenkins et al., 2014; Richmond et al., 2019).

The syllabus serves three major roles: as a contract, a permanent record, and as a learning tool (Appling et al., 2015; Parkes & Harris, 2002). McDonald, Siddall, Mandell, & Hughes (2010) state that students use the syllabus in various ways; 88% as a reference, 80% as a time management tool, 53% as a study tool, and 32% as a documentation tool. The syllabus outlines what is expected during the term of the contract and guides behaviors by both parties (Palmer, Wheeler, & Aneece, 2016; Parkes & Harris, 2002; Richmond et al., 2019). Course syllabi describe the professor's rules, expectations, goals, operating principals, manners, and behaviors that are acceptable in the classroom and by which students should abide (Doolittle & Siudzinski, 2010; Palmer et al., 2016; Servizzi, 2015). Since assessments are mandatory for accreditation in programs and institutions, a syllabus provides evidence as to what was taught, what students were expected to do, and how outcomes and performances were assessed (Parkes & Harris, 2002). This documentation is often needed to show the effectiveness of a school and program (Parkes & Harris, 2002; Valentin & Grauerholz, 2019). Syllabi are often used for instructor accountability, annual reviews, merit pay reviews, and promotions along with the instructor's teaching ability (Parkes & Harris, 2002). The syllabi as a teaching tool might help

students to identify whether or not they are prepared for the work the course involves, and if not, what they might do about it (Parkes & Harris, 2002). Dr. Oliver stated, "a course syllabus is like a contract between the school, teacher, and the student about what they are paying for and what they will gain from of the class" (R. Oliver, personal communication, January 14, 2019).

Behavior Management in Teacher Preparation Programs

The harsh truth is that a number of children in the United States exhibit disruptive behaviors in classrooms (Coronel & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; Main & Hammond, 2008). Behavior problems are one of the most pressing issues in schools (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Jones & Jones, 2007; Nelson, 1996; Main & Hammond, 2008; Oliver & Reschly, 2010) and teachers and students report concerns for their personal safety (Nelson, 1996). Teachers across the country address and deal with violence and disruptive behaviors daily (Nelson, 1996; Main & Hammond, 2008). Nelson (1996), reported that 2000 teachers and 28,200 students are physically attacked each month and 19% of these victims require hospitalization.

Disruptive behavior in the classroom draws the focus of the teacher, and perhaps the entire classroom, away from instruction or active engagement (Bray & Kehle, 2000; Conklin et al., 2016; De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Gage et al., 2018; Gunter & Denny, 1996; Main & Hammond, 2008). Teachers who are equipped with effective behavior management skills are better able to differentiate lessons that address the needs of each individual student (Main & Hammond, 2008) and create a

classroom community in which students' personal and academic needs are met (Jones & Jones, 2007). Behavior management is the cornerstone of good teaching especially with the needs of inclusion where children with disabilities are taught alongside their peers without disabilities and along with those students with negative behaviors (Main & Hammond, 2008). Effective classroom and behavior management are critical elements of a highly qualified teacher (De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Flower et al., 2017).

Students who display disruptive behaviors are more likely to have academic deficits and receive less instruction due to being sent out of the classroom (De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Gage et al., 2018). Students with challenging behaviors whose needs are not met will be adults with poor social skills (Davis et al., 2011). Prevention of more serious behavior concerns begins in early grades when students are involved in a general education setting and without these preventive strategies students may continue to be disruptive and even more aggressive in later grades (Oliver & Reschly, 2010). The work by Oliver and Reschly (2010) suggests that the most important factors for preservice teachers' learning fall into three categories: (a) universal approaches, (b) encouragement of appropriate behavior, and (c) behavior reduction strategies which translate into effective classroom and behavioral management. To effectively improve behavior and classroom management and improve academic achievement among students, it is important for preservice teachers to receive instruction in evidence-based classroom management practices in teacher preparation programs (Oliver & Reschly, 2010).

Students with behavioral challenges are being served in the general education classrooms (DeMonte, 2016; Flower et al., 2017; Marzano, 2011) and teachers feel unprepared because of poor behavior management training (Conklin et al., 2016), and increased stress from student behaviors (Flower et al., 2017). Yet, many new teachers feel they have inadequate skills in an inclusive classroom and that their TPPs failed to properly prepare them to manage these behaviors (Beran, 2005; De Martini-Scully et al., 2000; Flower et al., 2017; Greer-Chase et al., 2002; Gunter & Denny, 1996). In most cases, learners who have EBD (Emotional or Behavior Disorders) are placed in more restrictive settings (Baker, 2005; Farley, Torres, Wailehua, & Cook, 2012; Good et al., 2006; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). Students with EBDs may have problematic behaviors that challenge classroom settings and lead to negative impacts on student learning and academic achievement (Farley et al., 2012).

Students with EBD often have trouble establishing an effective work atmosphere, attending to what is being taught, and they have difficulty processing new information (Farley et al., 2012). Twenty percent of students with EBD are arrested at least once before they leave school and 35% are arrested within the first few years of leaving school (Good et al., 2006). Educators report that preservice teachers appear to lack the training and background required to effectively instruct students with disabilities (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Gunter & Denny, 1996) and they express a high level of concern with behavioral problems while instructing students with special needs (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Gunter & Denny, 1996). Two-thirds of teachers of students with EBD reported that their college coursework was poor preparation for

their teaching environments and 5% of the teachers indicated they learned about behavior management strategies from college courses (Good et al., 2006). Instead preservice teachers learned strategies during their field experience from other teachers (Gunter & Denny, 1996). Scales et al., (2018) stated that preservice teachers learned many of the skills, teaching strategies, and everyday tasks from their cooperative teacher during their field experience, this can be very beneficial if preservice teachers are placed with cooperating teachers who are educated with the latest research and best practices in teaching. In most cases, a preservice teacher depends on their cooperating teacher to be the expert in the field and model what good teaching looks like (Scales et al., 2018). This experience can be very effective when the cooperating teacher can provide the preservice teacher with the knowledge and experience that is needed in the teaching realm (Scales et al., 2018). The experience can also be negative if the cooperating teacher does not provide enough structure, teaching practice (Scales et al., 2018). In most cases, preservice teachers are placed with cooperating teachers that meet public school and university guidelines and this involves years of service in the school and best practices that should be modeled (Scales et al., 2018).

Teachers cannot be expected to learn effective behavioral teaching skills on their own (Burstein et al., 2009; Morey, Chiero & Bezuk, 1997; Zeichner, 2010). Teachers need uniformed or compatible education programs that offer structure around course work, a clinical teaching experience that bridges the connection between theory and practice along with pedagogical training (Andrew & Schwab, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2008; DeMonte, 2016). In most cases, preservice teachers

rely on their cooperating teachers to model how to talk, teach, and work with students who have behavior issues (Scales et al., 2018). Learning best practices in behavioral strategies allows teachers to continue teaching their curriculum effectively and positively impact student performance (Botwinik & Press, 2013; Scales et al., 2018).

Effective teacher education programs should be structured in a collaborative manner with colleges/universities and local school districts (Buettner, Hur, Jeon, & Andrews, 2016; Burstein, Kretschmer, Smith, & Gudoski, 2009). A collaborative program serves a dual responsibility where practicing teachers and administrators work together with university faculty to build successful teacher preparation programs incorporating content and pedagogy aligned with effective teaching standards (Buettner et al., 2016). Local schools and universities are dependent upon each other to produce highly qualified K-6 teachers, which in turn raises student achievement (Burstein et al., 2009; Harvey & Caro, 2017; Reddy et al., 2013).

TPPs have been evaluated on their components of their preparation programs, which include required coursework, the faculty that teach the courses, and the experiences that preservice teachers receive (Reddy et al., 2013). Colleges and universities are evaluated by the programs' capacity for these components through state standards and this allows them to be accredited (Henry, Kershaw, Zulli, & Smith, 2012). According to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2010), accreditation organizations are evaluated on the following areas: candidate knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions; assessment system and unit

evaluation; field experiences and clinical practice; diversity; faculty qualifications; and unit governance and resources.

Theory and Practice in Teacher Preparation Programs

Colleges and universities around the world contain hubs of knowledge, experimentation, and innovation (Harvey & Caro, 2017). The aim of education is to enable students to apply what they have learned in the classroom and then transfer that learning to real-world situations (Eutsler & Curcio, 2019; Harvey & Caro, 2017). The goal for teacher preparation programs is to educate preservice students in theory and practice to develop effective teachers when they graduate (Harvey & Caro, 2017). Unfortunately, many colleges and universities struggle with linking, integrating, and aligning theoretical concepts into the curriculum and making the process between theory to practice seamless (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015; Harvey & Caro, 2017).

During many freshman and sophomore education classes, most preservice teachers are enrolled in foundational courses that present theories behind teaching, introduce students to educational philosophers, and describe the history of education (Saracho, 2013). Foundational classes also provide preservice teachers with a basic understanding about teaching and discuss how curriculum is established in both theory and practice (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015; Saracho, 2013). Other foundation classes focus on child growth and development and how important those stages are when teaching children (Saracho, 2013).

While in many junior and senior years of education the focus is on methods-related courses that examine and prepare prospective teachers in the pedagogy of

becoming a teacher, planning units, working with curriculum, and offers the preservice teacher practice in field experiences in the classroom (Saracho, 2013). This field experience involves the foundational knowledge of content courses, and child development with a combination of learning best practice strategies from a mentor teacher (Saracho, 2013; Zeichner, 2010). This is a critical experience in TPPs and allows preservice teacher to be fully immersed in the learning community where they get to showcase the effectiveness of their educational experience and teaching ability (Saracho, 2013; Zeichner, 2010). In some cases, colleges and universities front load many of the skills and knowledge in the sophomore and junior years and this allows the preservice teacher to focus on their field experiences and learn from master teachers during their senior year (Saracho, 2013; Zeichner, 2010). Preservice teachers have the opportunities to practice their skill teaching under an experienced mentor teacher that will provide preservice teachers with constructive feedback that will inform, analyze, and provide practical understanding to develop their craft of teaching (Saracho, 2013; Zeichner, 2010). The field experience is a culminative experience of theory and practice that needs to be completed before licensure (Zeichner, 2010). Formal classroom management training is linked to greater confidence in classroom management practices and preparedness in all areas (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015).

Preservice teachers deserve to be well-prepared to teach students on the first day of school, but in many colleges and universities there is still a disconnect (DeMonte, 2016). In many cases, foundational classes are mostly taught in the first two years of college and then field experiences are integrated in the last two years of

the educational degree (DeMonte, 2016). This structure does not always allow the

preservice teacher to see the connection between theory and practice and often

preservice teachers wish there could be a mixture of theory and practice classes taught

throughout their four-year degree (DeMonte, 2016).

Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Competencies

Classroom organization and behavior management represents how the

classroom flows and how students can effectively work and succeed (Oliver &

Reschly, 2007). If a classroom looks disorganized and cluttered, learning will be

compromised because students cannot concentrate or easily move around the room

without bumping into furniture or each other (Clayton & Forton, 2001). Planning

passageways, arranging furniture, creating open spaces, thinking about where students

will learn in collaborative spaces or centers, and having enough space for students to

line up are critical in making sure there is flow to how students will move throughout

the classroom (Clayton & Forton, 2001). When the organization of the classroom is

established, it allows teachers to be more effective in the classroom (Clayton &

Forton, 2001).

Effective teachers perform many functions. These functions can be organized

into three major roles (1) making wise choices about the most effective instructional

strategies, (2) designing classroom curriculum to facilitate student learning, and (3)

making effective use of classroom management techniques (Marzano et al., 2003).

Effective classroom organization and behavior management is widely acknowledged

by teachers and many new teachers report that TPPs do not teach these areas

thoroughly or with adequate supervision in real classroom contexts (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Structuring a classroom so that it supports positive student behavior requires planning, attention to details, and time (Miller, 2018; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Ensuring that teachers have developed plans in the classroom around behavior management and classroom organization competencies allows the classroom to run more smoothly and students to learn more effectively (Coronel, & Gomez-Hurtado, 2015; Marzano et al., 2003; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Classroom organization and behavior management requires a great deal of effort by effective teachers to keep students engaged and focused on academic learning (Marzano et al., 2003).

Structured Environment

Structuring a classroom is about planning predictable, consistent routines throughout the school day in all school settings so that the classroom runs smoothly for all learners (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Each fall, teachers receive a new set of students and they must intentionally teach students what is expected so that learners can thrive (Denton & Kriete, R, 2000; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). A structured environment includes students feeling a sense of ownership for the classroom and the materials. It should be a place where they have time to explore, are safe and comfortable (Denton & Kriete, R, 2000). The first six weeks is a period when teachers help students cultivate growth, establish expectations for student behaviors, and set consequences (Denton & Kriete, 2000).

Daily schedule is posted and clearly visible to students

Establishing a friendly, predictable, and orderly classroom is essential for children's achievement (Denton & Kriete, R, 2000; Patterson & Farmer, 2018). Learning in the classroom begins the first day by establishing rules and procedures within the classroom and designing the structure of the environment to allow students to know what to expect each day and throughout the school year (Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Patterson & Farmer, 2018). Setting routines, generating rules, and teaching logical consequences supports teachers to create a caring learning environment (Brady et al., 2003; Korpershoek et al., 2016). Routines allow students to have a sense of order and predictability in the classroom and allows them to relax, feel successful, and focus their energy on learning (Denton & Kriete, R, 2000; Korpershoek et al., 2016). Students also feel in control when teachers post a clear, daily schedule for everyone to see (Gunter & Denny, 1996; Little & Atkin-Little, 2008). These daily reminders help students be more accountable for their actions and it serves as a reminder of the classroom culture (Korpershoek et al., 2016; Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Oliver & Reschly, 2011).

Environment is arranged for ease of flow of traffic and distractions minimized

Teachers arrange the physical environment of the classroom to allow themselves and their students to move freely around the room with minor distractions (Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Patterson & Farmer, 2018). Teachers need to plan how the flow of traffic around the room will work and how to keep distractions at a minimum (Nelson, 1996; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). The physical characteristics of the classroom

are factors in keeping everyone safe and the daily routine allows teachers to have

better control of the classroom (Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Patterson & Farmer, 2018).

Choosing where to set up desks or tables, where to meet as a whole group, and how to

accommodate for activities where all students can see and be actively involved is

something that needs to be preplanned (Clayton & Forton, 2001). Teachers who take

the time to plan their environment and organize classrooms to better manage the

behaviors of the student is critical to positive educational outcomes (Oliver & Reschly,

2007). If teachers do not take this time to prepare, students suffer and do not learn as

much as they could (Marzano et al., 2003).

Active Supervision and Student Engagement

Supervision should happen at all times by staff (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Objects

that are unsafe should to be removed or out of reach and there should be adequate

space for students to move freely around the room (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Oliver &

Reschly, 2007). Active supervision is important to keep all students safe in the

classroom and actively engaged in the work (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Teachers

should be providing whole class instruction, small groups, or in one-to-one situations

with students, but still be aware of what is happening in other areas of the room

(Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Effective teachers are able to monitor the room from all

angles while interacting with students and keeping close proximity to students who

need positive reinforcement (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Teacher scans, moves in unpredictable ways, and monitors student behavior

Every teacher has to deal with classroom disruptions from students on a daily basis (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Monitoring student behavior allows the teacher to know the students who are engaged in appropriate behaviors and prevents misbehavior from escalating (Nelson, 1996; Oliver, Wehby, & Daniel, 2011). By making a quick scan of the room to make sure every student is looking at the teacher before the teacher begins speaking, and making eye contact with the few students who are struggling to maintain attention ensures that students are ready to engage in learning (Gunter & Denny, 1996). Teachers use verbal and nonverbal messages when scanning the classroom to correct behaviors (Marzano, 2011).

Many teachers look intently at a student who is beginning to get off task and this can draw that student's attention very quickly (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). The look quickly communicates that the teacher is paying attention and that the student needs to get back on task (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Making eye contact or moving in proximity to a student is a subtle and powerful way to alert the student that they need support (Marzano et al., 2003). Monitoring student behaviors by maintaining a close proximity is one of the most powerful discipline tools to reduce classroom disruptions and behaviors (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Using verbal reminders that are privately done or close to a student provides the student with the opportunity to improve behaviors (Marzano et al., 2003).

Teacher uses more positive than negative teacher-student interactions

A positive teacher-student relationship is necessary and often is the most important part in creating positive outcomes, academic achievement, taking educational risks, and trust for students (Glock et al., 2019). Teacher who build strong relationships provide an essential foundation for effective classroom management and student achievement (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). When teachers tell students that they have the ability to do well it provides confidence and helps maintain positive expectations (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Students will more readily accept the rules and procedures with teachers who have meaningful relationships with students (Marzano et al., 2003; Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Positive verbal responses are more effective than stating the negative behavior and teaching what is expected sets standards for students (Gunter & Denny, 1996). The rule of practice is to provide four or more positive reinforcements for each correction (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Paying attention to the positive-to-negative ratio provides social skills instruction to students and ensures that the learning environment feels encouraging and positive, even when redirection is needed (Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

Teacher provides high rates of opportunities for students to respond

Many students become frustrated when presented with information and materials beyond their current skill level and they may misbehave from that frustration (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). In order to reach all students, teachers must provide differentiated instruction at student-appropriate levels (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Increased on-task behavior, task completion, and better comprehension are closely associated with higher academic achievements (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Students who are actively engaged and have frequent opportunities to respond to rigorous academic tasks are less disruptive and demonstrate improved academic skills (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Teachers should hold all students accountable for their goals, continue to challenge them to meet their potential, and to ask questions that spark more of an interest in learning (Marzano, 2011).

A major challenge in active, hands-on learning is to allow learning to happen where students have opportunities to make choices and make discoveries through trial and error (Denton & Kriete, 2000). Many teachers provide multiple options in the ways that students can perform a task that allows them to try something new (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Some teachers write each step on the board serving as a reminder of what to do and is also a good idea for students who process information visually (Gunter & Denny, 1996). Using auditory and visual reminders allows students to take ownership of their learning and to make connections between large amounts of information by breaking them into smaller, manageable pieces (Marzano, 2011; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Also, asking students to restate the instructions in their own words, this allows teachers to know if students understand and can follow the directions independently (Gunter & Denny, 1996; Miller, 2018). Independence in the classroom setting is vital as students continue their education (Miller, 2018). This allows teachers to work with many different groupings of students as needed throughout the day and

for students to gain more opportunities (Marzano, 2011; Miller, 2018; Oliver &

Reschly, 2007).

Teacher utilizes multiple observable ways to engage students (e.g. response cards,

tutoring)

There are many classroom strategies used by teachers to keep students engaged

and focused (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Nelson, 1996). Some teachers create popsicle

sticks with student's names on them and they use them to check for understanding

(Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Other teachers ask for hands up or a thumbs up for get

clarification and to see if students are ready to move forward (Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

Student response cards are a fast and effective way to check for student understanding

as well (McCarney & Wunderlich, 2014). A teacher may write questions on the board

and distribute two-to-three colored cards representing student's understanding of the

question based on the color (McCarney & Wunderlich, 2014). The student will flash

one of the cards quickly after the teacher asks a question to provide their answer

(McCarney & Wunderlich, 2014). This formative grading activity is quick because it

allows the teacher to immediately check for understanding and see who needs more

support from the lesson (McCarney & Wunderlich, 2014). The use of response cards

or popsicle sticks encourages all students to be actively listening, to participate in class

discussions in different ways, and it gives students a chance to respond to questions

based on students' own abilities (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Teachers should know that all

students are different and understand differently, so multiple strategies need to be

utilized throughout the day to help students to be successful in their educational

settings (Gunter & Denny, 1996; McCarney & Wunderlich, 2014; Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Schoolwide Behavioral Expectations

A well-managed school is important to the achievement of students and schools need to establish clear school-wide rules and procedures around specific types of behaviors (Marzano et al., 2003). Schoolwide rules should be taught in the first part of the year along with the routines that teachers expect and retaught after each long vacation (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). It is important to schedule time for teaching the expected behaviors to all students and practicing them regularly (Miller, 2018; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). This direct instruction provides all students to consistently expect and be held accountable for their behaviors (Miller, 2018; Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

Many schools use a behavioral matrix or flow chart that provides a clear hierarchy of consequences for students, teachers, and parents (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Schools must follow these matrixes and respond proactively and consistently (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Teachers who explain the common routines and rules at the beginning of the year and discuss the school-wide rules, allow everyone to actively work together to maintain proactive strategies and build a positive class school community (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Nelson, 1996; Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

A few positively stated behavioral expectations are posted, systematically taught, reinforced, and monitored

Students come to school with many types of behavioral issues so schools must establish clear and consistent behavioral guidelines and consequences (Miller, 2018;

Nelson, 1996). Establishing a friendly, predictable, and orderly classroom is a prerequisite for children's achievement and that is done by creating clear behavior guidelines (Denton & Kriete, 2000). Teachers often make the mistake that students already know the school expectations (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). The use of rules is a powerful and preventive component in classroom organization and behavior management because it establishes the behavioral context of the classroom by stating what behaviors are expected of students (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Behavior expectations posted in multiple places in the classroom, throughout the school, and sent home to parents encourages everyone to know what everyone is expected to do at school (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). The rules help both the teacher and students be accountable for their actions and by having rules posted, it helps everyone refer to the rules and reminds them of what behaviors should be seen in the classroom and throughout the school (Jones & Jones, 2007).

