

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

**A LONGITUDINAL STUDY ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS’
BELIEFS ABOUT DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR IN CLASSROOMS: CASE
STUDIES FROM PRACTICUM TO THE FIRST-YEAR IN THE PROFESSION**

Ayşe KIZILDAĞ

A Ph.D. DISSERTATION

Adana, 2007

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A Ph.D. DISSERTATION

Adana, 2007

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN SINIFLARDA DERSİN AKIŞINI BOZAN DAVRANIŞLAR HAKKINDAKİ GÖRÜŞLERİ ÜZERİNE UZAMSAL BİR ÇALIŞMA: STAJ VE MESLEĞİN İLK YILINDAN ÖRNEK OLAY İNCELEMELERİ

Ayşe KIZILDAĞ

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Bu çalışma, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sınıflarındaki dersin akışını bozan davranışlarla başa çıkma stratejilerini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Öğretmenlik uygulaması sırasında öğrencilerin geçirdiği süreçleri belirleyip incelemekle başlayan çalışma, bu öğrencilerin meslekteki ilk yıllarında dersin akışını bozan davranışa müdahale etmelerindeki değişimi analiz ederek sürmektedir. Veriler bir dizi araçla toplanmıştır: görüşmeler, gözlemler, günceler, kısa senaryo ödevleri (vignette task) ve geriye dönük hatırlamalı tartışmalar (stimulated recall discussion). Toplanan nitel veri içerik çözümlemesi ile incelenmiştir. Bulgular, öğretmenlik uygulaması sırasında katılımcıların dersin akışını bölen davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle başa çıkmada az sayıda stratejileri olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Meslekte tam zamanlı çalışmaya başladıklarında ise, sadece repertuarlarını genişletmekle kalmayıp, strateji kullanımlarını da sorgulamaya başlamaktadırlar.

Uzamsal ve derinlemesine bir çalışma olması nedeniyle araştırma, dersin akışını bozan davranışla başa çıkmada bir öğrencinin öğretmenlik uygulamasından tam zamanlı bir öğretmen rolüne geçiş sürecini anlamaya katkıda bulunmaktadır. Çalışma aynı zamanda daha etkin öğretmen yetiştirme programları için öneriler sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dersin Akışını Bozan Davranış, Mesleki Gelişim, Öğretmen Yetiştirme, Nitel Araştırma, Yapılandırıcılık.

ABSTRACT**A LONGITUDINAL STUDY ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS'
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This study is aimed at examining English language teachers' strategies for handling disruptive behaviour in their classrooms. It identifies and evaluates the processes in which student teachers take part during practicum and then it progresses with an analysis of the change in their ways of dealing with disruptive behaviour when they are first year teachers in the profession. The data has been collected through a number of tools: interviews, observation, diaries, vignette tasks, and stimulated recall discussions. The qualitative data gathered has been analysed using content analysis procedures. The findings reveal that student teachers employ a small number of strategies to deal with disruptions caused by misbehaving students. When they start teaching full-time in the profession, not only they enlarge their repertoire, but also begin to reason their usage of such strategies.

Being a longitudinal and in-depth study, it contributes to the understanding of how student teachers develop into novice teachers in terms of their overcoming disruptive behaviour in the frame of a classroom management belief system, and at the same time provides implications for a more efficient teacher education programme.

Key Words: Disruptive Behaviour, Professional Development, Teacher Education, Qualitative Research, Constructivism.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a brief introduction about the background of the study in question. It provides the key terminology and key people in this field of research and introduces the problem and the aim of the study. The research questions to be answered through the conduct of the study are also put forward. The limitations are decided, and key terms are defined for a common understanding with the reader. Additionally, the synonyms of the key terms have also been presented as used both in the literature and this study.

1.1 Background of the Study

The professional development of teachers beginning with pre-service teacher education and culminating in active practice in the profession is a complex process. This field has a vast amount of literature. However, researchers have mostly focused on one of the groups; either student teachers (Calderhead cited in Diamond, 1991; Knowles cited in Diamond, 1991; Johnson, 1996; Almarza, 1996) or novice teachers (Busher, Clarke and Taggart, 1988; Russell, 1988; Hebert & Worthy, 2001; Farrell, 2003).

Pre-service teacher education is an important process to provide not only subject matter but also pedagogical knowledge to a student teacher. The subject matter knowledge gained through regular readings and methodology courses is called 'received knowledge' by Wallace (1991). On the other hand, the experience gained through practice teaching is called 'experiential knowledge'. The combination of both is usually phrased as *theory into practice* or *linking theory and practice* in various studies. Therefore, the quality of the pre-service teacher education should be sustained through consistent theoretical knowledge and constant practice (both in the form of observing and on-site performing). During practice teaching, support comes from the supervisors and mentors, and this is valuable for the student teachers to solve the problems encountered during their education.

Yet, the period of practice teaching is beset with numerous problems for student

teachers. Calderhead (cited in Diamond, 1991), for example, argues that the first two weeks of the practicum are not easy, and the student teachers are usually inclined to imitate their mentors. Similarly, Johnson (1996) shows in her case study that the student teacher lacks the practical knowledge to cope with the realities of the teaching context and prefers to maintain the flow of instruction and classroom order rather than focusing on the ways to enhance learning. Also, Almarza (1996) discusses how student teachers link the theory and practice. She warns that although they do not practice what they learn during their training, this knowledge may influence their thought about their practice. Moreover, Russell (1988) points out that linking theory and practice is problematic since connecting theory and practice is not a linear two-step process, such as acquiring the content knowledge first, and then applying it to the practical matters. In addition to these studies, Bennett and Turner-Bisset (1993) have conducted a study with pre-service teachers concerning the extent to which subject matter knowledge of student teachers affect their performance. They have taken various student teachers from different departments: music, mathematics and science. Following an academic test, the student teachers were observed and interviewed while they were practice teaching. The result was, as the researchers guessed, that the higher the academic knowledge, the more effective the performance.

Sendan (1996) has conducted a study with pre-service teachers to determine if they change their beliefs about teaching and learning. He has concluded that they change their beliefs at the end of the teaching practicum, but reading carefully is necessary to detect this change. Sometimes they use similar wordings for their conceptions although they present much different perspectives. The understanding of these beliefs at the beginning of a training program is important since student teachers construe the knowledge that tutors present at the institute in accordance with their prior beliefs. Similarly, Cabaroğlu (1999) has conducted her study with student teachers at a post-graduate certificate in education programme (PGCE) to detect what their beliefs are and how their beliefs develop. She discovered that the beliefs are idiosyncratic, and they involve such processes as awareness, addition, omission, elaboration, linking-up, re-ordering, and re-labeling. These changes originate from different sources, such as their observations, microteaching, experiences at practice schools, and discussions with tutors, method sessions, other teachers and student teachers, and feedback from other tutors and teachers at school. İlin (2003), on the other hand, focused on the supervisors and their impact on student teachers' teaching. She observed student teachers while in

teaching practice and recorded supervisors in feedback sessions. Re-observing the student teachers during teaching helped her to evaluate the effect of supervision on their performance.

Another phase that may be painful for most beginning teachers is transition from the teacher education program to the profession. Farrell (2003) explains that this process of “the transition from teacher training institution to the secondary school is characterized by a type of reality shock in which the ideals that were formed during teacher education are replaced by the reality of school life” (p. 95). The first year of teaching is believed to be “an important segment of a teacher’s career and to have long-term implications for teaching effectiveness, job satisfaction and career length” (Hebert & Worthy, 2001, 897). Russell (1988) adds that the first-year teacher has not much time to reflect on his/her practices since s/he is busy with accommodating to the new context. As Carré (1993) reports, most of the novice teachers have a hectic beginning to the profession, although later they learn how to cope with this chaotic state. Day by day, they state that they increase their self-confidence as they experience more in the real teaching context. In addition to these studies, Busher, Clarke and Taggart (1988) present the disappointment one novice teacher experiences in the first year of the profession. Though he was nominated as an effective beginning teacher by the head teacher, he did not regard himself efficient. Practical matters became more difficult than he expected; consequently, he concluded that he had learnt little about class teaching at the training institute. Researchers tried to help this teacher by video recording of his classes and thus, revealed the dilemmas he faced with the students in the classroom. As a result, the novice teacher started reflecting on his performance. Hence, video recording and reflection on performance can be a method by which the teachers can cope with the complexity of teacher/student interaction in the classroom.

However, most beginning teachers cannot cope with the problems encountered in a classroom and may opt out of the profession. According to the statistics, 15% of the teachers leave the profession after the first year and 15% after the second year in the United States (Herbert & Worthy, 2003). Moreover, in England and Wales between 5% and 30% leave the profession prematurely, and in the Czech Republic 25% qualified graduates of teacher education programs prefer not to enter the profession (OECD report, 2001). On the other hand, as Farrell (2003) states beginning teachers who are mentored in their early years become more effective teachers. Chan and Leung (1998), Farrell (2003) and Hebert and Worthy (2001) categorize the problems novice teachers

have under the following headings:

- Classroom management and discipline problems (Chan and Leung, 1998; HMI 1988 report cited in Bennett & Turner-Bisset, 1993)
- Teaching resources and materials problems (Farrell, 2003),
- Handling the heavy workload problems (Farrell, 2003),
- Applying the theoretical knowledge they have to the practical issues in the classroom problems (Hebert & Worthy, 2001),
- Generating realistic beliefs about teaching problems (Hebert & Worthy, 2001).

Among these problems stated above, the first one has attracted most of the researchers' interest. Numerous studies investigated the beliefs of teachers about the classroom management in pre-service, in-service and expert years of teaching. They have been conducted because "the biggest barriers to new teacher success are poor classroom management skills (82 percent) and *disruptive students* (italics added) (57 percent)" as reported by Gordon (cited in Parkay & Stanford, 2004, p.52). In addition, Orlich, Harder, Callahan and Gibson (1998) connect the difficulty of managing the classroom with the exuberance of studies conducted in this field to new teachers being lack of the ability of carrying on others' behaviours. It is a fact that before the first day on the job, new teachers have never given a thought of others' acts in terms of feeling responsibility. The problem starts before entering the classroom as full teacher. In her research, Martin (2004) mentions the problems experienced by the student-teachers during practice teaching. She proceeds with the idea that the direction of later professional development in classroom management depends on the initial conceptions of a student-teacher in the practicum (Martin, 2004). Similarly, Brouwers and Tomic (2000) states "when teachers have little confidence in their ability to maintain classroom order, they will PROBABLY give up easily in the face of continuous *disruptive student* (italics added) behaviour" (p. 249).

Research about classroom management not only reflectS the difficulty of handling the management of classrooms, but also presents advantages and strategies of effective classroom management. To illustrate this, Kaliska (2002) points out the benefits of effective classroom management as it "increases student engagement, decreases *disruptive behaviours* (italics added), and makes good use of instructional time" (p. 2). The key to successful classroom management is described by Brophy

(1988) as “...the teacher’s ability to maximize the time that students spend actively engaged in worthwhile academic activities (...) and to minimize the time they spend waiting for activities to get started...” (p. 3).

One term frequently mentioned in the research body on classroom management is *disruptive behaviour*, which teachers have to eliminate before proceeding to instructional management. Disruptive behaviour, which is also known as misbehaviour, may be defined as the interruptions of the educational process by student actions (Kerr and Nelson, 1998). Handling disruptive behaviours is important as such student actions demand too much teacher time and because “teachers want calm and productive classrooms; students, too, find disruptive behaviours disturbing” (Mullen as cited in Kerr and Nelson, 1998, p. 192). Furthermore, one of the basic roles of a teacher in class is to create a classroom environment where the problems are solved before erupting, and if a problem does emerge, to intervene quickly so that it does not disrupt the learning of others (Orlich, Harder, Callahan and Gibson, 1998).

The studies conducted to generate teacher beliefs about classroom management and disruptive behaviours are diverse. Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1998) highlight the bidirectional relation between teacher beliefs about classroom management and their experiences in the classroom. Therefore, exploring a teacher’s classroom management beliefs while investigating practices in the classroom is a good starting point (Alexander & Galbraith cited in Youssef, 2003).

1.2 Problem Statement

This brief review of relevant literature reveals that the research about teacher development is usually split between pre-service teacher education and first-year in the profession. The focus is on either the former or the latter. The description of the continuum starting from Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and progressing with the first-year in the profession will be highly valuable in terms of analyzing the components of pre-service teacher education and practicum to generate implications for a more effective education in the context of the Cukurova University, English Language Teaching (ELT) Department.

Therefore, a study identifying and evaluating the processes and activities in which student teachers take part during practicum and discerning the beliefs about the ways that first-year teachers manage disruptive behaviour would be useful (Martin,

2004). Also, such a longitudinal, in-depth study will contribute to the understanding of the phenomenon in detail. The reasoning behind the focus on pre-service teacher's beliefs about classroom management and disruptive behaviour lies in the following quote: "The way beginning teachers organize their knowledge of organization has a bearing on their ability to reflect about classroom management.... Teacher educators should attend to enhancing beginners' knowledge structures" (Winitzky, 1992, p.10).

Since the beliefs are idiosyncratic and personal, the research related to gaining insight about this issue should be localized to get more realistic figures about different contexts. A body of the research on teacher thinking, belief change, student-teacher, novice teacher, and classroom management might prove to be enlightening. However, the case-sensitive and in-depth research would highlight the unique features of the context in question. Thus, the research, particularly about English language teacher graduates of ELT department, Cukurova University, would be beneficial in terms of developing a more effective schema for the teacher-training program. Then, the research will make it possible to evaluate both the effective and ineffective elements of the teacher education program. Thus, the present study will contribute to the understanding of how student teachers develop into novice teachers in terms of their overcoming disruptive behaviour in the frame of a classroom management belief system, and at the same time, provide implications for a more efficient teacher education program.

1.3 Aim and Research Questions

Clearly, effective learning occurs in a well-disciplined class atmosphere. Thus, the problem of beginning language teachers must be analyzed in-depth to gain insights on what kinds of difficulties they have during instruction in terms of classroom management. To achieve this purpose, the present study is conducted with the following aims in mind:

1. to understand the student-teachers' and novice teachers' beliefs about classroom management, specifically about disruptive behaviour preventing them from managing instruction effectively,
2. to describe the developmental process of the participants' classroom management strategies while handling disruptive behaviour starting from their practicum stage in the fourth-year through their first year in the profession.

The present study seeks to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the beliefs of senior student-teachers about disruptive behaviour?
How do they define disruptive behaviour?
How do they handle disruptive behaviour in their classes during practicum?
2. What are the beliefs of novice teachers about disruptive behaviour in their first year in the profession?
How do they define disruptive behaviour?
How do they handle disruptive behaviour in their classes?
3. What is the nature of the change (if any) in their beliefs in terms of handling disruptive behaviour from pre-service teaching to the end of first year in the profession?

1.4 Key terms

1.4.1 Definitions

Classroom management: "... the orchestration of classroom life: planning curriculum, organizing procedures and resources, arranging the environment to maximize efficiency, monitoring student progress, anticipating potential problems" (Lemlech, 1999, p. 4).

Discipline: "... most simply stated, (...)the business of enforcing simple classroom rules that facilitate learning and minimize disruption" (Jones, 1979, p. 26).

Disruptive behaviour: "... any action by one or more students that threatens to disrupt the activity flow or pull the class toward a program of action that threatens the safety of the group or violates norm of appropriate classroom behaviour held by the teacher, the students, or the school's staff" (Doyle, 1986. p. 396).

Vignette: (pronounced as vin-yet) A brief incident or scene (as in a play or movie) (*Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*, <http://www.m-w.com>). It is a description of a concrete level of ability on a given domain that individuals are asked to evaluate using the same question and response scale as the self-report question on that domain (from <http://www.agingstats.gov/chartbook2004/glossary.html>).

1.4.2 Synonyms

Initial teacher: pre-service teacher, student-teacher, practitioner, trainee, entree teacher

Novice teacher: beginning teacher, in-service teacher

Initial Teacher Education (ITE): teacher training (education) program

Practicum: practice teaching

Practicum school: practice school

Disruptive behaviour: misbehaviour, unwanted behaviour, undesired behaviour

Personal Construct Psychology (PCP): constructivism

Diary: journal

1.5 Limitations

As in every study the present study has some limitations. Its in-depth nature hinders the generalisation of the results of this study to the larger population. Moreover, the case studies in general, have the aim of enlightening the researchers in the field and of helping them understand the phenomena in question. Therefore, the results of this study should be interpreted cautiously. Furthermore, since the theory of Personal Construct Psychology (PCP) suggests that each person has a unique understanding of the world and thus s/he construes the concepts accordingly, assuming that the other participants from other locations in a similar study would produce similar results would be misleading. All in all, such approaches would harm the uniqueness of each participant's professional development about the subject in question. In this study, age and sex differences between participants as well as school characteristics of the participants taught have also been excluded while interpreting the data.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

People have always wondered about how human beings think. The acquisition of knowledge and process of information have been under meticulous research for a very long time. Understandably enough, different theories have been put forward by various scientists from diverse research paradigms.

Among them, a well-recognized one about human thinking and learning is the Kelly's *Personal Construct Psychology* (PCP) which emphasizes how people take an active part in construing the world around them. In other words, PCP has two underlying themes: human beings and their interaction with the environment. These issues are dealt with in Kolb's *Experiential Learning* and Lewin's *Field Theory* and *Experiential Phenomenology* in relation to the experience of human beings.

In other fields, such as psychology, sociology and professional learning, educators are asking key questions: How does a teacher start thinking in the way s/he thinks? What makes him/her think in that way about a particular issue? What is the nature of the change in a teacher's specific belief? What triggers/affects this peculiar change? Is this change reflected into a teacher's actions? If so, how is it traced?

The following sections will focus on the theories about the basic tenets and principles of teacher thinking. In particular, the study will mention the research on professional learning/development in relation to pre-service or in-service years, and then, will move to the most problematic areas teachers face while they are transforming from a student-teacher to a first-year novice teacher with a specific concentration on maintaining discipline in a classroom. The discussion of these issues will be broadened to describe the models put forward by different scholars and the research in the field.

2.1 Personal Construct Psychology (PCP)

George A. Kelly is one of the pioneers in cognitive psychology and presented his view in *Personal Construct Psychology* (PCP) in 1955. His epistemological position is called 'constructive alternativism', which emphasizes that the subjective

interpretations of people are subject to changes or revisions (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). In the literature, PCP has been placed under the paradigm of *constructivism*, and it has taken its place in the history among many psychological movements. The following figure displays Kelly's place in a panorama of scientists' works.

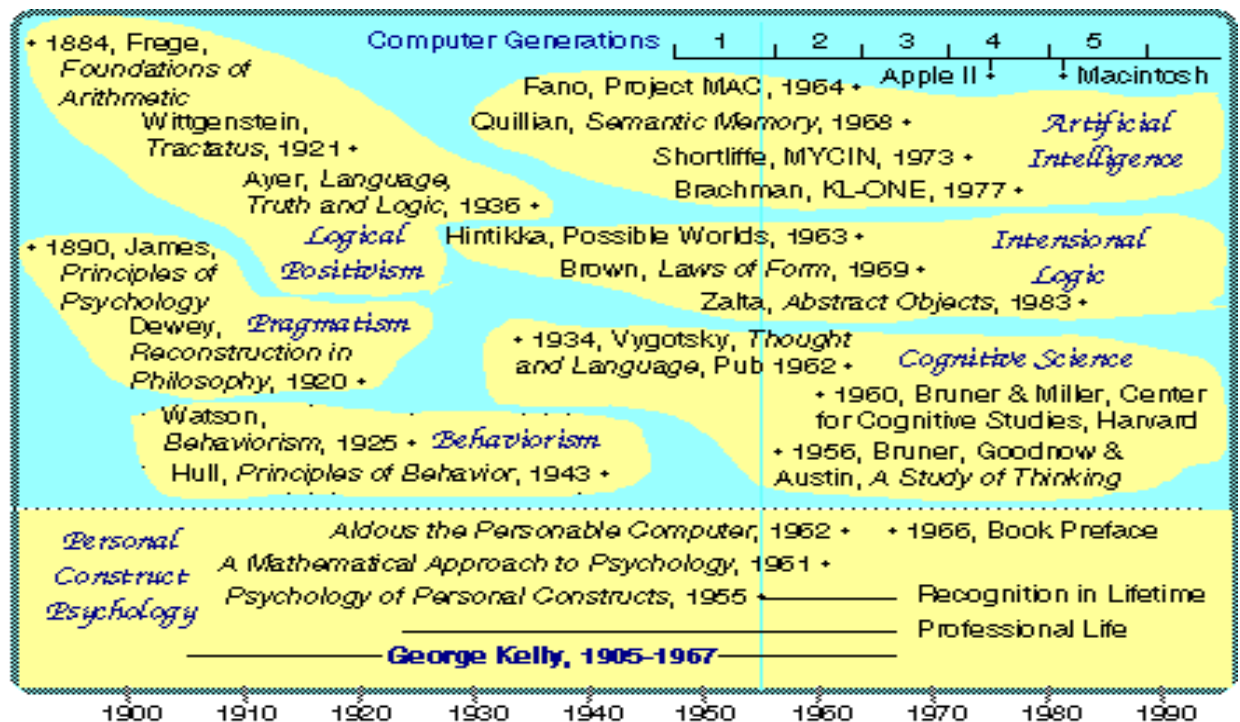


Figure 2.1. The Intellectual Setting of Personal Construct Psychology (Shaw & Gaines, 1992, p.23)

To begin, PCP is a theory of human thinking where individuals are actively involved in constructing knowledge for themselves. In other words, knowledge is not transmitted but people construe it. Accordingly, the process of learning is described by Roberts (1998, p.23) as follows:

- the person filters new information according to his or her expectations and existing knowledge of the world;
- s/he constructs the meaning of the input;
- this meaning is matched with her [*sic*] prior internal representations relevant to the input;
- matching confirms or disconfirms existing representations;
- if there is a match, then s/he maintains the meaning as presently constructed

(assimilation);

- if there is a mismatch she [sic] revises her representation of the world to incorporate the new information (accommodation).

The theory consists of one fundamental postulate under which lie eleven corollaries (Kelly cited in Sendan, 1995, pp. 25-32; Yaman, 2004, pp. 86-93; Yumru, 2000, pp. 12-18; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, pp. 58-62):

The *fundamental postulate* is that *a person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events*. The postulate focuses on individuals' anticipation of future events by utilizing their personal constructs. As the following figure shows, an individual actively applies his/her beliefs (*constructs* in Kelly's term) to the event witnessed or experienced in the world. The event is perceived in combination with the person's unique construct system.

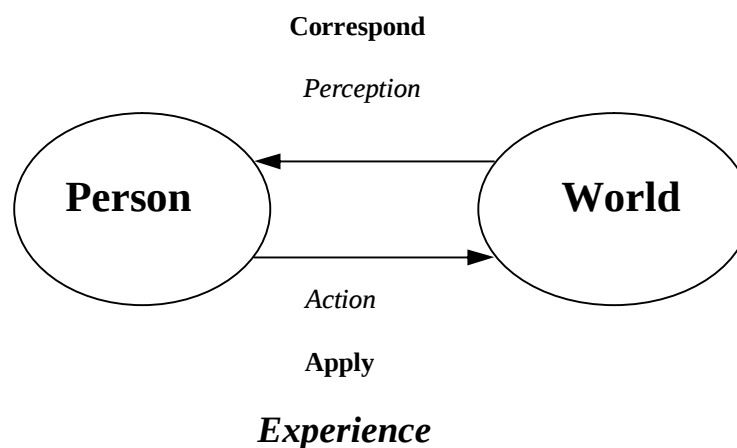


Figure 2.2. Person as an Anticipatory System Interacting with the World
(Gaines, 1989, p.7)

1. **Construction Corollary:** *A person anticipates events by construing his/her replications.* The individual anticipates new events happen in the same way they have previously. In other words, the experience about one particular issue guides the person for oncoming ones. The differences may cause the construct to be re-constructed.
2. **Individuality Corollary:** *Persons differ from each other in their construction of events.* The construct system which the individual creates is different from that of

any other person (uniqueness). However, one should not assume that people do not share common constructs. In fact, position, focus, range of permeability within the

hierarchical framework differs, but not necessarily the meaning attached to them.

3. **Organization Corollary:** *Each person characteristically evolves, for his convenience in anticipating events, a construction system embracing ordinal relationships between constructions.* The constructs are not apart from each other, but they are attached together in a hierarchical network constructed by the individual. There are subordinate constructs as well as superordinate ones.
4. **Dichotomy Corollary:** *A person's construction system is composed of a finite number of dichotomous constructs.* Dichotomy is defined as "a division or the process of dividing into two especially mutually exclusive or contradictory groups or entities" in Merriam-Webster's [On-Line] Dictionary. As stated in the definition, the constructs are bipolar, showing contradictions such as good-bad, effective-ineffective constructs.
5. **Choice Corollary:** *A person chooses for himself that alternative in a dichotomized construct through which he anticipates the greater possibility for the extension and definition of his system.* This aspect of the theory is particularly relevant to Kelly since his stand in theoretical paradigm falls on constructive alternativism. In other words, an individual starts the activity of making dichotomous responses to the outer world. A person has the choice of naming the events s/he meets in a dichotomous way.
6. **Range Corollary:** *A construct is convenient for the anticipation of a finite range of events only.* A particular construct has a limited access for a range of events, which means that no construct is useful for everything. There may be broad or narrow constructs; nevertheless, the range is determined by the particular human being.
7. **Experience Corollary:** *A person's construction system varies as he successively construes the replications of events.* Individuals revise and/or change their constructs according to the events they experience. However, it should be noted that the experience may only help the individuals when they successively revise the construct system in terms of validation process. On the other hand, people may encounter events which have little or no effect on them. As long as they respond to the environment, the construct system is subject to the revisions.

- 8. Modulation Corollary:** *The variation in a person's construction system is limited by the permeability of the constructs within whose ranges of convenience the variants lie.* The construct systems may be revised and changed in accordance with the experience. Yet, this modulation depends on the level of permeability of the construct system.
- 9. Fragmentation Corollary:** *A person may successively employ a variety of construction subsystems which are inferentially incompatible with each other.* One construct system about a specific issue does not have to include consistent or compatible subordinate constructs. The constructs related to each other may be replaced in different construct networks.
- 10. Commonality Corollary:** *To the extent that one person employs a construction of experience which is similar to that employed by another, his processes are psychologically similar to those of the other person.* This corollary is a complement of the individuality corollary. Two people can interpret an event similarly since they may approach it in a similar way.
- 11. Sociality Corollary:** *To the extent that one person construes the construction processes of another s/he may play a role in a social process involving the other person.* An emphasis on interpersonal interaction is the main constituent of this corollary. One should understand the other's constructs to communicate well. This corollary is closely correlated with teacher thinking and teacher professional development in that it is important to reflect the student perspective as well as teachers' in the analysis of disruptive behaviour in class.

Kelly's constructivist theory was first used in the field of education by Pope and Keen (1981). More recently, Diamond contributed to the field using the repertory grid techniques in secondary teacher training (Zuber-Skerrirt, 1988). Sendan (1995) was the first person using repertory grid in the field of English Language Teaching. As he suggests, PCP is found particularly relevant to the research on teacher beliefs in that one changes his/her ideas when s/he sees a gap between his/her ideas and the real world and, thus, needs to revise the belief system.

As Kelly noted in his theory with the experience and sociality corollaries, social interaction between people helps them to test their hypotheses and thus revise or change their personal belief system about life. The keyword of experience is re-named as *field experience* in the theory of Lewin - field theory and experiential

phenomenology (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992), which emphasizes the importance of the analysis of real events in a real context.

Within the framework of Kelly's PCP, the present study tries to track down the beliefs of the participants through the transition and induction phase longitudinally (as a student teacher and a novice teacher, respectively), and the changes in the belief system of the participants in regard to disruptive behaviour in classrooms. Thus, insights will be gained while interpreting the verbal data.

2.2 Lewin's Theory

Kurt Lewin developed his theory to investigate social change in its context. He believed that the change in one part of an event causes the other parts to change, too. This theory is a holistic approach to teaching and learning phenomenon.

2.2.1 Field Theory

As Zuber-Skerritt (1992) states "*field* (italic added) is Lewin's fundamental construct" (p.90). The meaning of field is accepted as the *life space* of a human being, which embraces the person and the psychological environment around. When this premise is applied to the present study, the teacher him/her self, the students, the staff members, and the school (Edge in Yumru, 2000) are the components of the life space. The teacher in question has a role of construing beliefs and testing hypotheses in line with the life space given.

2.2.2 Experiential Phenomenology

The field experience is investigated through phenomenology (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). Unlike the positivist research paradigm, Lewin and his group used a small number of people, but examined them as fully as possible. As the field theory suggests, Lewin tries to find out "how people experience and conceive the world around them" (p. 134).

Experiential phenomenology is specifically relevant to the present study in that the interaction of the participants with the students either in practice schools or later in their new schools as novice teachers should be analyzed to understand their beliefs on disruptive behaviour, which constitutes the main focus in this study.

2.3 Experiential Learning

Kolb has revisited the issue of immediate experience with the real world in the name of *experiential learning* in 1984 (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). According to this theory, the gap between theory and practice is closed in a work context by involving human beings in a professional development process. As Figure 2.3 presents, the combination of work, education and personal development is enhanced by the dynamic interaction with the experience.