Classroom rules

During the first few weeks of school, teachers gather their students to discuss what type of classroom environment they want to have for the current school year (Marzano, 2011; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). In good, quality classrooms, students actively participate in brainstorming strategies to decide what the classroom should look like and feel like. (Marzano, 2011; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). A few rules, generally three to five, should be stated positively, describing the behavior that is expected, contain language that is simple for all learners to understand, and should be consistent with the schoolwide behavior protocols (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

The goals for creating rules in the classroom with students should be to develop and foster a sense of community, establish guidelines and expectations of the rules, create a sense of order and safety, and teach the purpose of rules (Brady et al., 2003; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Rules and routines are powerful preventive components to classroom organization and management plans because the teacher establishes the context of the classroom by specifically teaching what is expected, what will be reinforced, and what will be retaught if inappropriate behaviors occur (Oliver et al., 2011).

A few positively stated behavioral rules are linked to schoolwide expectations

Classroom rules affect how students and teachers interact (Gunter & Denny, 1996) and generate an atmosphere where students feel valued, safe, and challenged (Marzano, 2011). Asking students to help design the rules and expectations allows them to invest in what they think the classroom should look and sound like (Marzano, 2011). Developing classroom rules with the students is a great way to reiterate the importance of having expectations that all members of the class agree to follow (Jones & Jones, 2007). Establishing three to five classroom rules and procedures should have student input and then a "contract" should be signed between the teacher and the students and be placed on the wall for the year to remind everyone of the rules (Marzano et al., 2003). The rules allow for all students to be exposed to a well-organized learning environment where everyone can collaborate with one another (Jones & Jones, 2007; Marzano et al., 2003).

Rules are posted, systematically taught, reinforced, and monitored

Every year teachers have the opportunity to influence how students view rules and understand how rules help to create a sense of safety and community (Brady et al. 2003). Teachers strive to be firm, kind, and consistent in their approaches to rules and rule breaking (Jones & Jones, 2007). Their aim is to create a safe and orderly classroom where teachers can teach and students can learn while still developing trusting relationships and promoting the dignity of each student (Brady et al., 2003). Students feel more confident when they know exactly what is expected of them, which is why teachers should begin each new school year by establishing clear behavioral expectations (Gunter & Denny, 1996). The first level of intervention commonly used in schools is teaching all students key behavioral expectations and routines (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Rules give students a sense of security and provides a climate of respect and healthy interactions where students feel safe enough to take learning risks (Brady et al., 2003). Highly effective teachers teach the rules and routines systemically, not just at the beginning of the year, but also throughout the year and after extended breaks as gentle reminders of how the class community needs to work together to be successful (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Classroom Routines

There are so many demands that classroom teachers are dealing with on a given day from teaching students content, to differentiating for individual student needs, and balancing so that classrooms run smoothly (Miller, 2018; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Classroom routines refer to the specific activities that are taught

carefully in the beginning of the year (Miller, 2018). Some of the basic routines that

are taught are passing out papers, students leaving to use the bathroom, sharpening

pencils, lining up, putting away materials, and taking attendance (Lewis & Sugal,

2019; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). The goal is to pay attention to the behavior that

teachers want to see in the classroom and less of the time focusing on the behaviors

that are getting in the way of teaching (Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Miller, 2018).

Classroom routines are systemically taught, reinforced, and monitored within the

context of the classroom (e.g., turning in homework, requesting assistance)

Not every rule or every strategy will be effective for every student. Teachers

need to be able to adapt and utilize multiple strategies and be skilled at recognizing

when current strategies are ineffective and when modification is necessary (Lewis &

Sugal, 2019; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). During the first six weeks of school,

teachers model certain routines and techniques with students to help students

understand what is expected throughout the day and throughout the year (Denton &

Kriete, 2000; Ritter, 2012). Students learn best by observing how to do something

correctly in the classroom (Denton & Kriete, 2000; Ritter, 2012). Teachers should

model their expectations by demonstrating how they want something done, then ask

students what they noticed during the demonstration, and then have students

demonstrate the skill or task like turning in homework (Brady et al., 2003). Teachers

are constant modelers of classroom routines and students are always watching (Denton

& Kriete, 2000; Ritter, 2012). With the use of intentional modeling students observe

what the teacher is doing, sees what is expected in all contexts of the day and this promotes more positive interactions with peers and teachers (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Encouragement of Appropriate Behavior

Many students who have a hard time behaving in school are used to being talked to a lot, yelled at, and often they feel like a failure (Miller, 2018). Challenging behaviors can mask a student's potential, strength, talents, and interfere with academic success (Davis, Culotta, Levine, & Rice, 2011). Many teachers find themselves focusing on the students with negative behaviors instead of looking for students who are exhibiting appropriate behaviors (Miller, 2018). The goal of encouraging appropriate behavior is to pay attention to the behavior that teachers want to see in the classroom and less of the time focusing on the behaviors that are getting in the way of teaching (Miller, 2018). To do this teachers need to catch students behaving appropriately in the classroom and provide positive and targeted feedback (Jones & Jones, 2007; Miller, 2018). Instead of constantly correcting students who are misbehaving, teachers should be praising the ones that are (Miller, 2018). When the encouraging feedback is given in positive and effective ways, it can help to improve students' behaviors either by decreasing disruptions or by increasing active participation. (Maag, 2019; Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001).

Procedures acknowledge appropriate behavior at the group level (specific, contingent praise, tokens, activities, group contingences, Good Behavior Game)

Many teachers understand that students need visual reminders of appropriate behaviors and developing an incentive chart to clearly show how students are doing in

the classroom to support positive behavior (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Tangible

recognition involves the use of some concrete symbols to recognize appropriate

behavior from a student. In some cases, teachers use a token system where a student

gets a coin or chip for displaying correct behavior during a duration of time (Marzano

et al., 2003). Token systems provide students with immediate reinforcement in the

form of a chip, a tangible item, smiley face, or a check mark that can be traded in for

something in the future (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Tokens

such as beans, stickers, coins, etc. can be given to students to reward them for positive

behaviors (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). As the tokens begin to

add up, students earn positive breaks or incentives throughout the day or week in a

way to reinforce appropriate behaviors (Marzano & Marzano, 2003).

The Good Behavior Game (GBG) is an evidence-based intervention that

effectively reduces disruptive behavior in a variety of settings (Maag, 2019). The

GBG divides the class in two teams, the teacher discusses the rules and expectations

about the behaviors, and a point is given to a team for any inappropriate behavior that

is displayed by one person on the team (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). This game is normally

played during one class period and no longer than 60 minutes in one setting and

provides rewards to the team with the fewest points (Hernan et al., 2019: Otten &

Tuttle, 2011). Typically, the GBG is used many times throughout the year to reinforce

the correct behaviors in the classroom (Hernan et al., 2019: Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

The GBG is a classroom-management technique that works well with elementary

students and decreases off-task behaviors in the classroom and improves appropriate

behaviors such as academic engagement (Maag, 2019).

Procedures encourage appropriate behavior at the individual student level (e.g.,

specific, contingent, praise, behavior contracts)

Teachers deal with behaviors every day and therefore must develop individual

plans for all students based on what students need (Lewis & Sugal, 2019; Oliver &

Reschly, 2007). Teachers who consistently acknowledge students' behavior, reinforce

acceptable behavior, and provide negative consequences for unacceptable behavior by

verbal and physical reactions have a better relationship with students because teachers

are working with the student to develop a clear plan for success in school (Lewis &

Sugal, 2019). Always focusing on the negative behavior tends to discourage students

(Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Stating the positive behavior, the teacher helps students to

understand and feel a sense of pride (Brady et al., 2003). For example, if a student is

waiting quietly in line, facing straight ahead, and ready to walk down the hall, the

teacher should praise the student for the correct behavior. When that student who is

not following these rules sees and hears the praise that another student who is doing

the behavior correctly, the student should want to change their behavior to also receive

that praise. The more specific the feedback the more likely that students will see what

they are doing is right and try the correct behavior (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). The

ultimate goal of all social skills training is for students to be able to self-manage

without needing additional instructions, intervention, cues, or reinforcements

(Marzano et al., 2003; Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

Data are collected on the frequency of appropriate behavior within the

classroom environment

Data collection is a vital part of tracking understand the frequency and function

of the behavior (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Teachers can use observational data to

understand what triggers behaviors and then figure out how to reduce the behavior by

teaching other skills (Davis et al., 2011; Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Oliver &

Reschly, 2007).

Different behaviors may require different data collection techniques (New

Mexico Public Education Department, 2010). Teachers should consider what they

need or want to know about the behavior that a student is exhibiting and then select a

data collection tool that will help them record that data correctly (NMPED, 2010). By

collecting and analyzing various kinds of information about the behaviors, a student is

disrupting the teaching and learning process in the classroom (NMPED, 2010). School

personnel are better able to select the most appropriate intervention to help the student

self-regulate behaviors (NMPED, 2010). Data collection is necessary to alter behavior

thoughtfully and systematically (Jones & Jones, 2007). The goal of collecting data

becomes important because it can predict when, where, with whom, and under what

conditions a certain behavior is likely to occur (Maag, 2019; NMPED, 2010).

Behavior Reduction Strategies

From data collection, teachers analyze what behaviors they are seeing and then

target behaviors that should be replaced (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). When using this

system, the teacher and behavior team should create a checklist that outlines a

student's day and is broken down into durations (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). From there

the behavior team focuses on one or two specific behaviors that they want to be

reinforced throughout the day and this checklist follows them throughout the day

(Davis et al., 2011; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). If and when the student is able to show the

correct behavior from the checklist, the student receives a check or smiley face

indicating a positive classroom experience (Davis et al., 2011; Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

In most cases, there is a goal to increase checks or smiley faces for the student to

receive a positive break or tangible item (Davis et al., 2011; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). In

most cases, for every five to ten minutes in which a student acts appropriately with

this behavior, that student receives a token either on a piece of paper or in a container

on the student's desk (Jones & Jones, 2007). Checklists raise the student's awareness

of behaviors that are targeted, it tracks progress, and is a good tool to discuss with the

student (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Data collection is necessary to alter behavior

thoughtfully and systematically (Jones & Jones, 2007).

     Antecedent strategies are used to prevent inappropriate behavior (e.g.,
precorrection, prompts, environmental arrangement)

     Classroom environments that are predictable and provide positive learning

experiences are important for students who are at risk or have learning disabilities

(Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). Proactive planning to address

behaviors allows teachers to have tools to use in various situations instead of removing

the student (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). The goal is to teach students what is expected in

each learning environment and focus on the positive instead of the negative (Otten &

Tuttle, 2011).

A few strategies that teachers may use with students are precorrection,

prompting, or changing the environment of the classroom. Precorrection is a reminder

of what behavior is effective so the student will not make an error (Deorries, 2012;

Otten & Tuttle, 2011). For example, a teacher might remind a student to quietly line

up and face forward. Prompting is a strategy that is used when transitioning to a new

activity (Deorries, 2012). When a student is about to perform a specific skill, a teacher

might prompt that student by gesturing, pointing to a specific location, verbally stating

it, or visually through written instruction or with pictures (Deorries, 2012). A teacher

might also change the location in which the student in placed in the classroom (Oliver

& Reschly, 2007). By moving students who display behaviors closer to the door it

offers a faster way out of the classroom should behaviors begin to escalate, and it also

allows the student to access another location more quickly (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

These strategies have been proven to help deescalate behavior issues in the classroom

and have made students more accountable for their behaviors (Oliver & Reschly,

2007).

Multiple procedures are used to teach replacement behaviors and reteach

appropriate behavior (e.g., overcorrection)

Scripted social stories can be used along with direct instruction to model what

behaviors and expectations are best in the classroom (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). For

example, if a student is having a hard time making friends, they can create a social

story with a teacher to work through the problem, establish goals, and create scripted

sentences to help the student make friends (Lewis & Sugal, 2019). Social stories help

students understand how to engage in social settings and reteach appropriate behaviors

(Marzano & Marzano, 2003).

Teaching students to take a break is a positive and generally easy replacement

behavior as it can be merely a change in the location of the classroom or a walk down

the hall with someone to regain calmness and then get back to class and continue to

work (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Students can learn to take a brief break during an

academic block when they become frustrated or think they are going to need to regain

calmness (Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

Students can also utilize a self-check-in in the mornings or throughout the day

as a natural break (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). This is where a student meets and talks with

an adult they trust and talk about how the day is either going to go or reflect upon how

the day went (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). This is where an adult can do some teaching

around any areas that was difficult to model how it could have gone more smoothly

(Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

There is different reinforcement (e.g., reinforcing others, competing

behaviors)

Class-wide supports include careful planning of the learning environment,

teaching routines and expectations, and reinforcing appropriate behaviors. (Hernan,

Collins, Morrison, & Kroeger, 2019). Reinforcing is not about bribing or rewarding

students for their behaviors, it is about positively correcting behavior by figuring out

what might help the student be more successful (Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). What is reinforcing for one student, may not be reinforcing to another, so teachers need to figure out interests and strengths (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). To learn about student interests, teachers can conduct surveys or interview the student, or they can observe what that student likes to do when they have free time or at recess (Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Teachers create individual options that allow the student to pick activity they might want to do when they have successfully changed their behavior (Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

There is effective use of consequences (e.g., planned ignoring, time-out from positive reinforcement, reinforcing around target student)

Not every plan, behavior reduction strategy, or positive reinforcement works well and sometimes teachers need to rely on consequences for student behaviors (Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Logical consequences are due to the behavior that a student acted upon (Davis et al., 2011; Marzano et al., 2003). When a teacher uses logical consequences it should be related to the situation, it should be reasonable in the degree of penalty, and it should be respectful, meaning the consequence should be delivered with empathy in a calm, and appropriate tone (Clayton & Forton, 2001; Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

Some teachers ignore minor behavior issues that are happening, like tapping a pencil (Marzano et al., 2003). Other teachers use warning systems by using different colored cards (green, yellow, and red) when dealing with behaviors in the classroom (Nelson, 1996). This card warning system starts at the green card and is placed on the

student's desk and when a behavior happens in the classroom that is not needed, the

teacher will turn the card from green to yellow indicating that behavior was not

appreciated which also warns them to get back on task (Nelson, 1996; Otten & Tuttle,

2011). If the student responds and changes the behavior, the teacher will change the

card back to green. If the behavior continues, the teacher will change the card to red

indicating that another type of consequence might be warranted (Nelson, 1996; Otten

& Tuttle, 2011).

If a child repeatedly acts out at certain times of day, for instance, a "cue card"

designed specifically for those trigger situations can be helpful (Gunter & Denny,

1996). The cue card can be something the teacher puts on the student's desk or simply

picks flashes it toward that student (Gunter & Denny, 1996; Otten & Tuttle, 2011).

This indicates that the teacher is aware what is happening and cues the student that the

behavior needs to stop (Gunter & Denny, 1996; Otten & Tuttle, 2011). Teachers can

also avoid behavior issues by establishing an auditory or visual cue that alerts the

entire class that the teacher is about to give a direction — clapping hands twice, using

a chime, using a countdown, flashing the lights, or standing in the same spot every

time before instruction begins are some examples (Gunter & Denny, 1996). These

routines should be established at the beginning of the year and students should

understand what those signals mean (Clayton & Forton, 2001; Gunter & Denny, 1996;

Marzano et al., 2003). Overall, whether a student is experiencing mild social,

emotional, or behavioral difficulties, these issues can be treated and changed through

school-wide, class-wide, and individual interventions (Davis et al., 2011). Students

with challenging behaviors are one of the most important issues in education (Davis et al., 2011). Proactive intervention instead of reactive strategies are more effective in helping students understand their emotions and behaviors (Davis et al., 2011).

Conclusion

Teachers make a difference and are one of the most significant factors in improving the chances for success for all students (Marzano et al., 2003). Sadly, new teachers are the most ill-prepared to handle behavioral challenges (Strand et al., 2016). Many teacher education programs provide little by ways of training in classroom organization and behavior management, and too often new teachers receive insufficient collegial support or mentoring about classroom management (Brady et al., 2003; Strand et al., 2016). Behavioral management is an important element of classroom effectiveness. The lack of calm and control in the educational setting can interrupt effective learning for all students, including students with and without special needs (Brady et al., 2003). Teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities can offer behavioral management strategies for preservice teachers, but unfortunately there is a wide variation in behavior programs and levels of inconsistency

Students are dependent upon teachers, and teachers are dependent upon those who train them. TPPs have the ongoing challenge of assuring their programs provide the necessary components to prepare well qualified teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2017). Many claim that it is time to redesign TPPs to support the practice, content, theory, technology, and pedagogy that is required of preservice teachers (Strand et al., 2016). TPPs should provide and create intentional learning environments where

preservice teachers can practice relevant teaching, understand the concepts of curriculum, learn approaches, and develop behavior skills that are effective for the generation of students (Strand et al., 2016; Winarti, 2018). The best TPPs graduates develop into life-long educators who are invested in the growth of their learners and ones that believe in the success of all learners (Mpofu & Nthontho, 2017; Winarti, 2018).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY

As an elementary education teacher who has spent an entire teaching career in elementary education, teaching future educators in higher education in two universities, and serving multiple preservice teachers in the researcher's classroom learning the craft of teaching, the researcher strongly believes that general elementary educators do not have the appropriate training in classroom organization and behavior management. The researcher also believes that most educators feel overwhelmed when working with students that have challenging behaviors as there are not clearly defined and/or developed programs for working with these individuals. In short, the researcher believes that behavior situations become elevated and dangerous very quickly.

Study One

The purpose of this quantitative content analysis study was to examine general education teacher preparation programs and to explore specifically how colleges and universities approach classroom organization and behavior management in their syllabi. This research replicated the 2007 initial study by Oliver & Reschly by using their Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration rubric (COBMIC). The researcher used the Oliver & Reschly rubric to measure the degree to which essential components of classroom organization and behavior management are represented in teacher preparation coursework syllabi. Oliver & Reschly (2007) evaluated special education syllabi from colleges and universities in one western state when they conducted their initial study.

This research replicated the initial study using Oliver & Reschly's COBMIC rubric to evaluate general education teacher preparation program syllabi through a sample of New England colleges and universities. The researcher wanted to replicate the study by Oliver & Reschly (2007) using general education higher education syllabi as that is one of the areas of focus for the researcher. Since the researcher has been teaching in teacher preparation programs in New England, the researcher wanted to evaluate the general education syllabi in New England colleges and universities.

For this study, the focus was to determine what types of education preservice teachers were receiving from teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities in New England. A secondary focus was to examine how syllabi present levels of classroom organization and behavior management. The data from this study highlights what syllabi components colleges and universities in New England identify as important skills that preservice teachers need to understand the practice. It is understood that institutions of higher education have a very important role in educating preservice teachers with the skills that are required to keep teachers in the teaching profession. A significant gap between behavior management and classroom organization exists within teacher preparation programs and this research intended to identify what is and what is not being taught in New England colleges and universities. Specifically, this study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Do elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England provide training in classroom organization and behavior management?

2. And if so, what components of classroom organization and behavior management are taught in elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England?

Participants. The researcher used a purposive sampling based on the following criteria: the colleges and universities selected are public institutions, offered a four-year elementary education Bachelor of Arts degree, and offered a student teaching experience for preservice teachers. For the purpose of this study, syllabi from teacher preparation programs from eighteen colleges and universities located in New England (Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island) were requested. Syllabi were requested from college's and university's undergraduate Bachelors of Arts curriculum that the preservice teachers would take during their degree years. The researcher wanted to understand what type of training preservice teachers acquired in the New England region through elementary education syllabi in the areas of classroom organization and behavior. By focusing on the New England region, this study identified similarities and differences among teacher preparation syllabi in context in their teacher preparation programs.

Participant Recruitment. Colleges and universities were selected first from the Department of Education websites for each of the six states in New England (Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island) resulting in 50 colleges and universities in New England, and then analyzed against the criteria (the colleges and universities selected are public institutions, offered a four-year elementary education Bachelor of Arts degree, and offered a student

teaching experience for preservice teachers). Eighteen colleges and universities that were selected met each of the criteria and then were researched online to see what classes general education preservice students needed to take to receive their Bachelor of Arts degree in elementary education. Each of the 18 colleges and universities had their own Excel spreadsheet page where the courses from their curriculums were compiled. Sample data was organized by the syllabi id class number, state id, school, and academic year of each syllabi in an Excel spreadsheet, the researcher then contacted the Administrative Assistants, Deans, or curriculum directors, via email, requesting the school's required syllabi from each of the colleges and universities. The email described the study, explained participant involvement, timeframe of the study, and provided contact information for the researcher. The email also specifically identified which syllabi the researcher wanted for the study which were the syllabi that were only required for a preservice teacher's Bachelor of Arts degree. All colleges and universities were informed that participation was voluntary and the schools had the right to withdraw from the study at any point. Furthermore, each syllabus was saved on a password encrypted USB thumb drive and all coded rubrics were locked in a file cabinet within the researcher's home office. Nine colleges and universities volunteered to participate and the researcher received 91 syllabi in total for this study.