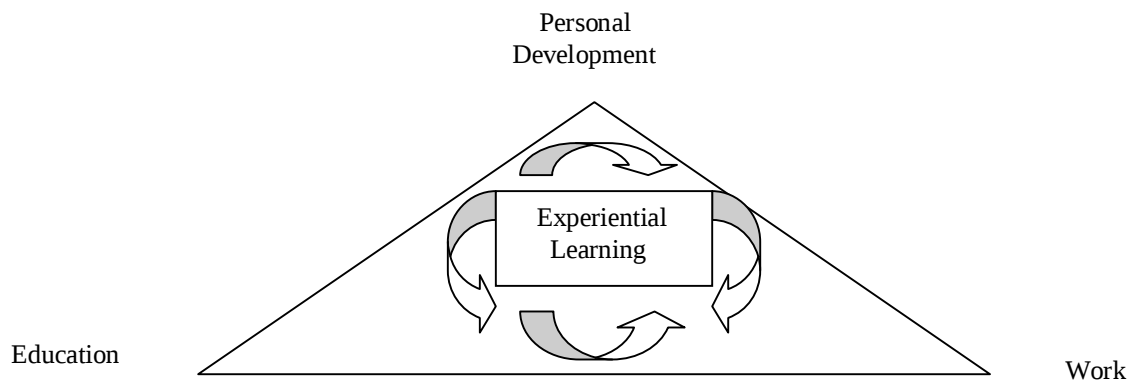


Figure 2.3. Experiential Learning as the Process that Links Education, Work and Personal Development (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, p.98)

To Kolb, learning is not an outcome but a process, and this process is grounded in one's experience. This continuous and holistic process is how a person adapts to the world. Thus, he defines learning as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb cited in Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, p.104).

Like Lewin, Kolb’s principles are exclusively applicable to the present study since one purpose is to understand and interpret the participants' experiential knowledge (and as a result their beliefs) in regards to disruptive behaviour and the growth and/or revision of this knowledge in line with the experience.

2.4 Research on Teacher Beliefs

Professional learning is not an easy task to achieve in a short period of time. As in the other cases of skill acquisition, time is necessary to master and demands patience as well as analytical reflection process. Not only the theoretical knowledge

but also the practice will equip the person with the desired qualifications of the profession. Similarly, teaching as a professional skill requires scrutinized field knowledge, which is provided through regular readings, constant observations, reflective practice and structured discussions with colleagues, mentors, supervisors or administrators (Wallace, 1991).

The learning process of teaching as a profession or professional learning has always attracted the attention of teachers as researchers, educators, and/or teacher trainers. Teacher research has evolved along with changes in learning and teaching theories. Prior to the mid 1960s, studies on teaching focused on teachers' behaviours and teaching skills (Cole and Knowles, 2000). The research paradigm was behaviouristic and assumed that teacher beliefs could be elicited through the teaching actions in classes. After 1960s, the shift in research agenda from behaviourism to cognitivism caused classroom inquiry to be done through a classroom teacher's perspective. This insider approach to teacher research has also embraced the reflective thinking and decision-making strategies and processes of an *expert*. Differences between theory and practice have also been explored, which have led to studies on teacher beliefs (Lasley, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Weinstein, 1989). In the 1980s, the complex and personal nature of teaching came to the fore. Teacher beliefs and professional thoughts are now considered as displaying more diversity than ever.

More recently, the relevant literature revealed not only the description of the beliefs, but also the sources (Cabaroğlu, 1999), and changes (Sendan, 1995) of teacher beliefs related to the specific fields, such as science, music, and language arts. One of the major sources of the beliefs is thought to be the hours spent in classroom by each person, which in the literature is named as *apprenticeship of observation* by Lortie (Roberts, 1998). The term means that the student teachers already have some pre-conceptions about what is happening in a classroom. Furthermore, previous teaching experience is another source for prior beliefs of student teachers (Johnston, 1992). When the change in beliefs has been studied, the beliefs have not been found easy to alter because the student teachers do not believe there is a better alternative (Johnson, 1994).

Looking at the studies about teacher's professional learning reveals diverse research paradigms and methodologies, as Baumann, Shockley and Alley (1996) state. The systematic approach towards teacher research has been only possible for two decades (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, cited in Baumann et. al., 1996), even though

McFarland and Stansell (cited in Baumann et. al., 1996) trace it back to the seventeenth and eighteenth century philosophers, such as Comenius and Rousseau concerning child development and learning. In the nineteenth century, European scholars, such as Pestolozzi and Herbart, developed a naturalistic observational methodology to study teaching and learning. At the end of the nineteenth century, Olson (cited in Baumann et. al, 1996) mentions Parker's and Dewey's experimental inquiry-based teaching. In fact, Dewey's term, professional *reflection* has been a milestone for further teacher research. However, with the rise of psychological testing in the 1920s and 1930s, the naturalistic teacher inquiry has been declining until 1950s when the practice of action- research, teacher's self-examination to improve his/her teaching, was nourished. Once the action research period was closed in the late 1950s, due to the criticism that it was a non-scientific approach to research, years between 1950s and 1980s produced only a few research activities. In the early 1980s, teacher studies were fostered by the research of reflective and action-oriented teachers (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992) as well as professional conferences (National Teacher Research Panel of England, Annual Teacher Research Conference sponsored by Fairfax County Public Schools of USA, Annual National Conference of Australian Association for the Teaching of English-AATE, Teachers Research Teachers Develop- TDTR series in Turkey) focusing on national or international investigations. Since then, teacher research has gained status in terms of methodology and as a discrete field. The summary of this shift is presented in the following table.

Table 2.1 *Paradigm Shifts in Teacher Research*

Technical	Critical
Improving practice	Understanding practice
External change	Internal (self) change
Focus on “practices”	Focus on beliefs
Assumptions taken for granted	Assumptions critically challenged
Theories are implicit	Theories made explicit
Realm is the classroom	No “sacred cows”
Uncritically accepts status-quo	Critically examines issues of power

(Kraft, 2002, p.178)

The studies focused on pre-service, in-service, or experienced teachers discretely or followed a combination of two or three of the groups. The researchers used not only longitudinal data collection procedures, but also cross-sectional data to embody more than one group of teachers. The analysis of collected data varied from quantitative approaches (such as descriptive scores of frequency and percentage and chi-square, or difference analysis, such as ANOVA) to qualitative approaches like narrative records as in the forms of journals or diaries and case studies focusing on a few participants, but using an in-depth interpretation line. In short, “teacher development is studied in a variety of contexts and locations- (...) in secondary language as well as foreign language- and at different levels, using teacher's written or oral accounts of their thinking” (Freeman & Richards, 1996, pp. 2-3).

2.4.1 Pre-service Teacher Beliefs

The beliefs of the pre-service teacher (*student-teacher* or *practicum student* are used interchangeably in the literature) has been one of the main foci of teacher research. The term *beliefs* has also been used interchangeably with *personal theories*, *personal constructs*, *implicit theories*, *perspectives*, *assumptions* and *images* (Cabaroğlu, 1999; Robert, 1998). *Beliefs* in this study refer to the abstract conceptions about the actions the teachers take, for example, in problem solving, or their understanding of the events in their classes, e.g., student behaviours.

Pre-service teachers hold different beliefs about teaching learning-students, teachers and themselves. These beliefs are important because they “are the best

predictors of individual behaviour, (...) perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect classroom performance” (Roberts, 1998, p. 45). The importance of these beliefs has, also, been depicted in the previous chapter (see 1.2). It would suffice to say that a pre-service teacher accumulates these beliefs throughout his/her school life from kindergarten to the end of faculty education, combines them with other beliefs, changes them if necessary, reshapes, re-labels, and/or re-combines them with different beliefs, and consolidates these beliefs or deletes them if unnecessary (Cabaroğlu, 1999). Personal feelings and opinions form the background of all forthcoming professional beliefs.

Moreover, as Pajares (1993) agrees teachers’ beliefs are not realistic since they only have one perspective. The beliefs teachers hold are not necessarily irrelevant and wrong, yet they may be misleading if they strictly stick to the conceptions they acquired as students. The change in the perspective creates a difference in the focus of the observation. This change creates a disequilibrium in self, which forces to find the equilibrium back. At this point, the teacher tries to close the gap between what has been observed beforehand and the actual presence of the events. Luckily, the teacher is equipped with the theory of the program s/he is in, which is accumulated during the teacher education courses of study. The change in the perspective and the gap between theory and practice are the motives for the teacher to act and find solutions to his/her problems. As a result, the teacher finds her/himself in an ongoing reflective cycle where s/he, over and over again, assesses and/or evaluates his/her decisions. This evaluation is the beginning of professional development.

Pre-service teacher beliefs have been studied in three dimensions: sources (Cabaroğlu, 1999; Johnston, 1992; Lortie cited in Roberts, 1998; Sugrue, 1997), the content structure (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992; Görgün, 1993; Sendan, 1995; Wilson, 1990), and the change in the beliefs (Cabaroğlu, 1999; Görgün, 1993; Sendan, 1995; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Tillema, 1998). Moreover, the decision making strategies and professional reflection on them have been analyzed (Şire, 2004).

The studies focusing on these areas may be summarized in terms of their findings. At first, the practicum process was thought to be not effective for the student-teachers. For example, Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) reported that their results “overwhelmingly indicate that student teaching did not significantly alter the

substance of the [student teachers'] teaching perspectives" (p. 33). Similarly, Pajares (1993) mentioned the rare possibility of change over a practicum session. Because the behaviourist research paradigm was popular then, the researchers evaluated the student-teachers by their verbal responses-the comparison of the concepts before and after the practicum, ignoring the content of those responses. Later, a number of researchers demonstrated that student-teachers, indeed, change their beliefs in terms of their content, order, or domain (Cabaroğlu, 1999; Görgün, 1999; Sendan, 1995). The change in the beliefs is reported to be bound to the experience student-teachers are exposed to during their practice teaching. Paker (2000), for example, explored the student-teacher's perceptions about the problems they faced during the practicum (teaching practice: TP). According to his data, the problems they faced were categorized as "a) issues related to teaching that student teachers feel they are in dilemma, b) issues related to TP organization, and c) issues related to the roles of a mentor and a supervisor in TP" (p. 113). On the other hand, Avşar (1999) investigated the beliefs of 4th year pre-service teachers about the qualities of themselves and their ideal language teacher. The bigger the gap between these qualities, the more the pre-service teacher felt a need to develop professionally. Moreover, the conclusion was pre-service teachers have limited knowledge about the context in which they work. Another conclusion was that the feedback they get from their students, mentors and supervisors shape their conceptual development in the profession (İlin, 2003). Furthermore, Ünal (1993) discovered that there is no link between the success of student-teachers in methodology courses as students and in practice schools as teachers. In addition to this, Görgün (1999) concluded that the more years the student-teachers spend in a pre-service program, the more they start talking about teaching characteristics.

2.4.2 In-service Teacher Beliefs

A well-known fact is that most entree teachers into the profession experience many complexities in their first-year. Therefore, they start to search for ways to establish routines for themselves. Because they have to teach in tandem with the other work responsibilities, the novice teachers are usually confused about their professional development. As seen in Figure 2.4, the classroom practice depends on knowledge about many components. However, as the relationship between the

components is not been reflected in this figure, Calderhead proposes an alternative model (Figure 2.5). The arrows between the components in Figure 2.5 are bidirectional, which shows that the interaction is not one way.

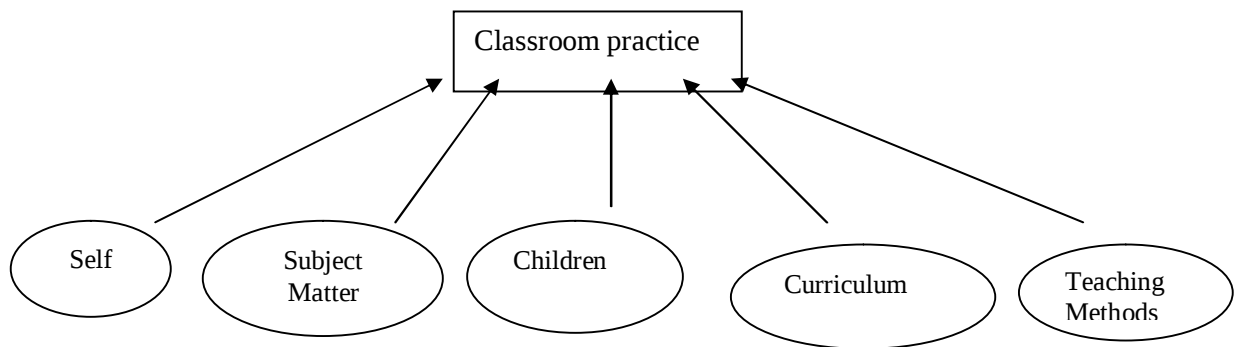


Figure 2.4. A Model of Knowledge Use in Teaching (Calderhead, 1988, p. 59)

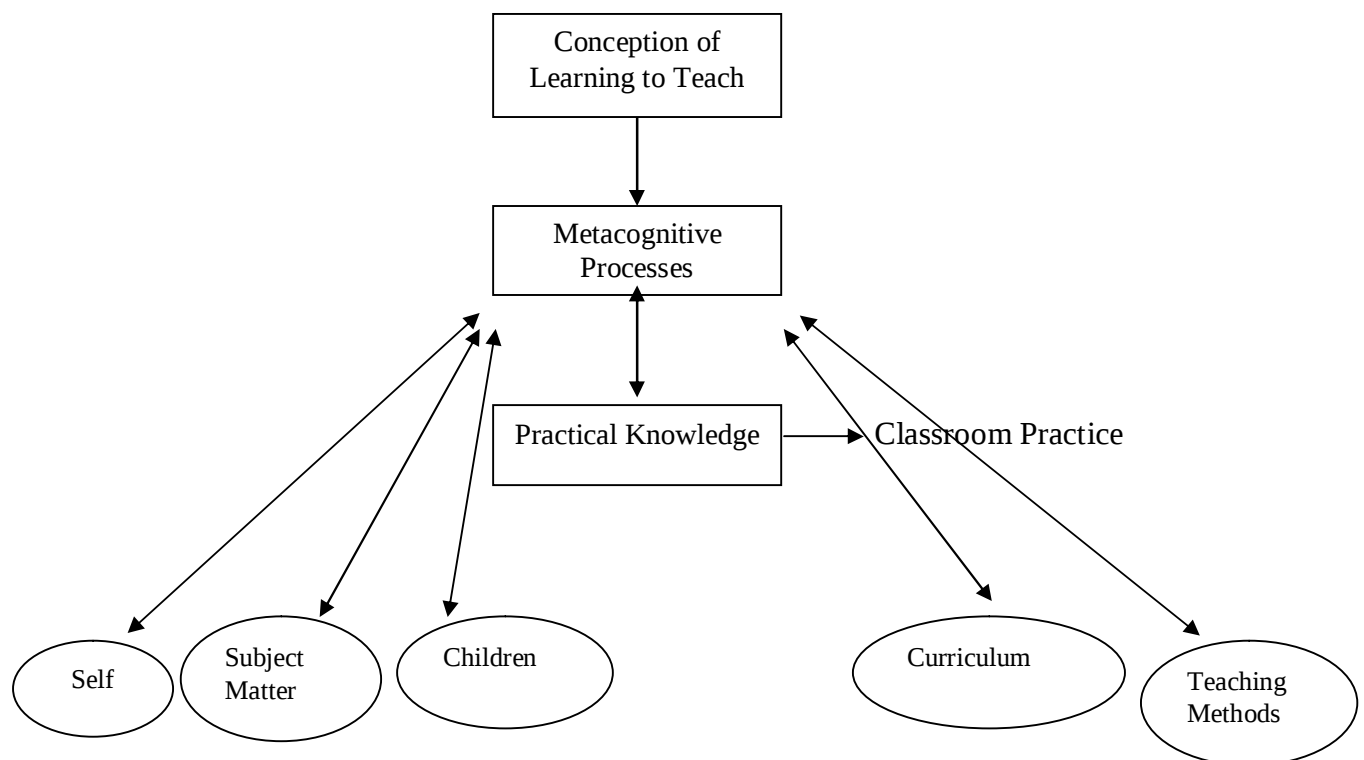


Figure 2.5. An Alternative Model of Knowledge Use in Teaching (Calderhead, 1988, p. 59)

When faced with such a complex responsibility, novice teachers usually complain that pre-service teacher programs do not provide them with problem-solving tactics. However, as Gebhard, Gaitan and Oprandy (1990) summarize, such provision in teaching is not possible for three possible reasons. One is that “some teachers do not want to be told what to do, especially those with some experience...” (p. 16). The second reason is the lack of sufficient academic proof concerning a suitable teaching technique for a particular language component, although there have been proven effective ways. The studies in the field of teaching methodology usually suggest some alternative ways, instead of showing the best way for teachers. The third, and most important, reason is that a scripted solution limits the decision-making and intervention skills of teachers.