Instrumentation

Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration Rubric (COBMIC)

Oliver & Reschly (2007) designed a rubric based upon their research and findings

to assist teacher preparation programs in identifying gaps in critical essential

components and levels of implementation in their curriculum (Appendix A). This

rubric outlined the seven essential components:

1. structured environment

2. active supervision and student engagement

3. schoolwide behavioral expectations

4. classroom rules

5. classroom routines

6. encouragement of appropriate behavior

7. behavior reduction strategies

   Each of these essential components were then evaluated using a rating system

from 0-4. The rating system responses included:

0=showing no evidence that the concept is included in the class syllabus,

1=concept mentioned in class syllabus,

2=concept mentioned in syllabus and required readings and tests and/or quizzes,

3=concept mentioned syllabus, with readings, test, and assignments, projects for

application (observations, lesson plans, classroom demonstration, journal

response), and

4=concept mentioned with required reading, tests, projects, assignments, and

teaching with application and feedback (field work/practicum).

   The study conducted by Oliver & Reschly (2007) found that 27% of the

universities in one midwestern state had an entire course devoted to classroom

management, while the remaining 73% of the university programs had content related to behavior management which was dispersed within other courses. Results indicated that universities provided less preparation in structured environment, active supervision, student engagement, school-wide behavior expectations, and classroom routines from the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). More than half of the scores from universities indicated no evidence of the seven components in their course syllabi and there was no mention of establishing classroom rules in any syllabi. The scores that Oliver & Reschly (2007) calculated indicated that special education teacher preparation programs are providing content on reactive, behavior reduction procedures, but lacking emphasis on teaching appropriate behavior and preventing disruptive behaviors. The results suggested that there is an absence of comprehensive, classroom organization and behavior management procedures. Oliver & Reschly (2007) had expected to find that special education teacher preparation programs would have had a higher degree of preparation and training in classroom organization and behavior management but found that special education preservice teachers may not be adequately prepared to meet the behavioral needs of diverse students.

Initial Training. For this study, an initial training session was conducted between the researcher and Dr. Oliver to accurately and reliably code syllabi. The researcher and Dr. Oliver practiced scoring several special education syllabi from Dr. Oliver's initial research using the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) until interrater agreement on each level of the essential components was achieved for each course syllabi. This training session offered clarity to how Dr. Oliver analyzed the

syllabi, looked for each of the components within the syllabi, and what constituted for

each of the ratings from the syllabi. This training session also gave the researcher time

to ask questions about Dr. Oliver's research, compare ratings for each component

from the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) for each syllabi, and discuss what

Dr. Oliver realized from her research.

  Data Analysis. Each syllabi from teacher preparation programs in New

England obtained were then coded and analyzed using the COBMIC rubric through a

frequency analysis using the work and training the researcher had completed with Dr.

Oliver. Oliver and Reschly (2007) also conducted a frequency analysis in which they

looked at the number of times each of the essential components were represented in

syllabi. The researcher added eight more columns to the Excel spreadsheet, one for

each of the seven essential components and one more for a total score from the seven

essential components. The researcher also looked for the number of times that the

essential components were represented in each syllabi and in which year students were

exposed to each of the essential components. The researcher then looked for common

key terms within each syllabi to determine descriptors that are not found on the

COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). This data was important because it

outlines how much training in classroom organization and behavioral management

preservice teachers received in teacher preparation colleges and universities in New

England and the components of classroom organization and behavior management that

were taught more intensely in elementary education teacher preparation programs in

New England.

Upon reviewing the data in the Excel file, the researcher realized that there was a misalignment with the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) and the syllabi that this study requested. The researchers recognized that the data retrieved from the rubric did not answer or support the research questions that the researcher had set out to answer. When looking at the first research question, do elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England provide training in classroom organization and behavioral management, the researcher realized that the data that was retrieved from New England colleges and universities did not align to the seven essential components of the COBMIC rubric meaning that New England colleges did not include or focus their courses on those essential seven components from the rubric. The second research question, and if so, what components of classroom organization and behavior management are taught in elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England, this question was also not answered from the data because the New England colleges and universities did not cover the seven essential components from the COBMIC rubric meaning that New England colleges and universities were focused on different components for their preservice teachers to be learning. The data received from New England college and university syllabi did not cover or align to the seven essential components and in most cases, there were zeros in many of the essential components on the rubrics. Realizing that the research questions could not be answered, the researcher changed the methodology and designed study two.

Study Two

The researcher reframed the study objectives to examine additional key terms taken from each of the college and university syllabi for common themes. The researcher used the qualitative approach by Thomas & Harden (2008) where analytical themes emerged.

Analytical Themes

Thematic synthesis is completed through three stages: the coding of text line-by-line, development of descriptive themes, and generating analytical themes (Thomas & Harden, 2008). The last stage, generating analytical themes is how the researcher used the process to generate new constructs, explanations, or hypotheses (Thomas & Harden, 2008). Using the qualitative approach by Thomas & Harden (2008), the researcher performed a line-by-line thematic analysis of the 14, 395 words per syllabus, extracted 1, 310 terms from the 91 syllabi and narrowed those words down into five themes. The researcher highlighted key terms from each line of the syllabi and wrote those key themes on the front of the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) which was stapled to each syllabi in the study. This method gave the researcher a quick view of emerged themes per syllabi and a way to organize the researcher's work.

Five Themes

Once all syllabi were coded line-by-line, 1,310 terms were extracted from the 91 New England course syllabi and entered into an Excel sheet. The researcher added another line in the Excel spreadsheet where the terms were placed from each of the

syllabi. Themes were narrowed down by frequency by using the lookup feature from

Excel to find how many times or occurrences the terms were mentioned within the

syllabi from each of the colleges and universities in New England. The researcher then

began stage two of the thematic synthesis approach (Thomas & Harden, 2008) to

develop five descriptive themes. The researcher looked at the frequency of words that

repeat within the 1,310 terms and from the Excel document five themes emerged

which were Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and

Social Justice. New England colleges and universities had a greater emphasis upon

these five themes in their teacher preparation programs by the words identified in each

of the syllabi.

Diversity

This study defined diversity as the understanding that each individual is

different and has unique qualities that can be based on race, ethnicity, gender, sexual

orientation, socio-economic status, age, physical abilities, religious beliefs, and other

ideologies (Hue & Kennedy, 2012). The understanding that each person is different

and needs to be taught differently due to diverse needs (Hue & Kennedy, 2012). This

theme was established including the words: diversity, cultural diversity, cultural, and

backgrounds.

Professional Skills

Professional Skills are career competencies that are taught as a part of the

coursework that is required to earn a degree (Scales et al., 2018). Professional Skills

are a critical part of teaching as this is the knowledge that preservice teachers need to

learn and apply in real-world teaching to be competent in their job (Scales et al.,

2018). This theme was established including the words: needs of students,

differentiated instruction, behavior management, classroom organization, abilities,

best practices, reflection, pedagogy, and problem-solving.

Curriculum

Curriculum is the organization of academic teaching through academic lessons

and content taught that is offered by a school (Stevens-Smith et al., 2014). Curriculum

is an important component in becoming a teacher and in understanding how to teach

daily (Stevens-Smith et al., 2014). This theme was established including the words:

development, units, planning, lesson plans, differentiating, strategies, and instruction.

Family and Community

This study defined family and community as families, the school, and

organizations in the community working together to promote the best education and

being involved in the development of students (Woods, Morrison, & Palincsar, 2018).

Research shows that high levels of parental and community involvement strongly

improves student learning, attendance, and outcomes (Woods et al., 2018). This theme

was established including the words relationships and communication.

Social Justice

Social justice was defined at the wealth, opportunities, and privileges that

happen within a society (Richmond et al., 2019). Social justice in schools is based on

the understanding that all students should be treated fairly and equitably so that they

feel safe and secure both physically and psychologically (Richmond et al., 2019). This

theme was established including the words: human rights, equal rights, equal opportunity, equal treatment, law, and ethics.

Change in Methodology

The last stage of thematic synthesis, consisted of generating analytical themes by going beyond the primary study to generate new constructs that became evident, explanations, or hypotheses (Thomas & Harden, 2008). The new constructs that became evident were developmental level of students or year of course offering. The researcher wanted to know where Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice emerged in each state according to the year of the preservice teacher. Saracho (2013) discussed that during many freshman and sophomore education classes, preservice teachers are taking foundational courses that present theories behind teaching, introduce students to educational philosophers, and describe what has been done in the history of education. While during many junior and senior years of education were focused on methods-related courses that examine and prepare prospective teachers in the pedagogy of becoming a teacher, planning units, working with curriculum, and offer the preservice teacher practice in the classroom (Saracho, 2013).

The researcher revisited the 91 New England syllabi, entered the year preservice teachers were assumed to be enrolled in each course during their teacher preparation program into the Excel file, and created five more columns, one column for each of the five themes, Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice. For example, if the class was titled EDU235, that was

assumed to be a second-year academic class, while EDU374 would have assumed to be a third-year academic class. Going line-by-line the researcher then looked for any of the words that composed the five themes. If one or more of those words were in that syllabi, the researcher would put a tally mark indicating that the second-year syllabi EDU235 presented three of the five themes.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to examine general education teacher preparation syllabi and explore specifically how colleges and universities in New England approached classroom organization and behavior management in their syllabi. This research began by replicating the 2007 initial study by Oliver & Reschly, using their COBMIC rubric. The purpose of the rubric was to measure the degree to which essential components of classroom organization and behavior management are represented in teacher preparation coursework for certification. There was a misalignment with the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) due to the syllabi that this study requested. Oliver and Reschly utilized special education syllabi and this study used general education syllabi. The researcher added a qualitative thematic synthesis approach (Thomas & Harden, 2008) to discover what areas preservice teachers are exposed to in New England colleges and universities. From the thematic synthesis approach, the researcher discovered that New England college and universities courses focus on five themes: Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to replicate the initial study by Oliver & Reschly (2007) using Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration (COBMIC) rubric and evaluate general education teacher preparation program syllabi in New England colleges and universities. According to Oliver & Reschly (2007) teachers should receive adequate training in classroom organization and behavior management prior to their first day of teaching. Research from this study may show what preservice teachers received from colleges and universities in New England in the areas of behavior management and classroom organization. Secondly, this research may determine what types of education preservice teachers received from teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities in New England. The study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Do elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England provide training in classroom organization and behavior management?

2. And if so, what components of classroom organization and behavior management are taught more intensely in elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England?

To answer these questions, two studies were conducted. In study one a quantitative research method approach was employed and in study two a qualitative research method was conducted.

Study One

Study one consisted of requesting and reviewing 91 syllabi from nine colleges and universities in New England using the Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration (COBMIC) rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). However, the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) did not align with the general education syllabi the researcher received.

Reviewing the first research question, do elementary education teacher preparation programs in New England provide training in classroom organization and behavior management, the research showed that the colleges and universities supplied syllabi for this research do not have any classes, based on course syllabi, dedicated solely to classroom organization or behavioral management. When reviewing the syllabi, colleges and universities in New England did not appear to emphasize any of the seven essential components from the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007). This means there was a misalignment with the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) that was used and the syllabi that this study requested. The researcher located and implemented this measure since it was the only one that existed at the time of this study to examine syllabi in classroom organization and behavior management. COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) did not align with targeted syllabi therefore the researcher proceeded to create their own measure, the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric (Appendix B).

When reviewing the second research question, what components of classroom organization and behavior management are taught more intensely in elementary

education teacher preparation programs in New England. The systematic syllabi review research indicated that New England colleges and universities focus most of their teacher preparation on five themes: Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice.

Sample Size

The population included eighteen colleges and universities located in New England (Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island). The colleges and universities selected were public institutions, offered a four-year elementary education Bachelor of Arts degree, and offered a student teaching experience for preservice teachers. A total of nine colleges and universities located in New England consented to participate in this research by submitting their elementary education teacher preparation syllabi to the researcher. Through those nine colleges, 91 syllabi were obtained.

Study Two

Five themes emerged from a review of the 91 syllabi from New England colleges and universities. These themes included: Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice. Table 4.1 outlines the frequency in which the themes are mentioned in syllabi from colleges and universities.

Table 4.1, Professional Skills are mentioned 76 times or a frequency of 84% in the 91 syllabi which meant that Professional Skills was cited the most often in New England college and university syllabi. The next highest theme was Diversity with 61 mentions or a frequency of 67%. Curriculum with the third highest theme with 53

mentions and a frequency of 58%. These three themes make up more than 50% of the

discussed themes in the New England syllabi. This was significant as it showed that

the New England syllabi have more than one theme mentioned per syllabi and in most

cases multiple themes are represented within a course. The last two themes were

Social Justice with 39 mentions and a frequency of 43% and then Family and

Community with 26 mentions and a frequency of 29%.

Table 4.1

Frequency of Five Themes from College and University Syllabi

State	Diversity	Professional Skills	Curriculum	Family and Community	Social Justice
New Hampshire (N=7)	5	7	6	2	4
Vermont (N=10)	3	7	6	1	6
Connecticut (N=29)	20	23	15	6	10
Rhode Island (N=8)	5	6	1	1	4
Maine (N=27)	22	26	18	10	11
Massachusetts (N=10)	6	7	7	6	4
Total (N=91)	61	76	53	26	39

Note. N=the number of syllabi represented in this study from each state out of the total

91 syllabi received from New England colleges and universities.

State Syllabi and Academic Year

Table 4.2 indicated the percentage and number of syllabi that were obtained by

New England colleges and universities according to academic year of study. As seen

in Table 4.2, Connecticut and Maine supplied 56 of the 91 syllabi, which was 60% of

the of the syllabi from this study. The availability of syllabi from Connecticut and

Maine were limited in the freshman and sophomore years as both states provided five

syllabi when compared to the 22 or 24 syllabi that were offered for the junior and senior year. The number of total syllabi also increased as the academic year progressed which indicated that students were more focused on their academic program of study instead of core courses. This was important as it supports previous research that the majority of courses required for an elementary education degrees are focused in the junior and senior years, while freshman and sophomore years are still centered primarily on core general education courses (history, English, science, and math).

Table 4.2 represented the percentage and number of syllabi that were obtained from colleges and universities based on states. Looking at the number of total syllabi from freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years of study, it appears that freshman and sophomores are taking more general knowledge courses and are not focused on classes for their Bachelor of Arts Elementary Education major. For example, looking at the graduation requirements for one Massachusetts school, there are 12 courses including two field experiences for the major of Elementary Education which mean students take a total of 14 courses (48 credits) that are designed for the degree. This also indicates that students still need 20 or more credits in general knowledge classes that make up their core curriculum. Those general knowledge syllabi were not a part of this study as this study identified syllabi that were only specific to the curriculum that preservice teachers needed to take for certification from each New England college and university.

The number of syllabi increased from seven in the freshman year to 33 in the senior year meaning that more syllabi were provided by the colleges and universities in New England. Maine supplied 27 syllabi from colleges and universities and of that total amount, 11 of the syllabi came from one school. Those 11 syllabi were based on the courses that were required for the elementary education degree program which indicated that during academic years of study that students were taking other classes that were not associated with just their major or taking prerequisite courses for their major. This means that the freshman and sophomore years of study are generally devoted to taking core general education classes and preservice teachers begin to take the courses for their degree in the last two years of their college experience. This also meant that preservice teachers are normally not exposed to classroom situations or working with students until their field experiences when a more diverse integration might be more beneficial. If preservice teachers could have earlier exposure to classroom experiences, it might help bridge the connection between foundation classes and practical experience.

Table 4.2

Percentage of Syllabi by State and Academic Year

State	N (%)	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior
NH	7 (7.6%)	1	2	2	2
VT	10 (10.1%)	1	5	3	1
CT	29 (31%)	2	3	11	13
RI	10 (10.1%)	0	5	2	3
MA	8 (8%)	1	2	1	4
ME	27 (29%)	2	3	12	10
TOTAL	91 (100%)	Jul-91	20/91	31/91	33/91

Themes, Academic Year, and State Analysis

Table 4.3 presents the frequency and percentages of themes in syllabi that were obtained by academic year and by New England state. The data from this table showed that all six states discussed all five of the themes somewhere in their teacher preparation program syllabi. The freshman year of study in New England colleges and universities did appear to be consistent as many states like Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire had zeros for a frequency in many of the themes. Maine was an exception as the frequency in the freshman year for each theme was over five mentions. The data from the freshman year of study in Massachusetts and in Connecticut discussed a zero frequency for all of the themes and then in the sophomore year every theme increased.

The number of syllabi also increased with each academic year and almost tripled in the number of syllabi obtained from freshman to sophomore year from seven to 20. In New Hampshire, the frequency of Diversity is represented as 67% during the sophomore year of study in the 20 syllabi that were provided. In Massachusetts 55% of the syllabi mentioned Family and Community during the sophomore year of study out of the 20 syllabi provided. In Vermont sophomore preservice teachers are exposed to a high frequency of Professional Skills within the syllabi and made up 55% of the 20 syllabi during that year of study. The frequency of themes from academic year in New England state syllabi are important as it supports previous that the majority of freshman and sophomore preservice teachers are focused on generation education courses instead of courses that are associated with their Bachelor of Arts degree.

Table 4.3

Frequency of Themes from Academic Year and New England State Syllabi

	D	PS	C	FC	SJ	D	PS	C	FC	SJ	Subtotal
State		Freshman (N=7)					Sophomore (N=20)				N=27
NH	0 (0)	2 (.07)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (.67)	5 (.19)	1 (.13)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
VT	1 (.20)	5 (.16)	0 (0)	1 (.33)	4 (.31)	2 (.40)	17 (.55)	8 (.8)	0 (0)	5 (.38)	
CT	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (.17)	6 (.07)	5 (.12)	2 (.13)	10 (.30)	
RI	2 (.20)	4 (.20)	0 (0)	1 (.20)	2 (.33)	3 (.30)	1 (.05)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (.17)	
ME	8 (.17)	14 (.15)	5 (.14)	5 (.31)	7 (.28)	5 (.11)	7 (.08)	6 (.17)	0 (0)	4 (.16)	
MA	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (.44)	13 (.33)	4 (.40)	6 (.55)	2 (.29)	

Note: D=Diversity; PS=Professional Skills; C=Curriculum; FC=Family and Community; SJ=Social Justice.

N=Freshman Syllabi=7, Sophomore Syllabi=20, Junior Syllabi-31, Senior Syllabi=33 for a Total of 91 Syllabi

As shown in Table 4.3 (continued) senior syllabi continued to show high frequency of mentions (n=) in the five themes that are discussed in New England colleges and universities. When looking at the data from freshman to senior year, Connecticut continued to increase in frequency meaning that the exposure preservice

students are receiving is increasing based on academic year. Maine continued to increase in the frequency of themes as well, with the most mentions of themes in the junior and senior year.

The number of syllabi provided in the junior year were 31 and in the senior year of study there were 33 syllabi. These 64 syllabi made up the more than half of the syllabi obtained from New England colleges and universities. Looking at the frequency in Connecticut during the senior academic year, the data shows that 51% of Professional Skills are mentioned out of the 33 syllabi. Also, in Connecticut during the senior year of study, Curriculum was mentioned 54% out of the 33 syllabi. Maine and Connecticut had significant mentions of all themes in their syllabi. In Rhode Island during the senior year of study, Professional Skills received 75% of mentions in the senior year of study. This data is significant as it showed that the number of mentions in junior and senior syllabi increased as the years of study increased.

The states that provided more syllabi, like Maine who supplied 27 syllabi, had larger numbers of frequencies in their syllabi, than a state like Rhode Island who supplied eight syllabi and had lower numbers of frequency in Curriculum and Family and Community in their syllabi. As for states like New Hampshire who supplied seven syllabi and Massachusetts that supplied 10 syllabi, those states had moderately high numbers of frequency in most of their areas showing that these themes were something they discussed multiple times in their teacher preparation program. In the case of Connecticut and Massachusetts where no themes were addressed in the freshman year of study, the years after increased throughout those academic years of

study. This means that teacher preparation programs in New England discussed

Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice

multiple times in their syllabi and find that these themes are important enough to keep

as a part of their programs for preservice teachers.

Table 4.3 (continued).

Frequency of Themes from Academic Year and New England State Syllabi

	D	PS	C	FC	SJ	D	PS	C	FC	SJ	Subtotal	Total
State	Junior (31)					Senior (33)					N=64	N=91
NH	1 (.17)	7 (.26)	3 (.38)	1 (.50)	4 (.57)	1 (.17)	13 (.48)	4 (.50)	1 (.50)	3 (.43)		
VT	1 (.20)	7 (.23)	2 (.20)	2 (.67)	4 (.31)	1 (.20)	2 (.06)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
CT	16 (.44)	36 (.42)	14 (.34)	7 (.44)	16 (.48)	14 (.39)	44 (.51)	22 (.54)	7 (.44)	7 (.21)		
RI	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (.20)	1 (.17)	5 (.50)	15 (.75)	2 (1.0)	3 (.60)	2 (.33)		
ME	17 (.36)	42 (.46)	12 (.33)	3 (.19)	10 (.40)	17 (.36)	28 (.31)	13 (.36)	8 (.50)	4 (.16)		
MA	2 (.22)	8 (.21)	3 (.30)	3 (.27)	0 (0)	3 (.33)	18 (.46)	3 (.30)	2 (.18)	5 (.71)		

Note: D=Diversity; PS=Professional Skills; C=Curriculum; FC=Family and

Community; SJ=Social Justice.

N=Freshman Syllabi=7, Sophomore Syllabi=20, Junior Syllabi-31, Senior Syllabi=33

for a Total of 91 Syllabi

Conclusion

The data from study one using the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) did not support the research questions as there was a misalignment with the rubric and the syllabi that the researcher collected from the 91 colleges and universities in New England. Preservice teachers appear to lack classroom organization and behavioral management practices in New England and colleges and universities appear to lack effective ways to educate preservice teachers in those areas according to school syllabi. This lack of educational practice affects preservice teachers, schools in which preservice teachers begin to teach in, and may lead to more teacher retention in the future.