From novice teachers’ points of view, however, the picture is quite bleak. As soon as they start working at schools, what they notice that they have to do is, (a) teach for many hours a week, (b) write overloaded lesson plans and prepare teaching materials (c) score hundreds of papers, (d) fill in forms, (e) do extra work, such as running student clubs and attending parental and administrative meetings. According to Busher, Clarke and Taggart (1988), teachers appear to believe that their work is limited by the environment, as well as the norms and expectations of the administration. The busy syllabus, parental expectations and the beliefs about how teachers should teach or how students should learn, also, make the situation more complex. On top of these concerns, problematic student behaviours double the stress of the work for the beginning teacher. According to Rudduck (1988), this stressful situation might be the most important motive for professional development. The stress and demands force the teacher to find a way out and, thus, contribute to his/her becoming a reflective teacher.

Various researchers have conducted studies on English Language teacher’s professional learning; belief change and/or reflective learning. While Paker (1996) focused on the effects of supervision of English language teachers and EFL learners onto the English language teachers, Şire (2004) engaged in discovering the decision-making processes of teachers. Paker concluded that clinical supervision helped teachers to be more analytical and self-confident in terms of their preparation, implementation, and evaluation of their own lessons. Şire, similarly, found out that both novice and experienced teachers adjust their plans according to students’ immediate needs and classroom conditions. Sürmeli (2004), in her study, developed a

NLP-Teacher Development program for six non-native experienced Turkish EFL teachers so that they could cope with their personal and professional problems. When comparing the participants' beliefs before and after the program implementation, a significant change was noted. Tuyan (2003), also, conducted an action research study to develop a framework for a teacher development program to improve the emotional proficiency that would empower themselves for the problems they face. Yaman's (2004) action research study was to solve the participant teacher's perceived problems by adopting a problem-centered approach. Although the change did not immediately come, they slowly were observable. Yet, the change in beliefs was not consistent with the changes in behaviours. Yılmaz (2004), following the similar research trend, developed an induction program for novice EFL teachers. The findings were two-fold: (a) the novice teachers felt supported and (b) a change did occur in the structure and content of their beliefs about effective teaching and the beliefs about themselves as teachers. Finally, Yumru (2000), through an action research study, helped the teachers become aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, she confirmed that teachers learn teaching best through their first-hand experience, and problem-solving and discussion activities.

2.5 Classroom Management, Discipline and Disruptive Behaviour

Classroom management, discipline and disruptive behaviours are key terms in the field. They are considered differently by respected experts. While some put emphasis on the student's behaviours, the others focused on teacher actions to develop some models.

2.5.1 Classroom Management

Classroom management is defined as "the orchestration of classroom life: planning curriculum, organizing procedures and resources, arranging the environment to maximize efficiency, monitoring student progress, anticipating potential problems." (Lemlech, 1999, p. 4). "Classroom management constitutes the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur." (Duke, as cited in Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986, p. 300). Similarly, Brophy and Evertson (1976; cited in Atıcı, 1999) define classroom management as "planning and conducting activities in an orderly fashion:

keeping students actively engaged in lessons and seatwork activities; and minimising disruptions and discipline problems” (p.51). Brophy (1988) adds that classroom management includes teacher engagement with student groups and their personal harmony and settlement problems, considering students’ individual differences. To Wong (n.d.), “classroom management refers to all of the things that a teacher does to organize students, space, time, and materials so that learning can take place”. Similarly, Emmer and Stough (2001) describe it as “the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur” (Emmer & Stough, 2001). It is also defined by DeLong (2002) as “...establishing and maintaining an environment in which students can learn, and that this task consists of monitoring, directing and responding to a wide range of different forms of information and activity including student learning, behaviour and interactions”.

For the definitions above, it may be concluded that the term *classroom management* is characterized with some key words. *Control, organize, plan, conduct, orchestrate* and *provide* are the verbs used to describe the actions teachers does to establish the desired atmosphere. Similarly, *material, time, instruction* and *student actions and behaviours* are the elements that are defined to be controlled in such definitions.

2.5.2 Discipline

The term ‘discipline’ comes from the word *discipulus* in Latin, the root *disco* of which means learning. The term refers to both prevention and remediation, and thus it is mostly connoted with severe punishment and similar attitudes. However, the term is not always defined with the use of words such as *punish* and/or *suppress*. Jones (1979) defines it as “most simply stated, (it) is the business of enforcing simple classroom rules that facilitate learning and minimize disruption” (p.26). Discipline is also defined as “what teachers do to help students to behave acceptably in school” (Charles, 1999, p. 295). In other words, discipline is the sum of teacher activities to provide the desired student behaviour at school.

Moreover, the modern understanding of effective discipline is not only to teach rules but also to assure people (administrators, parents, providers) that rules are internalized and assimilated well enough by the students. To ensure this, the scholars

put forward different models, each of which will be dealt below after defining disruptive behaviour.

2.5.3 Disruptive Behaviour / Misbehaviour

Misbehaviour, as Doyle (1986) contends, “is any action by one or more students that threatens to disrupt the activity flow or pull the class toward a program of action that threatens the safety of the group or violates norm of appropriate classroom behaviour held by the teacher, the students, or the school's staff” (p. 396).

To Charles (1999) misbehaviour is defined as behaviour “inappropriate for the setting and situation in which it occurs” (p. 2). Accordingly, disruptive behaviour is any behaviour which “interferes with university or university-sponsored activities, including but not limited to classroom related activities, study, teach, research, intellectual or creative endeavors, administration, service or the provision of communication, computing or emergency services.” (Oregon State University, Student’s Dean Message).

Charles (1999) describes five types of misbehaviour:

- a. Aggression: physical and verbal attacks on the teacher or other students.
- b. Immorality: acts such as cheating, lying, and stealing.
- c. Defiance of authority: refusal, sometimes hostile, to do as the teacher requests.
- d. Class disruptions: talking loudly, calling out, walking about the room, clowning, tossing objects.
- e. Goofing off: fooling around, out of seat, not doing the assigned tasks, dawdling, daydreaming. (pp. 2-3)

Since this study specifically focuses on disruptive behaviour, a definition of this term is needed. In this study, disruptive behaviour is defined, as student behaviour interrupting a teacher's instruction delivery. “A disruption can be as innocuous as a student talking to her neighbor or as severe as a student being disrespectful to the teacher” (Marzano, 2003, p.8). According to Charles’ categorization, disruptive behaviour is a separate item (*d*). Nevertheless, what should be noted is that student misbehaviours in other categories, also, cause disruptions in the flow of instruction in a class. As a result, this study may not be limited only to the fourth item of his categorization.

2.5.4 Models for Maintaining Discipline in Class

Before examining them in detail, the following table presents models for maintaining discipline in class. Table 2.4 introduces the models in terms of the dates of their appearance with their founders.

Table 2.2 *Overall Panorama of Classroom Management Models*

Name	Year	Model
Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg	1951, 1959	Groups Dynamic Model
Jacob Kounin	1971	Instructional Management Model
Rudolf Dreikurs	1972	Social Discipline Model
B.F. Skinner	1953 - 1973	Behaviour Modification Model
Haim Ginott	1971	Behaviour Modification Model
Lee and Marlene Canter	1976, 1992, 1993	Assertive Discipline Model
Fredric Jones	1979, 1987	Positive Discipline Model
Linda Albert	1989, 1996	Cooperative Discipline Model
Thomas Gordon	1974, 1989	Supportive Discipline Model
William Glasser	1969, 1985, 1992	Reality Discipline Model
Richard Curwin and Allen Mendler	1988	Discipline with dignity Model
Eric Berne and HarrisThomas A. Harris	1969	Communication Model
Louis Rath and Sidney B. Simon.	1966	Valuing Model
Siegfried Engelman	1966	Behaviour/Punishment Model
James Dobson	1970	Behaviour/Punishment Model
Barbara Coloroso	1994	Inner Discipline
Alfie Kohn	1996	Beyond Discipline

1. Group Dynamics Model: Redl, a psychotherapist, and Wattenberg, an educational psychologist, founded this model which draws attention to the nature of group dynamics - group and individual behaviour. They argue that due to its nature misbehaviour is, therefore, a contagious behaviour (spreading quickly to the other students), the relationship between the members of a group should be analyzed to prevent this occurrence. This model briefly describes the student and teacher roles in the following way (Charles, 1999, pp. 19-23):

Student roles: leader, clown, fall guy "who takes the blame and punishment in order to gain favor with the group" (p.20), instigators "who cause the problems but make it appear they are not involved" (p. 20).

Teacher roles: representative of society, judge, source of knowledge, helper in learning, referee, detective, model, caretaker, ego supporter (self-confidence builder), group leader, surrogate parent (provider for protection, advice and correction), target for hostility, friend and confidant, and object of affection ["ideal person worthy of esteem, affection and hero worship" (p. 23)].

The model, also, motivates teachers to think diagnostically, which includes gathering facts, exploring hidden facts, and taking action, but remaining flexible when analyzing the occurrence of misbehaviour. Thus, the following questions are given as guidance:

- What is the motivation behind the misbehaviour?
- How is the class reacting?
- Is the misbehaviour related to interaction with me?
- How will the students react when corrected?
- How will the correction affect future behaviour? (Charles, 1999, p. 25)

Furthermore, the teacher uses some influencing techniques to attempt to solve misbehaviour actively, such as sending signals, using physical proximity, humor, ignoring, establishing the routines, making frank appraisal, and punishment as a last action.

Even though a starting point for the following models, this model has been criticized for some aspects. For example, teacher or students have limited benefits from the roles defined as they are unable to know what to do after learning the roles. Also, the teacher does not have much time to devote to solving problems on the basis of the five advised questions suggested by the model.

2. Instructional Management Model: Jacob Kounin focuses on the importance of instructional management to control behaviour in class. He has been the first scholar referring to the effects of teacher actions in class on the student behaviours (Charles, 1999). On the basis of his observation of classroom teachers, he developed some key

points of a high-quality class. His central focus is on how teachers organize and present the lessons. He uses the term *with-it-ness* for the teacher who is aware of what is going on in his/her class while s/he is delivering the instruction. This quality of teacher is, also, referred in positive discipline model as *eyes in the back of head*, which makes the teacher as an alert and careful observer in class (Wolfgang, 2001). He, furthermore, uses the term *overlapping* to refer to the teacher doing two tasks at the same time, such as dealing with a group of disruptive students while at the same time establishing peaceful work for the rest of the students. This overlapping ability of the teacher would help pass from one activity to the other one (*smoothness*). Meanwhile, the pace of the lesson is important as the gaps or disruptions (or vice versa, the fast-pacing) caused by teacher's instruction delivery will lead to more disruptions caused by students in a chain reaction (*momentum*). Raising attention or giving students a reason to speak is another successful quality of effective classroom managers. This enlivens the monotonous class atmosphere, and thus, the likely feeling of boredom felt by the students will be taken care of the teacher (*group alerting*).

Of the terms suggested by Kounin, with-it-ness, overlapping and group alerting depend on teacher behaviours while smoothness and momentum are related to the presentation of instruction or the transitions between the phases of the lesson.

3. The Social Discipline Model: Also known as democratic teaching, this model is presented as Dreikurs's Model in the literature (Charles, 1999). According to Dreikurs, the underlying cause of disruptive behaviours is the need to belong to a society, which is one of the genuine goals of human beings. Nevertheless, achieving this goal is not easy for students. Thus, they may indulge in some mistaken behaviour, such as seeking attention, revenge, inadequacy, and power and might divert the students so as to disrupt learning/teaching in class. The solution lies within the teacher's creating a democratic teaching environment where the rules/procedures are clearly recognized by everyone. Through this democratic process, a student is able to attain the feeling of belonging, and thus, commit no disruptions. Democratic teachers fall in between two marginal types, namely autocratic and permissive, in their efforts to promote leadership, friendliness, guidance, helpfulness, and shared responsibility among students in class (Dreikurs, Grunwald & Pepper cited in Charles, 1999).

Specific teacher strategies towards disruptive behaviours follow a sequence of

actions, which do not include negativism or punishments (logical consequences instead of such strategies as isolation) (Charles, 1999).

a. Identify the mistaken goal:

- ▼ Annoyed: Students seek attention, and thus they stop the misbehaviour and then repeat it.
- ▼ Threatened: Students who refuse to stop or increase the misbehaviour are seeking power.
- ▼ Hurl: Students seek revenge and become violent or hostile in class.
- ▼ Powerless: Students display inadequacy; moreover, they refuse to cooperate, participate, or interact.

b. Confront the mistaken goal: Teachers without being bossy verbalize the goal, such as “Could it be that you want me to pay attention to you?”.

c. Avoid power struggles with students: Teachers should not reward the disruptive students with the goal of seeking power by recognizing their behaviours. For instance, teachers may stop talking to cease the disruptive behaviour, which will be a prize for the misbehaving student.

d. Take positive steps against revenge-seeking behaviour: Persistently and patiently, teachers should create situations in which power-seeking students can use their power for the benefit of others, as well.

e. Encourage students who display inadequacy: Because they feel that belonging to a society is difficult, some students would like to be left alone. The teacher must be patient and encourage these students to participate in classroom activities. Praise and encouragement function in different ways as the following examples illustrate:

Praise: “You are such a good girl for finishing your assignment.”

Encouragement: “I can tell you that you have been working hard.”

The model has been criticized on the grounds that it is very hard to determine the mistaken goals of students (Wofgang, 2001). What if the teacher can not identify the goal correctly? What if the teacher's strategy is not appropriate to solve this wrongly identified goal? Another problem with this model is that it is difficult for the teacher to decide on logical consequences for disruptive behaviours since the term ‘logical’ is highly relative.

4. The Behaviour Modification Model: Skinner and Ginott are considered to be the pioneers of this model, which is also known as a behaviour shaping model. The focus is on the behaviour rather than the student him/herself. They define a disciplined child as behaving socially and academically in an appropriate way. In this model, the stimuli-response-reinforcement chain of conditioning of an animal from Skinner's experiments was generalized to human learning. The teacher is the basic source for appropriate behaviours. S/He determines what is right; as soon as s/he observes a desired behaviour in class, s/he reinforces it. The student will tend to repeat or improve the behaviour (Charles, 1999). Skinner (cited in Charles, 1999) provides several teacher behaviour continuums.

- a. Catch them being good: Teacher rewards the students behaving in a desired way.
- b. Rules-Ignore-Praise (RIP): Rules are generated, first. Then, the teacher observes the students and when s/he notices disruptive students, s/he ignores them. On the other hand, s/he praises the desired behaviours.
- c. Rules-Reward-Punishment (RRP): Rules are established by letting the students know the rewards and punishments when they behave in a particular way.
- d. Token economies: The student may be rewarded with some tallies, stars or marks. Later, if the same student is punished, the rewards may help him/her exchanging the prizes with the penalty.
- e. Behaviour contracts: Contracts are used to specify the work to be done, the behaviour to be performed, or the deadlines to be reached. It may be signed between the teacher and the student, the teacher-student and the principal, teacher-student and the family member, the teacher-student-principal and the family member.

The physical intervention is only possible for destructive student behaviours (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Isolation, however, is effective for misbehaving ones. For example, 'timeout' is one of the frequently used strategies, which is criticized by Kohn (1996). Sending a disruptive student out usually does not alter the attitudes and emotional commitments underlying the behaviour.

5. The Assertiveness Model: Canter and Canter have developed the model, which is the first model to mention the rights of students and teachers in the classroom (Charles, 1999), the rights of students to learn in a calm and productive classroom atmosphere and the right of teachers teaching without disruptions and using a backing from administrators to solve the behaviour problems in class. However, the productive class atmosphere can only be maintained through the bidirectional trust, respect and cooperation. Thus, the teacher's main purpose in class is to provide the productive atmosphere for learners to follow the instructional activities effectively enough.

The assertiveness model proposes three types of teacher reactions towards actions:

- Nonassertive: accepting what is provided.
- Hostile: rejecting the provision in a vindictive and rude way.
- Assertive: rejecting the proposal but in a calm and serious way.

The role expected from the teacher in this model is to be sufficiently sensitive to respond in an assertive way to the student behaviours in class. The teacher must consistently remind the disruptive student of the expected behaviour since the class rules are defined covertly from the very beginning. The model supports the giving of rewards and punishments, as well as having conferences with the students or parents. It differs from the behaviourist model in that it emphasizes the teacher's right to enforce the class rules and punish the disruptive student (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986).

6. Positive Discipline: Jones's positive discipline model was the first behaviour management model that emphasizes the use of nonverbal strategies, such as eye contact, using proximity and posture (Charles, 1999), while the other models underlined the importance of verbal communication. Since the disruptive students cause teacher to waste half of the class time by handling these unwanted behaviours, Jones, also, highlights the classroom arrangement as well as defining the class routines and rules. Moreover, he believes the student should receive training to be responsible for and able to control his/her actions in class. A teacher has to have *eyes in the back of his head* as well. S/He should be able to limit the student behaviours in terms of using his/her body language, the classroom arrangement and/or incentive system, which means "something outside of the individual that prompts the

individual to act” (Charles, 1999. p. 112). For example, the term *grandma's rule* that means “first eat your meal, then you can have your dessert” (p. 113) may be applied into class as the student doing what s/he is supposed to do, and then s/he can earn his/her will. If not, the teacher may set the following rules: “If you finish your task on time, you can have five minute free time”; “the one who finishes the task first will get a five points bonus”. A back-up system is another great help for a teacher. This system has three levels: small, medium and large. Small back-ups are used when the teacher privately or semi-privatey treats the problem (approaching the problem student, or leaning towards him/her). Medium back-up responses are using the student names and identifying them. Letting the parents know the problem behaviour is also another way. Warnings, reprimands, loss of privileges and parent conferences are some examples for medium back-ups. A large back-up system requires two professionals, usually the classroom teacher and an administrator. The repetitive outrageous disruptive students are usually exposed to this kind of backups which may extend the result to school suspensions as well as being sent to a special school.

7. Cooperative Discipline Model: Linda Albert, the founder of the cooperative discipline model, defines classroom discipline as an attempt to help student learn to choose responsible behaviour (Charles, 1999). She focuses on helping the teacher to meet student needs so that they start to be cooperative in class. Student behaviours are results of a choice; thus, the role of the teacher, here, is to influence him/her through encouragement, intervention and collaboration to choose the desired way. The role of the parents and administration is emphasized in that they may also help to establish the class behaviour code. She also elaborates on the reasons of misbehaviours, such as students’ needs to belong to a group and to feel valued and secure. When they are unable to satisfy the needs, they direct their behaviour towards some mistaken goals such as *attention-seeking*, *power-seeking*, *revenge-seeking*, and *avoidance-of-failure*.

To counteract these mistaken goals, Albert (cited in Charles, 1999) provides some strategies which she names the C's. The first one of them is helping students feel *Capable* of doing things. She suggests that the teacher should behave as mistakes are OK, and s/he should try to build confidence in students. Moreover, teachers should focus on making learning tangible. In other words, rather than giving a ‘B’ for a task, they should be able to give relevant feedback about what is good and

what is missing in the task so that the student realizes what 'B' means for this particular task. The second strategy she advises is helping the students *Connect*, which means building relationships with the teacher and peers. The last strategy is helping student to *Contribute*, which requires a willingness to act in a way that is beneficial to the class/school/community they are in.

Albert proposes some advice that the teachers may apply during confrontations. Teachers should focus on the behaviour not the student. They should control their negative emotions because confrontation is a stressful process. In addition to this advice, while usually immediate responses are necessary to disruptive behaviour, an extended response or discussion should occur after class to save the face of the disruptive student.

8. The Supportive Model: The supportive model (Charles, 1999) or emotionally supportive model (Wolfgang, 2001) was first put forward by Thomas Gordon (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Indeed, the origin of this model goes back to Rogers (humanistic psychology) and Maslow (hierarchy of human needs). The model is built on the belief that the student will find the best way of behaving as long as s/he is supported and receives enough sympathy and nonjudgmental treatment. Since each student is unique in personality, problems will occur when the teacher forces his/her will in the classroom. Moreover, student is seen as having a 'self-concept' for problem solving – which, however, maybe either competent or incompetent (Wolfgang, 2001).

According to Gordon (cited in Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986), the teacher's basic aim is to motivate and encourage the students in their difficult times which cause problems for teachers in disciplining and thus in managing class. He describes some skills that teachers can use while working with students (Charles, 1999, p. 151).

Confrontive skills, such as modifying the environment, recognizing and responding to primary feelings, sending I-messages that do not set off the coping mechanisms students use in response to power, shifting gears, and practicing the no-lose method of conflict resolution, are used when the teacher owns the problem (unacceptable behaviour).

Helping skills, such as passive listening, acknowledgement, door openers, active listening, and avoiding communication roadblocks,

are used when the student owns the problem (acceptable behaviour).

Preventive skills, such as rule setting, preventive I-messages, and participative problem solving and decision making, are used when neither the teacher nor the student has a problem with the behaviour (acceptable behaviour).

In this model, the teacher acts as a facilitator or an assistant to the student. Although there has been some criticism about being a 'powerless' model for maintaining discipline, the role of teacher as an active listener or as a door opener may encourage the student to talk about his/her deeper emotions.

9. The Reality Model: William Glasser, a psychiatrist and an educational consultant, put forward, for the first time in research literature, the belief that each person is responsible for his/her behaviour (Charles, 1999). Named the *noncoercive discipline* or control theory, the model has some underlying principles:

- Student is responsible for own actions in class.
- Class rules negotiated with students are essential.
- No student excuse should be accepted.
- Student should be given time to make judgment about the misbehaviour.
- Alternative suggestions are provided by teacher.
- Reasonable consequences should follow the disruptive behaviour charging the student with the responsibility of the action.
- Persistency is a must for value judgments and consequences.
- Isolation of the problem student from class or getting help from outside to solve the problem behaviour is possible.
- Punishing the problem student is not an option.
- Confronting and contracting is a basic principle of the model.

This model suggests that class rules should be established with the students at the beginning of the term. Having jointly-established rules makes clear to the student results of his/her actions in class. In other words, the teacher allows the student to feel

responsible for the results of the events. When disruptive behaviour occurs, the teacher's main aim should be making the student reflect about the problem behaviour, thus, letting him/her provide alternative solutions. The student and teacher confront the problem together; they prepare a contract in line with the solution proposals they have proposed. That the problem student should confirm that s/he will comply with the solution agreed upon is important. If a student chooses not to, then, it is normal for the teacher to use the backup system (meeting with the family members, other students, and the principal or other colleagues all together) to sign another contract. Punishment is impossible to apply because if the teacher punishes the problem student then this student will not feel the responsibility for his/her own action.

The model has been admired because of its democratic approach towards students (Wolfgang, 2001). Nevertheless, it has been criticized as well. The teacher may feel frustrated if the student breaks the contract many times, which might occur in a real classroom situation. Apart from this, classroom meetings for the problem behaviour discussions may cause the teacher to have inadequate time for instruction. Last but not least, some teachers may not be able to change the classroom environment or discipline rules because of pressure from a strict principal or existing school system. Consequently, the contract system, backup meetings or unique classroom rules may not be possible to be put into action.

10. Discipline with Dignity Model: As the founders of the discipline with dignity model, Curwin and Mendler suggest that the sense of dignity and the respect for life and self are in the center of the process of obtaining desired behaviour from students (Charles, 1999). They claim that solving misbehaviour problems is a long-term process. Helping the student to behave appropriately is part of teaching procedure. Motivating student to learn is another integral part of teaching. Thus, a teacher has to be sure that s/he does not interrupt student motivation while dealing with disruptive behaviours. In this model, the student's feeling responsibility for the actions s/he takes is more important than his/her obedience.

Curwin and Mendler speak of *behaviourally-at-risk* students whose behaviours prevent them from learning and putting them at risk of failing. Such students are described as lazy, turned off, angry, hostile, disruptive, or withdrawn. They make no effort to reverse the situation they experience, and they are probably academically unsuccessful. This model points out that these children need to regain

their hope as well the dignity they have lost. To alter the conditions by encouraging different ways of thinking and allowing for creative artistic expression may help them to gain their hope back.

This model is a preventive model for dealing with disruptions. Teachers have some creative roles such as reversing roles, which will enable the student to sympathize with the teacher's job by using *humor and nonsense* strategy such as saying "Jack! Did you know that Peter Piper picked a pack of pickled peppers?" (Charles, 1999, p. 209) to ease the tension, or audio or videotaping the class so that the class may witness their behavioural modes later. On the other hand, from the very first hour in class, teachers should devote much time to discussing about the goals of the course. The consequences of class behaviour should be agreed on beforehand.

11. The Communication Model: Also known as transactional analysis (Wolfgang, 2001), the communication model by Berne and Harris has its roots in psychologist Sigmund Freud's theory of inner energy layers: *Id*, the selfish basic drives layer, *superego*, a restrictive force over these drives, *ego*, a referee balancing these competitive layers (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Just as in Freud's layer communication, Berne and Harris assume that a person's present behaviours may be related with past experiences. For example, a person may act *adultlike*, rational, in one context; *childish*, demanding, impulsive in another; and *parentlike*, judgmental, evaluative still in another one. Since the classroom is a small model of society, the teacher and students, also, behave in these three ways. Examples from classroom events are given below (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986, pp 56-57):

Student: I hate those kids. They are driving me crazy! (Child)

Teacher: The students are doing things that you do not like. (Adult)

Teacher: Who made this mess? (Parent)

Teacher: What do you need to clean this up? (Adult)

Teacher: Why is it that I always have to clean up your mess? (Child)

While dealing with disruptive behaviours, the teacher has to act in an *adult* mode and send a message to the *adult* inside the student. Teacher, according to this model, uses questions and directive or nondirective statements. The teacher lets student know that his/her feelings are accepted. Later, showing how to analyze the

behaviour with Transactional Analysis (TA), the teacher helps student. Thus, students find their own solutions. Physical intervention or isolation is the antithesis of this model. For this reason, a teacher utilizing this model would not use these strategies.

12. The Valuing Model: The model has been developed by Rath and Simons. The basis of this model is teacher complaint about disruptive behaviours of students who are not able to distinguish between right and/or wrong. According Rath (cited in Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986, p.70), the reasons for misbehaviours are three-fold:

1. a student's mental or physical capabilities,
2. a student's emotional experiences.
3. a student's lack of values.

In this model, the teacher helps the student by the technique of clarifying the values of the student instead of imposing his/her own values on the student. The teacher's strategies are comprised of active listening and organizing group exercises, such as role-playing and discussing dilemmas. Obviously, the disruptive behaviour is not handled as quickly as possible as in the other strategies since the student is acquiring the awareness of social values, including the right behaviours during class time. However, this model does not guarantee that the student stop being problematic in class because this model expects the students to behave appropriately later in their lives.

13. The Behaviourism/Punishment Model: The model has been put forward by Engelman and Dobson. It emphasizes corporal punishment, which includes directive statements, reinforcement, isolation, physical intervention and reinforcement (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Although this approach to managing disruptions is among the highly interventionist ones, supporters of the model claim that punishment is necessary only if the student does not comply with the rules. Overt teacher behaviours thus start with directive statements, such as making the student repeat the class rules. Second, if the child behaves appropriately, the teacher reinforces the desired behaviour. If the disruptive behaviour continues, teacher, then, uses an isolation strategy. In case of the undesired behaviour after a student returns from isolation, the teacher uses physical intervention. As soon as the correct behaviour is

observed, the teacher returns to reinforcement again. An analysis of the following teacher practices reveals that the aim is to stop the student's undesired behaviour:

- Depriving a student of something of value (recess time, taking away pleasure books, or not allowing a child to see a movie or engage in a prized activity).
- Intimidating the child in a loud, clear, authoritarian voice.
- Isolating a child in a bare enclosure, where the student is forced to stay until the teacher decides when he or she may come out.
- Keeping a student after school.
- Giving the student repetitive and/or undesired work (write fifty times. "I will not do_____").
- Inflicting physical pain (paddling, spanking, shaking, or using pressure points). (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986, p.173)

After the punishment, the child should be consoled and comforted, since the teacher should not stay angry or unapproachable.