In study two, the data indicated that New England college and university syllabi emphasized other themes. The themes of Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice were the focus of colleges and universities syllabi in New England. These themes describe what topics preservice teachers are receiving from teacher preparation programs to be prepared for the classroom, where the concentration of the discussed themes are taking place and in what academic year preservice teachers are being exposed to each theme. When comparing the freshman, sophomore, and junior years in New England colleges and universities, junior syllabi focused on more themes per syllabi. This indicated that courses are covering more content based on the five themes each year preservice teachers are in college. This data shows that many preservice teacher preparation programs offer consistent foundational training in the freshman and sophomore year

with some early exposure and then build upon that theory and practice with more comprehensive understanding in junior and senior years for preservice teacher. This data was meaningful and did ultimately lead to the development of the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric.

Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric

As the researcher could not find a measure to use to evaluate the training that general education preservice teachers acquired in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management in colleges and universities syllabi in New England, the researcher developed the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric. The Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric was developed from the five key themes (Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice) identified through the thematic analysis data from this study.

The development of the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric began by taking the 1,310 terms and the five themes that emerged from the syllabi from the New England colleges and universities. The five themes became the main components for the rubric and under each of the themes were bulleted phrases that indicated what that theme stands for according to the New England syllabi. The themes are listed in the rows of the far-left column of the rubric, along with descriptors and examples to guide application of the criteria based on coursework, standards, and classroom practices. To create these bulleted descriptors, the researcher went back to the Excel spreadsheet and went line-by-line through the 91 syllabi to find

reoccurring phrasing that supported the themes and how it might be represented in a college syllabi. For example, under the theme of Professional Skills, many reoccurring words in the New England syllabi discussed using differentiate instruction to meet all needs of students, so that bulleted phrase was added in under what Professional Skills would look like in a classroom. Under the same theme, the phrase best practices was used multiple times in the New England syllabi which meant that this was an important phrase, so the researcher added it as commitment to improve achievement by best practice strategies. The second dimension is the degree of implementation. In the top row of the rubric, several levels of implementation are defined. For example, no mention of the essential component is the lowest level of implementation and might be assigned a score of zero. Increasing levels of implementation usually are assigned progressively higher scores. The Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric included in the Appendix of this paper is designed for teacher preparation programs, although it can be modified as an observation tool for professional development purposes.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The need for general education teachers to have the training, knowledge, and understanding of classroom organization and behavior management is essential to the growth and development of all students in the classroom (Baker, 2005; Marzano & Marzano, 2003; Miller, 2018; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). Effective teachers expertly manage and organize the classroom and expect their students to contribute in a positive and productive manner, but productive classrooms are difficult when students exhibit destructive and explosive behaviors in school (Greer-Chase et al., 2002; Flower et al., 2017). Teaching practices that focus on classroom organization and behavior management are the most important components for becoming a teacher and most adults do not naturally develop the ability to perform the tasks required of teachers without significant preservice training and cannot be expected to learn effective behavioral teaching skills on their own (Burstein et al., 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Dowling, 2013; Morey et al., 1997; Patterson & Farmer, 2018; Zeichner, 2010). Teachers need coherent education programs that offer structure around classroom organization and behavior management to educate students, keep their eyes on the learning goals, attend to the integrity of the subject matter, manage individual student behaviors, maintain a productive learning environment, pose strategically targeted questions, interpret students' work, craft responses, assess, and provide student's growth (Burstein et al., 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Morey et al., 1997; Patterson & Farmer, 2018; Zeichner, 2010). Effective management is the

foundation in which effective teaching and learning are built upon and preservice

teachers need the training in order to manage all situations of the classroom.

(Marzano, 2011). This chapter was structured to review interesting study findings

provide answers to the study's research questions.

Study One

The results from study one in this research indicated that colleges and

universities in New England do not have preservice teachers concentrating on

classroom organization or behavior management in their teacher preparation

programs.

Comparison of Findings

Since this was a replication study, it was important to compare the findings of

the present study to the Oliver & Reschly (2007) study. There were a few similarities

and differences when comparing the findings.

Similarities

Both studies sought to determine if preservice teachers received training in

classroom organization and behavior management in teacher preparation programs and

both studies found that there was a lack of training in classroom organization and in

behavior management. Considering the fundamental importance of behavioral

expectations, rules, how to organize classrooms for productivity, how to handle

behavior management issues, maintain a safe environment, and how to educate diverse

students including students with disruptive and explosive behaviors, these results are

sources of significant concern. Another similarity was that both studies used the

Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration rubric (COBMIC) designed by Oliver and Reschly (2007) to evaluate syllabi.

Differences

Both studies focused on different regions. Oliver and Reschly (2007) focused their research on special education syllabi in one midwestern state, while the researcher in this study focused on general education syllabi in the New England region (Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island). Both studies used different locations in the United States to measure the degree in which essential components of classroom organization and behavior management are represented in teacher preparation coursework syllabi to evaluate what preservice teachers were receiving.

In this study, the COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) did not generate the expected results in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management in New England. This could have been because Oliver & Reschly (2007), who developed the COBMIC rubric, constructed it with the intent of scoring special education syllabi when the researcher for this study intended to use the same rubric to score general education syllabi. Oliver & Reschly (2007) stated that special education teacher preparation programs provided content on reactive behavior reduction procedures, while this study found that general education syllabi in teacher preparation programs in New England did not provide education in classroom organization or behavioral management procedures. The data that was retrieved from the rubric did not answer the research questions that the researcher had set out to answer. The data

that was compiled from New England colleges and universities did not align to the seven essential components of the COBMIC rubric.

Study Two

The researcher used the analytical themes stage to generate new concepts, explanations, or hypotheses by knowing if the five key themes were based upon student development by the year of study preservice teachers were enrolled in teacher preparation programs. Often curriculum is designed to build upon key concepts each year to developmentally and appropriately enhance learning when students are developmentally ready.

Frequency of Five Themes by Syllabi

As shown in Table 4.1, New England states each supplied syllabi ranging from seven in New Hampshire to 29 in Connecticut. From those state syllabi, five themes (Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice) emerged each contributing high frequencies among New England colleges and universities. Colleges and universities mentioned professional skills in 84% of the syllabi. For example, looking at professional skills among the Maine syllabi, there were 26 mentions of that theme in the 27 syllabi. It is not clear if those mentions are from how many syllabi from this table, but support that Professional Skills are a vital part of all of the state's teacher preparation programs as the frequency in which it was mentioned is high. Diversity also seems to be represented very highly in New England states as it had a frequency of 67%. This indicated that Diversity is another theme that appears to be important to New England teacher preparation programs. The frequency

which is based on the content and words from New England colleges and university syllabi indicate those schools appeared to focus teacher preparation learning primarily on the five themes.

Frequency of Themes from Academic Year and New England State Syllabi

In many freshman and sophomore education classes, preservice teachers are taking foundational courses that talk about the theories behind teaching, introduce students to educational philosophers, and describe what has been done in the history of education (Saracho, 2013). While in junior and senior years of education are focused on methods-related courses that examine and prepare prospective teachers in the pedagogy of becoming a teacher, planning units, and working with curriculum (Saracho, 2013). In many cases, foundational classes are only taught in the first two years of college and then field experiences that provide practice are only integrated in the last two years of the education degree (DeMonte, 2016). This structure does not always allow the preservice teacher to see the connection between theory and practice and often preservice teachers wish there could be a mixture of theory and practice classes to provide a more cohesive experience with education and teaching in the classroom.

Based on the data, it shows a comprehensive understanding of most of the themes throughout the teacher preparation programs in New England syllabi. Many of the states are focused on bringing those themes to students through multiple interactions in course syllabi and primarily in the junior and senior years of study. Those two years of study are often when students are integrated into the classroom in

their field experiences and understanding what it takes to be a teacher. It is concerning to see that during the freshman year, Connecticut and Maine do not discuss any of the themes, while New Hampshire only discussed professional skills two times in their freshman syllabi. This could be because there is no theory based upon these themes or because the researcher was not supplied with syllabi that represent that data as there were only eight freshman syllabi received from all colleges and universities in New England. Reflecting on the data for the junior year, Rhode Island has a very low frequency score of two and Vermont has a frequency score of three in the junior year. These numbers could indicate that those state colleges and universities do not discuss the themes in greater capacities or that the researcher did not acquire enough junior and senior syllabi from those schools to reflect upon real learning.

The data supports that New England colleges and universities were more focused on the five themes or Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice and based on the education that colleges and universities gave preservice teachers, those are the skills and knowledge that New England preservice teachers need in the New England area to be highly qualified teachers. Through the thematic synthesis approach (Thomas & Harden, 2008), the researcher discovered that Maine preservice students get a rather holistic understanding of the five themes, followed closely behind with Connecticut. This shows the researcher that if a student graduating from high school is interested in elementary education and wanted to be more prepared as a teacher according to New England data, then they should attend a college or university in either the state of

Maine or the state in Connecticut. The education that the preservice teacher would

gain from colleges and universities from those two states, would give them a well-

rounded understanding of what it took to be a teacher, how to prepare for the

challenges in Diversity and Social Justice, how to gain the support from Families and

the Community, and how to create Curriculums if the preservice teacher got a job in

New England. The researcher imagines that New England colleges and universities

believes those five themes are critical and crucial in the development of preservice

teachers for the New England region.

It is the researcher's assumption based on this study and the study by Oliver &

Reschly (2007) that perhaps each region within the U.S. might focus their teacher

preparation programs on themes, skills, concepts, or best practices based on what

states and Departments of Education feel preservice teachers ought to know to be a

highly qualified teacher. Thinking that way, the researcher then wonders if a

preservice teacher does not know where they want to teach after graduation, how

could they make an educated choice as to where to go to college as each area might

have different skills, themes or knowledge that is required for that area? Also, thinking

that way, would enrolling in a New England college help or hurt a preservice teacher

who intends to teach in a western state? These are certainly areas in which need to be

further researched.

Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric

The researcher developed the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas

Assessment Rubric to evaluate the training that general education preservice teachers

acquire in the areas of Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice in colleges and universities syllabi in New England based on the data of this study. Despite this rubric being designed in New England using syllabi from one region, this rubric can be utilized in other areas of the United States or the world to evaluate if other regions emphasize these five themes. Using this research and the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric more research should take place to inform the world of education to see if other regions of the United States focus on Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice in their general education teacher preparation programs. If other areas do focus on these five themes, than the New England preservice training may transfer into other regions of the United States very easily without a lot of additional training. If other areas do not focus on these five themes, New England preservice teachers would lack those skills, knowledge, and training as preservice teachers were focused on Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice because New England teacher preparation programs thought these themes and skills were essential. If this is the case, if a New England general education preservice teacher graduates from a New England college or university and then decides to move to Florida or Montana, then the education the preservice teacher obtained in New England may not have prepared them to teach outside of the New England region. This would also be the case if a Florida general education teacher preparation program graduate moved to New England to teach, than that teacher may not have the training to teach in the New England region and in both

cases the teachers would need additional training or professional development to be prepared to teach. This rubric is a tool that can also be designed for teacher preparation programs, although it can be modified as an observation tool for professional development purposes. The intention is that this rubric will be utilized to evaluate general education preservice teacher preparation programs.

This future research would be very important as it would:

- inform if other regions focus on these five themes throughout the United States,

- help high school seniors decide where they may want to go to college and eventually live based on what types of education they would receive of how much more training or education they would need to successfully teach in different regions of the United States, and

- this data would inform institutions of higher education or perhaps change the general education curriculum in order to have consistent teacher preparation programs across the United States.

Limitations

Several factors limit the generalization that can be made from the research, such as population size, private colleges and universities, geographic location, and academic year. The population size for this study was 18 colleges and universities in New England and nine colleges agreed to participate in this study. If the researcher had added private colleges and universities to this study, it would have a bigger sample. The results may differ with a larger, more diverse population if the criteria for

choosing colleges and universities was modified. The researcher wanted to focus on New England for the geographic location as that is where the researcher lives and works and wanted to know what types of general education preservice teachers received. Despite the geographic location being the entire region of New England, perhaps expanding to a more comprehensive region would provide a most robust sample. Furthermore, this study did not include any international representation, that could show the similarities or differences based on international perspectives.

The COBMIC rubric (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) that was used did not provide the data in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management or it could have been the type of syllabi that was collected. The syllabi that Oliver & Reschly (2007) used to develop the COBMIC rubric was developed from special education syllabi from special education teacher preparation programs. The syllabi for this study were general education syllabi which did not align to the criteria and descriptors that the COBMIC rubric (2007) used. Instead it showed the researcher that the college and university syllabi in New England did not focus on the areas of classroom organization and behavior management when teaching general education preservice teachers. Even though data was not compiled from the COBMIC (Oliver & Reschly, 2007) in the manner that had been expected, the themes that emerged from college and university syllabi helped the researcher design the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric.

Another limitation is that since the state syllabi are classified by numbers or as required classes for each academic year of school, it is hard to evaluate if all

sophomores are taking sophomore leveled classes, juniors are taking junior leveled classes, or if seniors are taking senior leveled classes. Many college students may transfer from one college to another and that means they might have had a class waived since one class might be closely aligned with another or perhaps the class, they are trying to transfer in did not take the place of a class in the curriculum. This means if a junior is transferring to a new college, they might have to retake a sophomore leveled class in their junior year. Also, since some states are now honoring dual enrollment classes from high school to college at reduced prices, many high school seniors are taking advantage of this. This would mean that a high school senior could be taking a freshman leveled class and then during their freshman year of college, they might be able to take a sophomore leveled class. This two limitations might be represented in this study, but as there is no way of knowing that, could have skewed the data.

Areas for Future Research

The researcher recommends that future research should be based on the five themes that emerged from this data and research about colleges and universities syllabi using the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric. Using this rubric in other regions of the United States would allow for a more robust, direct comparison of what themes are taught to general education preservice teachers in colleges and universities. This rubric would evaluate the training that general education preservice teachers acquire in the areas of Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice in other regions. The data

collected from that research could provide possible answers as to what themes or skills are taught throughout the United States and possibly design a more comprehensive curriculum that could be used in North America.

Perhaps more information may come from other research studies that includes general education preservice teachers voices on this topic and how effective they perceive their academic programs in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management. Examining the perceptions of the preservice teachers may add a critical component to assisting these students in the classroom environment along with sharing insight into how this topic should be included in college and university curriculum.

Since college students don't always remain at one college during their experience, college students who transfer to and from colleges might lose credits which means students may have to take an additional year of study to complete their Bachelor of Arts degree. Also, college students may add on another major or minor during their college experience. In both cases, many college students would choose to be in college for five years. With the demands, choices, course requirements during different terms, and students transferring from one college or university to another, many college students may take five years to complete their degrees.

Conclusion

This study was designed to examine general education teacher preparation programs and how college and universities in New England approach classroom organization and behavior management in their syllabi. This was done by replicating

the work done by Oliver & Reschly (2007). The data from general education teacher preparation syllabi from colleges and universities in New England did not align to the COBMIC rubric meaning New England colleges did not explicitly focus their courses on the seven essential components. There remains a gap in how prepared preservice teachers are in the areas of classroom organization and behavior management within colleges and universities in New England.

However, a thematic analysis of the 91 college and university syllabi was implemented to develop five analytical themes represented in the general education syllabi which were Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice. The syllabi were then analyzed to determine which of the five themes were taught by academic year. The results indicated that New England colleges and universities have their preservice teachers spend a great deal of their education focused on these themes in their teacher preparation programs to prepare preservice teachers for the real world of teaching. The research and data from this study showed how significant Diversity, Professional Skills, Curriculum, Family and Community, and Social Justice are in the New England region. The education that New England colleges and universities offer preservice teachers are based upon these five themes in order to develop highly qualified teachers. This data was significant in understanding what New England colleges and universities base their preservice teacher education on to develop highly qualified teachers. From that data, the researcher developed the Educator Preparation Key Concept Areas Assessment Rubric for other educators to evaluate the key concepts in syllabi within other areas of

education. This rubric could provide meaningful data in different regions of the United

States and the world and offer preservice teacher preparation programs a more

adequate curriculum for their students to better equip them for the world of teaching.

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Appendix A
Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration (Oliver & Reschly, 2007)

Instructions: Place an X under the appropriate variation implementation score for each course syllabus that meets the criteria specified from 0-4. Score and rate each item separately. Descriptors and/or examples are bulleted below each of the components.	No evidence that the concept is included in the class syllabus	Concept mentioned in class syllabus	Concept mentioned in syllabus and required **readings and tests and/or quizzes**	Concept mentioned syllabus, with readings, tests, and **assignments, projects for application** • Observations • Lesson Plans • Clsrm. Dem. • Journal Response	Concept mentioned with, req. rdg., tests-projects-assignments, **and teaching with application and feedback** • Field Work (practicum) • Tutoring	**Rating:** Rate each item as the number of the highest variation receiving an "X" under it.
Structured Environment • predictable routines established and taught (e.g., turning in homework, transitions, bathroom requests) and daily schedule is posted • environment is arranged for ease of flow of traffic and distractions minimized						**Rating**:
Active Supervision and Student Engagement • teacher scans, moves in unpredictable ways, and monitors student behavior • teacher uses more positive to negative teacher-student interactions • teacher provides high rates of opportunities for students to respond • teacher utilizes multiple observable ways to engage students (e.g., response cards, peer tutoring)						**Rating**:
School-wide Behavioral Expectations • a few, positively stated behavioral expectations, posted, systematically taught, reinforced, and monitored						**Rating**:

• procedures to teach replacement behaviors and to re-teach appropriate behavior (e.g., overcorrection) **Classroom Rules** • a few, positively stated behavioral rules linked to school-wide expectations • posted, systematically taught, reinforced, and monitored						
Column Subtotals						

Classroom Organization and Behavior Management Innovation Configuration (Oliver & Reschly, 2007), page 2 continued

Instructions: Place an X under the appropriate variation implementation score for each course syllabus that meets the criteria specified from 0-4. Score and rate each item separately. Descriptors and/or examples are bulleted below each of the components.	No evidence that the concept is included in the class syllabus	Concept mentioned in class syllabus	Concept mentioned in syllabus and required **readings and tests and/or quizzes**	Concept mentioned syllabus, with readings, tests, and **assignments, projects for application** • Observations • Lesson Plans • Clsrm. Dem. • Journal Response	Concept mentioned with, req. rdg., tests-projects-assignments, **and teaching with application and feedback** • Field Work (practicum) • Tutoring	**Rating:** Rate each item as the number of the highest variation receiving an "X" under it.
Classroom Routines • classroom routines are systematically taught, reinforced and monitored within the context of the classroom (e.g., turning in homework, requesting assistance)						**Rating**:
Encouragement of Appropriate Behavior • procedures to acknowledge appropriate behavior at the group level (e.g., specific, contingent praise, tokens, activities, group contingencies, "Good Behavior Game") • procedures to encourage appropriate behavior at the individual student level (e.g., specific, contingent praise, behavior contracts) • data collection on frequency of appropriate behavior within classroom environment						**Rating**:
Behavior Reduction Strategies • antecedent strategies to prevent inappropriate behavior (e.g., pre-correction, prompts, environmental arrangements) • multiple procedures to respond to inappropriate behavior • procedures to teach replacement behaviors and to re-teach appropriate behavior (e.g., overcorrection)						**Rating:**

• differential reinforcement (e.g., reinforcing other, competing behaviors) • effective use of consequences (e.g., planned ignoring, time-out from positive reinforcement, reinforcing around target student)					
Column Subtotals from page 1					
Column Totals					

Appendix B
Five Themes for New England Syllabi Innovation Configuration

	0	1	2	3	4
Instructions: Place an X under the appropriate variation implementation score for each course syllabus that meets the criteria specified from 0-4. Score and rate each item separately. Descriptors and/or examples are bulleted below each of the components.	No evidence that the concept is included in the class syllabus	Concept mentioned in class syllabi	Concept mentioned in syllabus and required **readings and tests and/or quizzes**	Concept mentioned syllabus, with readings, tests, and **assignments, projects for application** • Observations • Lesson Plans • Classroom Demonstration • Journal Response	Concept mentioned with, req. rdg., tests-projects-assignments, **and teaching with application and feedback** • Field Work (practicum) Tutoring
Diversity • Social and cultural contexts in education • Assisting students with cultural and diverse backgrounds					
Professional Skills • Willingness to differentiate instruction to meet all needs of students • Commitment to improve achievement by best practice strategies • Purposeful, systematic feedback and reflection • Subject matter knowledge • Pedagogical and curricular knowledge of subject(s) taught					

• Implementation of effective proactive methods of behavior management • Implementation of proactive methods to foster student cooperation and engagement with learning • Observe, conflict resolution and problem solve					
Curriculum • Integration of assessment to inform instruction • How students learn, common misconceptions of content • Collaborate with colleagues on lesson and unit planning • Mastery of a range of instructional techniques • Differentiating plans for all students					
Family and Community • Family and community involvement • Developing relationships with families • Communication skills for working with families					
Social Justice • History of human rights					

• Equal rights and opportunities for all students • Legal mandates and litigations • Ethical understanding and reasoning				
Column Subtotals:				