The model has been criticized due to its physical interventionist strategies. However, the founders claim that they do not advocate physical violence or abuse. Because the physical intervention mentioned above prevents the student from continuing the misbehaviour and helps the teacher solve the disruption in a very short time, Dobson and Engelmann both point to the potential benefit of using it.

14. Inner Discipline: Coloroso's research in the 1990s resulted in the inner discipline model (Charles, 1999). According to her, the teacher is a guide but a student chooses his/her own actions. To provide effective guidance, a teacher does three things: (a) treats the student with respect and dignity, (b) gives him/her a sense of positive power, (c) allows him/her to make decisions and takes responsibility for the results. Their method encourages critical and logical reasoning and thought, which may contribute to a student's sense of responsibility. By using the inner discipline model, the teacher shows empathy.

In this model, teachers fall into three categories: 'Brickwall teachers' are strict and use power to control others, whereas 'jellyfish teachers' provide little structure about class behaviour code or rely on threats to make students do what is required.

‘Backbone teachers’ who fall between these teacher types support student creativity and offer a structure for behaviour and, thus, help the student develop inner discipline. These teachers are consistent with the rules and apply them equally for every student in class when there is a violation.

The punishments to solve the conflicts are common, but Coloroso regards them as effective school-wide discipline. The student may react in three different ways to this misbehaviour handling strategy: (a) begging, wailing, bribing and/or weeping, (b) responding with anger and aggression, (c) sulking, such as “I’m not gonna do what you say. You can’t make me” (Charles, 1999, p. 223). In this model, the teacher should be patient and analytic for student disruptions and reactions to his/her problem solving strategies. S/he should identify the problem and list all possible solving strategies, evaluate the options and choose one and apply it. Inner discipline provides *win-win* solutions, meaning that students are encouraged to solve their own problems, a more useful solution than teacher solving problems and/or lecturing about them.

This model is one of the most recent and views discipline or classroom management from a more holistic approach. Although developing inner discipline is not an easy task for a student, nor for a teacher to teach. However, the inner discipline model points out the importance of protecting the student's self identity and dignity. Therefore, the teacher should have a tangible philosophy of discipline so that student may have an explicit understanding of the desired behaviour code.

15. Beyond Discipline: Alfred Kohn is considered to have an attitude towards classroom management which may be seen as an extreme one in the area of behaviour management. He has criticized the other models in terms of their approach towards discipline as controlling student behaviour and making them behave as demanded (Charles, 1999). What he labels ‘demand’ is what the teacher, administrator, principal usually determine as appropriate behaviour.

He defines his approach as *beyond discipline* (Kohn, 1996). He finds rewards or punishments unnecessary and regards the classroom management models as more or less the same. He criticizes classroom rules as well as student compliance. He argues teachers desire to control student action in classrooms, and this control is what students understand about discipline. What lies underneath is the assumption that students are ready to disrupt the learning program and that learning is best in a

quiet atmosphere.

Thus, Kohn (1996) proposes ten helpful suggestions for teachers who wish to move beyond discipline:

- Work on establishing a trusting, caring relationship with your students. It's hard work to solve a problem unless the two of you already have a relationship on which to build.
- Work diligently toward acquiring yourself and developing in your students skills of listening carefully, remaining calm, generating suggestions, and imagining someone else's point of view.
- When an unpleasant situation occurs, your first effort should be to diagnose what has happened and why. If you have a trusting relationship with students, you can gently ask them to speculate about why they hurt someone else's feelings, or why they keep coming to class late.
- To figure out what is really going on, be willing to look beyond the concrete-situation. Do not immediately identify the student as the sole source of the problem while letting yourself off the hook. Ask yourself, or the student or the class, what is really going on here? Can you do anything to help? Try sitting down in a friendly way to see if a plan can be made that will resolve the problem.
- Maximize student involvement in making decisions and resolving problems. Individual students should be asked. 'What do you think we can do to solve this problem?' Involving students is far more likely to lead to a meaningful, lasting solution than having the teacher decide unilaterally what must be done.
- Work with the students on coming up with authentic solutions to problems. This requires not easy responses but an open-ended exploration of possibilities and reflection on motive.
- When students do something cruel, the first priority is to help them understand that what they did is wrong, and why it is wrong, to deter it from happening again. Then, an examination should be made of ways to make restitution or reparation, such as trying to restore, replace, repair, clean up, or apologize. Making amends is important and should be viewed as an essential part of the process, but more importantly, students must construct meaning for

themselves around concepts of fairness and responsibility, just as they would around concepts in mathematics and literature.

- When new plans or strategies are put into effect, be sure to review them later to see how they worked.
- Remain flexible and use judgment concerning when you need to talk with a student about a problem. Sometimes it is better to delay the talk for a while so the student will feel more inclined to discuss it.
- On the rare occasions when you must use control, do so in a way that minimizes its punitive impact. Sometimes, despite your every effort, you will have to control misbehaviour. A student may be disrupting the class, despite repeated requests not to do so. In that case you may have to isolate the student or send him or her from the room. But even then your tone should be warm and regretful, and you should express confidence that the two of you will eventually solve the problem together.

Clearly his conceptions of discipline differ from these in which students are silent and compliant about a teacher's demands concerning behaviour. Rather, he believes in the effort to maintain a consensus about solving the problems, which he finds occur in every classroom.

2.6 Studies on Disruptive Behaviour

When the qualities of an effective teacher are analyzed, we notice categories that are prerequisites of effective teaching (Stronge, Tucker & Hindman, 2005): the teacher as a person, classroom management and organization, organizing for instruction, implementing instruction, and monitoring student progress and potential. The following figure describes the qualities well.

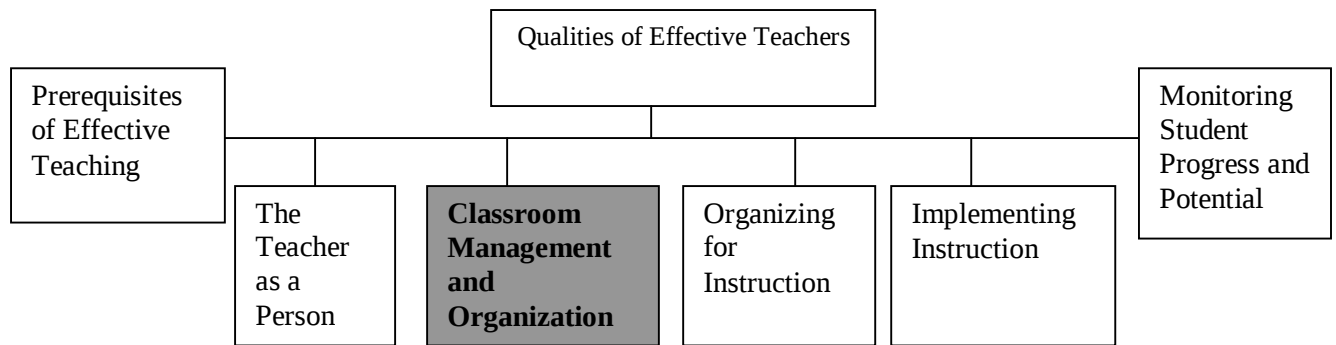


Figure 2.6. Qualities of Effective Teachers (Stronge, Tucker & Hindman, 2005, p. 9)

Classroom management, considered one of the qualities of an effective teacher, has been the focus of many researchers (Akbaba & Altun, 1998; Ataman, 2000; Atıcı, 1999; Brophy, 1988; Charles, 1999; Doyle, 1986; Emmer & Evertson, 1981; Kounin, 1970; Turnuklu, 1999; Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986). Classroom management has been an important issue because only a peaceful classroom atmosphere allows teachers to teach and learners to learn. Rather than disciplining bad behaviours, a good attitude towards classroom management could help create a serene ambiance that would not hinder instruction. However, a well-known fact is that no matter how hard a teacher tries, some students like to disturb a peaceful atmosphere, whether consciously or non-consciously. Conscious ones are known as *misbehaviours* or *disruptive behaviours*. Various researchers have defined the term differently (see also section 1.5.1). For example, according to Lawrance and Steed (1984) disruptive behaviour is any behaviour that delays the learning process and normal routine of the school. Cherly (1986) describes the term as “the student- initiated acts that range from tardiness to violence” (p.1). Kyriacou’s (1997) definition emphasizes the lessening of a teacher’s efficiency in class. Also, as Turnuklu (1999) points out, the concept may change from teacher to teacher in terms of definition, meaning, and content, depending on their understanding and experience. However, Doyle (cited in McManus, 1995) warns educators that the unwanted behaviours should be analyzed in context. Walking around behaviour may be appropriate in a painting class, but highly unwelcome in a maths class (Turnuklu, 1999).

Disruptive behaviours can be placed in two categories (Evertson, 1989): behaviour that hinders other students from learning or disrupting the flow of instruction, or behaviours that prevents the student him/herself from participating. Cangelosi (1993) mentions that the latter is caused due to the fact that either the student is unable to catch up with the teacher's pace or s/he missed some part of the content and, thus, feels lost. Levin and Nolan (cited in Turnuklu, 1999) points to the family atmosphere as a causal factor while Doyle puts the blame on the school atmosphere. The family may be inattentive to the child's needs or may be too authoritative. Likewise, the school administration or the teacher may not encourage motivation the child needs to participate. Similarly, Gray and Richer (1988) and Altınel (2006) reveal that a child from a low socio-economic status tends to engage in more disruptive behaviour in class. Curwin and Mendler (1998) identify some problematic disruptive student behaviours as, (a) hyperactivity, (b) low span of attention, (c) unwillingness, (d) having weak memory, and (e) being poorly motivated.

The focus on the strategies for disruptive behaviours was intensified by a meta analysis of 99 studies conducted in the field. Stage and Quiroz (cited in Marzano, 2003) collected 99 studies and analyzed in their terms of discipline strategies to deal with misbehaviours. The results show that (a) *punishment and reinforcement*, (b) *reinforcement*, and (c) *punishment and no immediate consequence* are the strategies employed respectively by the teachers who took part in the studies. Similarly, a study conducted in Australia (Arbuckle & Little, 2004) concludes that male students are more problematic in classrooms and that teachers find it more difficult to deal with their misbehaviours: arguing, distracting others' attention, bullying, and damages to others' properties. They usually tend to use punishment strategies to deal with the disruptions of male students. Jones, Ling and Charlton (1999) find out in their study that professional support to the teachers about the most recurring disruptions were in four areas: (a) the maintenance of instructional efficiency, (b) reinforcement, (c) persuasion, (d) conflict and crisis control. Thus, the students were empowered to take control and their social behaviour. According to Rydell and Henricsson (2004), the teacher orientation and their handling strategies are highly correlated. In other words, if the teachers base their views on authoritarian behaviour management, then, they use harsh/punitive behaviour handling strategies or vice versa.

According to the body of the research in this subject, 54 % of teachers state that instruction is disrupted due to misbehaving students in classrooms (Ataman, 2000). This percentage shows the gravity of the issue. Moreover, dealing with misbehaving students may result with burnout on teachers and make them leave the profession in their earlier years (Charles, 1992). Turnuklu (2000), novice teachers, particularly, states that solving disruptive behaviours is a major problem. Giallo and Little (2003) find that 85.5 % of their research participants who have less than three-year-experience in teaching feel that they need for more training in behaviour management. As can be deduced from the statistical information, disruptive behaviour is an important element of the instruction, and may cause considerable and serious problems in education. Why the matter is being focused in such a dissertation originates from such noticeable reasons.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the design of the present study. The overall plan of the data collection procedure is presented as well as the participants and data collection instruments. The data collection instruments and procedures are introduced chronologically. Moreover, the data analysis procedure is explained along with the relevant literature.

3.1 The Design of the Study

The present study is adopted a qualitative research design study. The method of this study is naturalistic in that the research setting is not manipulated; instead, data is collected about the natural state of the research context (Cabaroglu, 1999). Furthermore, as Merriam (2002) puts it “understanding a phenomenon from the participants’ perspectives- the meanings people derive from a situation or understanding a process- requires asking important questions, questions that lend themselves to a qualitative inquiry” (p. xv). Hence, the aim is to investigate and understand as much as possible as the actual experiences of student teachers in a training program and of novice teachers in their first-year of teaching.

As determined by Miles and Huberman (1994, p.10), there are some advantages of adopting a qualitative research design in education has some advantages. Some examples are as follows:

- Qualitative studies focus on “...*naturally occurring ordinary events in natural settings*, so that we have a strong handle on what ‘real life’ is like.”
- They are rich and holistic “...with strong potential for revealing complexity; such data provide ‘thick descriptions’ that are vivid, nested in a real context, and have a ring of truth that has strong impact on the reader.”
- Because they are collected over a sustained period, “...we can go far beyond ‘snapshots’ of ‘what?’ or ‘how many?’ to just how and why things happen as they do – and even *assess causality* as it actually plays out in a particular

setting.” The flexibility of qualitative research in data collection times and methods enables the researcher to understand deeply what really has been going on.

- Since they put emphasis on people’s real “lived experience”, as they are fundamentally appropriate for “...locating *meanings* people place on events, processes and structures of their lives: their ‘perceptions, assumptions, prejudgments, presuppositions’ and for connecting these meanings to the *social world* around them.”

Based on the benefits of using qualitative research design, the present study is investigated with this approach for three specific reasons:

- Investigating teacher beliefs, in line with the literature is not possible by using a quantitative approach. For example, experimental research involves controlling contextual variables and testing hypotheses with a randomly selected sample. However, both in the classroom context and the human mind there are numerous variables which cannot be controlled or isolated (Patton, 2002).
- Also, the studies conducted using quantitative approach reveal that at the group level analysis does not suggest significant differences, but analysis at individual level *does*. Bramald, Hardman, and Leat (cited in Cabaroglu, 1999) state that the small mean changes at group level analysis do not always represent small changes in the thinking of individuals. Investigating teacher classroom management beliefs in-depth requires multiple intervention strategies. Sometimes, surprising themes emerge in the context that a qualitative research design allows the researcher to add such changes in to the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994).
- Investigating teacher’s beliefs about classroom management through qualitative research design allows the researcher to have a purposeful sampling of rich data sources. Moreover, the in-depth analysis component of a qualitative research paradigm enables the researcher following a case study approach, since the result of the study will not be generalized, and the research context is unique (Yin, 1994; Zembylas, 2004).

Since this study also includes the case study methodology, it is meaningful mentioning its characteristics:

- Ø A case study copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data point, and as one result,
- Ø It relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulation fashion, and as another result,
- Ø It benefits from the prior development of theoretical proposition to guide data collection and analysis. (Yin, 1994, p. 15)

3.2 Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research

The term *credibility* is used instead of *reliability* or *validity* in qualitative research. It refers to the power of collected data to represent reality, namely *representability*. The term refers to the analysis process for the researcher has the responsibility to reflect the situation with all possible reality. These above concepts depend on the researcher's clarity and frankness in terms of displaying the data collection and analysis process. In a nutshell, Patton (2002) summarizes three distinct elements of credibility:

- ▼ *rigorous methods* for doing fieldwork that yield high-quality data that are systematically analyzed with attention to issues of credibility;
- ▼ the *credibility of the researcher*, which is dependent on training, experience, track record, status, and presentation of self; and
- ▼ *philosophical belief in the value of qualitative inquiry*, that is, a fundamental appreciation of naturalistic inquiry, qualitative methods, inductive analysis, purposeful sampling, and holistic thinking. (pp. 552-53)

Triangulation is another technique to make the readers of qualitative studies convinced about the quality of the data and the results. The term in the field may be regarded as a metaphor for the stability of a tripod (Miller & Brewer, 2003). However, the term differs in meaning for the qualitative designs. While it seeks unity in results of quantitative studies, the main aim in qualitative ones is to enrich the data as much as possible (Mason, 1996; Patton, 2002). The literature suggests several forms of triangulation:

- ▼ *Methods triangulation*, where many data collection methods are combined to check the consistency between the data collection tools.
- ▼ *Triangulation of sources*, to check out the consistency between different data sources.
- ▼ *Analyst triangulation*, using various research analysts to reach similar results.
- ▼ *Theory/perspective triangulation*, using multiple theories to interpret data.

Merriam (2002, p. 31) proposes a list of strategies to promote validity and reliability in qualitative design. With these strategies, she encourages the field researchers to believe in the trustworthiness of data collection and analyses as well as readers to trust the interpretation of the results. Table 3.1 summarizes these strategies:

Table 3.1 *Strategies for Promoting Validity and Reliability*

Strategy	Description
Triangulation	Using multiple investigators, sources of data, or data collection methods to confirm emerging findings
Member Checks	Taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking if they were plausible
Peer review/examination	Discussions with colleagues regarding the process of study, the congruency of emerging findings with the raw data, and tentative interpretations
Researcher's position or reflexivity	Critical self-reflection by the researcher regarding assumptions, worldview, biases, theoretical orientation, and relationship to the study that may affect the investigation
Adequate engagement in data collection	Adequate time spent on collecting data such that the data become "saturated"; this may involve seeking <i>discrepant</i> or <i>negative</i> cases of the phenomenon
Maximum variation	Purposefully seeking variation or diversity in sample selection to allow for a greater range of application of the findings by consumers of the research
Audit trail	A detailed account of the methods, procedures, and decision points in carrying out the study
Rich, thick descriptions	Providing enough description to contextualize the study such that readers will be able to determine the extent to which their situation matches the research context, and hence, whether findings can be transferred.

(Merriam, 2002, p. 31)

This study tries to provide credibility in the following ways:

- a. Giving as much detailed description as possible on data collection tools, and procedures as well as on participants and participant selection procedures (informed consents, cover stories, field descriptions),
- b. Adequate engagement within the research context (approximately 16 months for data collection period and constant contact with the participants during this process),

- c. Audit trail by giving detailed rationale for using particular data collection methods,
- d. Triangulation in two areas: *Triangulation of methods* is managed by using multiple data collection strategies, such as diary, observation, interview, and a vignette task. *Analyst triangulation* is partly managed via the present dissertation advisor, jury committee and an outsider researcher analysis of parts of the data. Some parts of the verbal data from interviews and diaries were given to the analysts and they were asked to match the raw data with the codes determined by the researcher. The consistency was checked with a careful matching analysis. Researcher, thus, found the best representative quotes to display the codes and categories out of the transcripts.
- e. In addition, all participants were advised of the interpretation of the data provided by them (member check). Unlike the analysts, participants were provided with the final analysis. Data from interviews, observations vignettes and diaries were already interpreted and commented on by the researcher. What participants would do was agreeing or disagreeing with those interpretations. Different media was utilized to contact with the participants. Some could attend face to face interviews; some could get their results through e-mails; some others were talked no the phone. Table 3.2 below presents the results of this procedure where all participants agreed with the researcher's interpretation.

Table 3.2 *Member Check Results*

	Phase 1	Phase 2
I agree	14*	4
I don't know	--	--
I don't agree	--	--

* number of participants

3.3 The Participants

This study had different numbers of participants since it has two phases. In the transition phase fourteen senior student-teachers attended. Eleven were female and three were male. They were practice teaching at various high schools in Adana and took part voluntarily as participants. The average age was 22. None of the participants had previous teaching experience, but they were highly motivated to work as an English language teacher after they graduated. The practicum schools were the first real opportunity for contact with the target student population by the participants of this study. Four of these participants (one male, three female) participated in induction phase as novice teachers. The participant teachers, especially in this phase were selected purposefully for practicality reasons. Nearby schools were thought to be having more accessibility by the researcher to perform continuum of the research. Therefore, an attempt was made to collect data from participants who were appointed to work to the nearest schools in such cities around Adana.

Credible naturalistic data were needed, and, in line with the qualitative research design, the belief was that voluntary-based participants would be ready to be actively involved with the current study. The participants were always asked for their consent (see Appendix I for consent and information sheets [adapted from Cabaroglu, 1999] about the data collection); as a result, the people attending this study were all volunteers. Furthermore, the mentors at practicum schools were asked for their permission during the recordings or normal weekly school visits in the first phase of the study. The Ministry of National Education District Office also gave its consent for conducting the present study (see Appendix II for the samples).

The main issue about participant selection in qualitative research is sampling strategy. Unlike quantitative research, sampling is purposeful in qualitative research. Researcher seeks for rich-data sources which will make it possible to gather a maximum amount of data in quantity and quality. Such a sampling strategy also enhances the credibility of data and, thus the study results. This study used, mainly, the criterion based sampling strategy. As in Patton's (1990) words, "the logic of criterion sampling is to review and study all cases that meet some *predetermined* (italic added) criterion of importance" (p.176). The criterion chosen was that the participant should be a senior student-teacher who was attending a practice school for the first level of the study. Moreover, the same student-teacher should graduate and work as an English language

teacher in the second phase. Additionally, convenience sampling in induction phase (October 2005) was used for ease of accessibility.

3.4 The Context of the Study

It would be beneficial to present the context of the study for the readers. It is important to be able to understand how the researcher interpreted the data in the framework of the situation in which each participant was. The participants in this study attended different schools. During each phase, the participants attended four different schools. The schools in transition phase were high schools while they were primary schools during induction phase. For further details about the schools, see Appendix III at the back.

3.5 The Instruments

In qualitative designs, main data collection tools and procedures are interviews, observations and documents (Merriam, 2002). Frequently, a primary data collection tool is supported with another one in such studies. Similarly, the instruments used in the present study show variety according to the phases of the study. In transition phase, after the participants' demographical information was taken on a biographical sheet (Appendix III), data were collected through,

- a vignette task (Appendix IV),
- a semi-structured interview (Appendix V),
- observation by video recorder followed by a stimulated recall.

In induction phase,

- a stimulated recall interview,
- a journal (Appendix VI for guidelines) written
- observation by video recorder and a stimulated recall session were performed.

Moreover, the researcher's field notes were consulted whenever a need to illuminate some points arose. Following table displays the overall picture of data collection tools and their use.

Table 3.3 *An Overview of Methodological Tools*

WHEN	WHAT	WHY
PHASE 1		
25 February 2005	1. Contacting with the participants 2. Biography Sheet	1. Background information about participants for contact purpose during Phase 2 of the present study 2. For future contact with the participants in the second phase
6-7 MARCH 2005	1. Criterion sampling 2. Vignette task	Making participants familiar with the topic
10-20 APRIL 2005	Field observation 1 through video recording	1. To answer Research Question RQ1 2. To triangulate the data
10-30 MAY 2005	Semi-structured interview at Time 1	To answer RQ1
10-30 MAY 2005	Stimulated video recall	1. To answer RQ1 2. To triangulate the data
PHASE 2		
SEPTEMBER 2005	Convenience sampling	To aid in designing Phase 2 the second phase of the study as a case study
DECEMBER 2005	Semi-structured interview at Time 2	1. To answer RQ2 and RQ3 2. To get the feelings of subjects upon entering the profession 3. To compare and contrast the interview data at Time 1 and 3
DECEMBER 2005	Observation 2 (video recording) + stimulated video recall	1. To answer RQ2 and RQ3 2. To triangulate the data
DECEMBER 2005- MAY 2006	Journal keeping	1. To answer RQ2 and RQ3 2. To triangulate the data
FEBRUARY 2006	Observation 3 + stimulated video recall	To aid familiarity with the research context more
MAY 2006	1. Semi-structured interview at Time 3 2. Observation 4+ stimulated video recall	1. To answer RQ2 and RQ3 2. To triangulate the data

3.5.1 Vignette Task

Vignette is defined as “a brief incident or scene (as in a play or movie)” (*Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*, <http://www.m-w.com>). As Brewer (in 2003) mentions, vignettes are primarily used in qualitative research to explore the participants’ feelings and actions. It may also be used as an ice-breaker at the beginning of an interview.

In the present study, the participants have been given five different classroom situations (samples of student disruptive behaviors excerpted from Cangelosi, 2004) with the teachers’ reactions towards the events that happened. The situations chosen were among the most recurring disruptive behaviors recorded in previous research such as off-task behavior, talk between students, talking out of turn, bullying, and unwillingness to do a given task. After each description the students were asked four reflection questions, aimed at identifying the participants’ handling strategies during particular disruptive behaviors as well as their perspectives on the strategies of others. Additionally, the researcher intended to have the participants comprehend the focus and the scope of the study.

3.5.2 Interview

The semi-structured interview conducted in this study is the main data collection tool. This type of interviews has been used because of its possible advantages. The semi-structured interview falls between two marginal points of interviewing, namely, between structured and informal interviews. Structured interviews do not allow the interviewer to ask probing questions for the purpose of clarifying what the interviewee states and/or making sure what the interviewee comprehends from the verbal statements. Similarly, informal conversations do not allow the researcher to guide the conversation in the direction of the topics wanted. However, semi-structured interviews have the advantage of controlling the interview, asking probing questions and/or changing the order of the pre-set interview questions. Therefore, the researcher preferred using this type of interview.

The researcher conducted the interview three times in this study: Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3 changed in terms of interview administration procedures (see Table 3.4 on page 52). Time 1 may be described as the full interview. The participants were exposed to a set of nine questions for the first time; also the interview lasted longer. Time 2 and

Time 3 were in the form of stimulated recall interview. In other words, the participants read the transcription of their previous interviews and were expected to react to see whether there had been any change in their previous beliefs and ideas.

3.5.3 Observation

In this study, the aim of observation was twofold: (a) to triangulate the interview data, (b) to let the participants reflect on their practices about disruptive behavior, and thus elaborate more on the issues dealt with during the interview.

The researcher employed a non-participant observer role. This role may be explained as being the researcher passive and not participating in the class activities in the classroom. Her only role was to record the class hour(s) using a video camcorder. The researcher overtly video recorded the teaching sessions of the participants and their students as well as the administrators. During transition phase, each participant was recorded for one-class hour (around 45 minutes), allowing him/her to schedule the time of the recording. Moreover, in the induction phase of the present study the participants were visited three times and were video recorded three hours while teaching during each visit, for a total of nine hours. Table 3.4 (page 59) displays the detailed numerical data about observational records. To conduct recording, consent was also taken from the Ministry of Education District Offices such as Adana, Mersin and Hatay (Appendix V for samples of various consent letters obtained at certain times). The consent forms from the institutions were received with great difficulty.

The researcher insisted on using a digital video recorder to observe the participants. The transition phase foresaw this procedure since the participants had mentioned the high power of watching how they performed and this enabled them to see the reality in a more vivid way. In other words, the participants stated that seeing themselves on the screen was great to develop a third eye. They commented that their behaviors were so different than they thought of what they were doing. Thus, it was the researcher's conclusion that video recording would help the present study to develop a more reflective atmosphere and a rich-data source. The act of recording participants' performing of teaching would also raise the reliability of what was happening in their classrooms. In other words, the credibility of what has been performed would be high because the access to the raw data would be recorded and visible to everyone who may be interested in.

3.5.4 Stimulated recall

Stimulated recall is “one subset of a range of introspective methods that represents a means of eliciting data about thought processes involved in carrying a task or activity” (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p.1). It is a technique used to “uncover cognitive processes that are not evident through simple observation” (p. 20).

Stimulated recall technique is also used in investigating teacher thoughts for making implicit beliefs explicit. As Maijer, Beijard and Verloop (cited in Reitano, 2004) noted, “teachers’ interactive cognitions were characterized by (a) split second thoughts (*during interview*); (b) ties to the specific context (*teaching session*); (c) closely connected to teachers’ knowledge and beliefs; (d) closely connected to classroom practice; and (e) integrative in nature” (p.67).

In this dissertation, stimulated recall method is used in two ways. First, the teaching performances at Time 1, 2, 3 and 4 were video recorded, and later, participants watched the sessions along with the discussion about disruptive behaviors with the researcher. Second, the interview transcriptions were reported to the participants at Time 2 and 3 who were asked if any changes had happened during the time that passed from the beginning to the end of the study.

3.5.5 Diary / Journal

The journals are demonstrated to have some benefits in the literature. In the field of pre-service teacher education, Knowles (cited in Diamond, 1991) suggests that teacher biographies are valuable to understand the thinking of beginning teachers. He finds journal keeping highly valuable since it fosters reflective thinking. Similarly, Bray and Harsch (1996) report the benefits of keeping journals for student teachers in that they not only become reflective learners but also gain content vocabulary. Also, journals create the environment for discussion of the different ideas and complexities of student-teacher experience. This benefit multiplies, as the journals become rich resources for the supervisors (Subramanian, 2001) consideration of the trainees’ feelings and/or professional development. Moreover, the journals have been useful to the researcher’s aim of triangulating the data.

The participants were also asked to keep notes on instances which may not be recalled during the researcher-participant interviews but could possibly arise in a more relaxed setting. Therefore, the researcher provided the participants with guiding

questions at the beginning of induction phase which permitted them not only to keep notes about what happened in their classes but also to reflect on the experiences they had.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

3.6.1 Pilot Study

Before the main study, the researcher decided to pilot the study. A pilot study would enable the researcher to learn how to administer the instruments. Thus, the transition phase of the study started at the beginning spring term of 2003-2004 academic year. The senior student-teachers were contacted and seven of them agreed to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. The researcher explained the study in detail: the purpose, the data collection instruments, and the participants' roles. Biography, consent and information sheets were introduced. The mentors at practice schools were also contacted to convey the student-teachers' voluntarily participation in the study.

Then, the observation sessions at the practice school began. The researcher used a video camera to record each participant one class hour (approximately 40 minutes). In the first week, the researcher also assigned three journal tasks related to disruptive behavior (Appendix VII). After the observations and tasks, the participants were interviewed in their native language since the researcher felt that the participants would feel more comfortable in answering interview questions, and thus the researcher would obtain more comprehensible data. While conducting interviews, the researcher used a tape recorder as well as writing some notes down. The notes made the researcher's work easier to find some codes quickly during the analysis stage. Immediately after, the data were transcribed. Additionally, along with the data from interviews, the participants and the researcher watched and discussed the video records, utilizing stimulated recall methodology. Both the researcher and the participants were free to stop whenever they wanted to focus on some segments of the tape.

The induction phase started with the interviews at induction phase and observations in the end of fall term, in December, 2004-2005 academic year. Stimulated recall interview was held in which the participant read the transcriptions of his/her interview at Time 1. The participant was asked whether s/he still held the similar beliefs about the interview data as collected earlier at Time 1. Then, the participant was

observed via the video camera for two class hours. Right away, s/he watched the recorded tapes and elaborated on the issues related to disruptive behavior and the issues that had emerged in the interview data. This discussion marked the end of the data collection procedure for the piloting. The participant had another task to do during induction phase (between September 2004 and January-2005): keeping a journal. As a result, the data collection procedure for the pilot study lasted for nine months.

3.6.2 Main Study

After the analysis of the pilot study, the researcher revised the present study which started in spring term of 2004-2005 academic year with another volunteer senior student-teacher group. Some revision had been made in terms of number of participants, data collection tools, and the length of the data collection:

- a. The main study was conducted with 14 participants in the first phase, 4 in the second phase.
- b. The researcher changed the content of *the journal tasks* given at the beginning of the study. Rather than giving tasks similar to the interview questions which would have created repetitious feeling about the same issue on the participants, a vignette task was chosen to enable the participants to focus on the study as well as collecting data about their beliefs on disruptive behavior. This vignette task had already been given as a journal task 3 in the pilot study.
- c. The researcher decided to collect data for the whole academic year in the second phase of the study. Interview at Time 3 was conducted in May at the end of the 2005-2006 academic year. The same procedure consisting of stimulated interviews, observations and stimulated recall was repeated. Thus, the data collection procedure lasted for 15 months, from February 2005 through May 2006. The process in the main study is presented in the following figure:

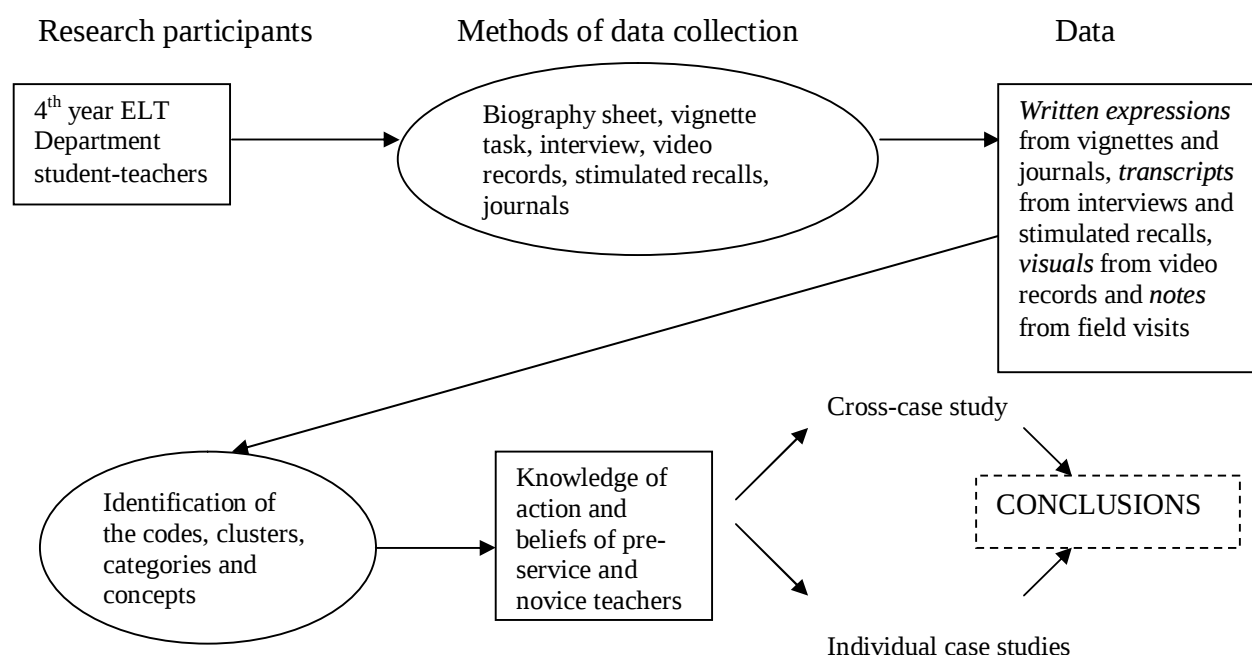


Figure 3.1. Research Process (adapted from Almarza, 1996, p. 55)

- d. The researcher decided to observe the participants four times throughout the study. Observation at Time 1 in the beginning of the study (April 2005), Observation at Time 2 in the beginning of novice year (December 2005), Observation at Time 3 (February 2006), and Observation at Time 4 in the end of novice year (May 2006) took place. Also, the researcher increased the duration of recording from two class hours to three for each of school visits, totally nine hours of teaching. The researcher aimed to perceive the real teaching context of participants as she was far from the schools where the participants worked as English language teachers. It was thought that this would enable her to interpret the data more accurately, and thus reliability of the interpretation would be higher.

The following table gives the numerical data about the data collection procedure.

Table 3.4 *The Numerical Data about the Use of Instruments*

Date	Instrument	Number of participants	Duration
FIRST PHASE			
10-20 April 2005	Observation at Time1	14	14 x 1 class hour
10-30 May 2005	Stimulated video recall 1	14	14 x ~ 45 minutes
10-30 May 2005	Interview at Time 1	14	14 x ~ 30 minutes
SECOND PHASE			
8-15 December 2005	Observation at Time 2	4	4 x 3 class hours
8-15 December 2005	Stimulated video recall 2	4	4 x ~ 100 minutes
8-15 December 2005	Stimulated recall interview at Time 2	4	4 x ~ 40 minutes
8 December 2005 -5 June 2006	Journal keeping	4	~ 6 months
8-15 February 2006	Observation at Time 3	4	4 x 3 class hours
8-15 February 2006	Stimulated video recall 3	4	4 x ~ 100 minutes
8-15 May 2006	Observation at Time 4	4	4 x 3 class hours
10-19 May 2006	Stimulated video recall 4	4	4 x ~ 100 minutes
8-15 May 2006	Stimulated recall interview at Time 3	4	4 x ~ 40 minutes

3.7 Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the content analysis technique (Miles & Huberman, 1994, Patton, 2002) since the research was based on the verbal opinion expressions of participants. The data collected from one participant was analyzed separately from the other participants' data (within a case). Also, the data collected for each subtopic about the issue was analyzed considering all participants' opinions holistically (cross-sectional). The rationale behind these different analysis systems was for the purpose of answering different research questions. Cross sectional analysis sheds light on the general tendencies of the participants about disruptive behavior. Research questions 1, 1.1, 1.2, 2, 2.1, and 2.2 were addressed through cross-sectional analysis. On the other

hand, individual analysis enabled the researcher to track down of particular participant's beliefs, and thus answer research question 3.

The methodology used in analyzing and interpreting data is content analysis. As Baş Collins (2000) clearly explained in the figure 3.2, the researcher followed the steps while analyzing data.

1. Transcribing was the first step which involved the researcher listening and re-listening to the audio records of the interviews, watching and re-watching the video records to create text files.
2. The next step was coding or labeling in which data were simplified and new labels or tags were attached to data segments. Then, the codes were defined operationally in terms of their meaning as they appeared in the present study. This enabled the researcher to see the overlapping codes, if there were any.
3. Following the coding/labeling stage, there was the clustering step. The related codes or tags were categorized under more general headlines (generating categories). For providing a coherent analysis and easing the referral process, data retrieval or indexing was arranged by using word processor.
4. Another step in the analysis process was looking for interrelationships between categories like the critical reading of the verbal responses because the participants sometimes did not answer the questions directly. Their comments about one particular issue would sometimes include the next issue as well as the issue in question. For example, while defining disruptive behavior, they, in fact, mentioned examples of this type that they had encountered in their classes.
5. Consequently, the results of the interrelated data collection tools were accumulated to see the whole result of a research question. As an illustration, there was a need to check, the 'ideal' concept of student and teacher for participants (interview question 3) to interpret their definition of disruptive behavior (interview question 2) more accurately. On the other hand, to answer research question 1.2 and 2.1, the vignette task and diaries were analyzed along with interview questions 4 and 5).
6. Finally, it was written up utilizing strategies such as exemplifying, describing, constructing, verifying, quoting and displaying.

All these steps were not conducted chronologically, however. When needed, a forward or backward move among the steps was made.

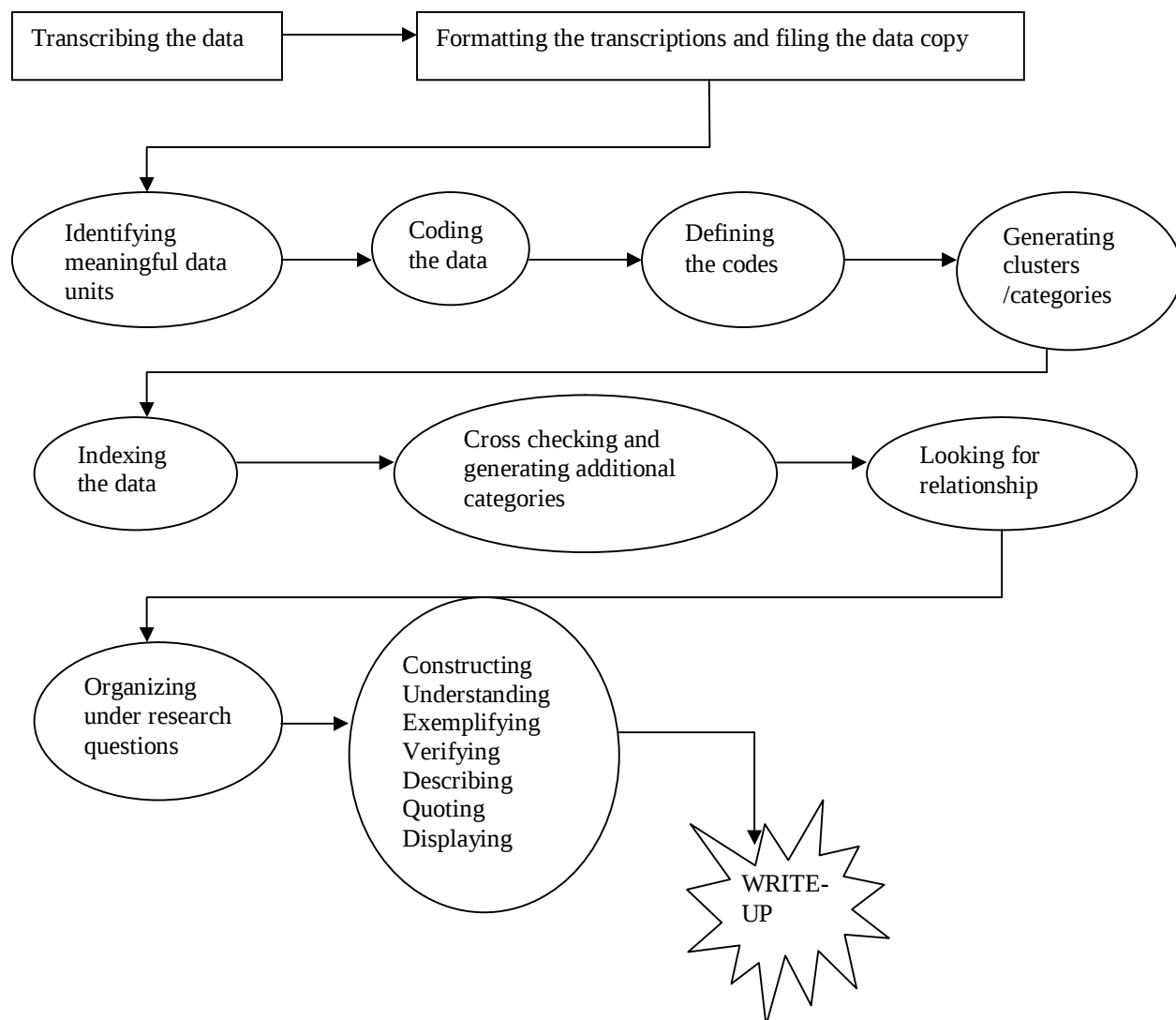


Figure 3.2. Overall Data Analysis Procedures (adapted from Baş Collins, 2000, p. 70)

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the collected data through the instruments explained in Chapter 3. The methodology of analysis was also explained in the previous chapter. The results of the research questions are reported in line with the data collection tools. The findings and their relevance in the related literature are discussed.

4.1 Results of Transition Phase

Transition phase includes the term between March-June 2005, when the participants were senior student teachers and attending the practicum schools for practice teaching. During this period, the vignette task and the interview were administered, and observation was made to answer research question 1.

4.1.1 Definition of *disruptive behaviour*

During the interview, the participants had to define a disruptive behaviour as they had regarded. This definition was especially important for the research because of the belief that the choice of handling strategy from a large repertoire would match with each participant's perception of the term *disruptive behaviour*. The interviewer directly asked the participants to define the term (see Appendix V, question 2). When interview question 2 was analyzed, the following verbs were found useful in defining the term. Table 4.1 displays the verbs utilized by the participants to describe the concept.

Table 4.1 *Keywords Used to Define Disruptive Behaviour*

Keyword	Extract	Reference
Hinder Disrupt Break up Ruin Disturb Interrupt	“...sometimes there is talking-out-of-turn, which may be OK if the remark is related to the topic, but if it <i>hinders</i> the others, to <i>disrupt</i> means to <i>break up</i> the concentration of the others participating in the course. That is, it <i>ruins</i> other student’ sense of comfort in class, <i>disturbs</i> others. If it causes the other students to experience a problem Then it <i>interrupts</i> the flow of instruction.”	ST6, interview at Time 1, p. 19
Disorder Divert	“Disruption may be any behaviour <i>disorder</i> which <i>diverts</i> the students’ interest in any way.”	ST9, interview at Time 1, p. 33
Destroy Interfere	“For example, a student may ask an irrelevant question during class time. This <i>destroys</i> the concentration of whole class as well as that of the teacher, <i>interferes</i> with classroom management.”	ST13, interview at Time 1, p. 56
Sidetrack	“By making an irrelevant statement, the student is attempting to <i>sidetrack</i> the teacher.”	ST14, interview at Time 1, p. 59

Along with the vocabulary choice, the researcher came up with two major qualities of the disruptive behaviour during the analysis. A disruptive behaviour is one that interferes either with other student(s)’ learning and/or interrupts the teacher’s teaching. There is a panoramic view of disruptive behaviour. It mainly disrupts the teacher, disturbs the other students; and also interferes with the student’s own learning as well as that of the other learners. Moreover, it creates a hectic situation for the teacher who must maintain both his/her own motivation and attention and that of the learners’ interaction. Therefore, a disruptive behaviour may be said to have the features in the following figure.

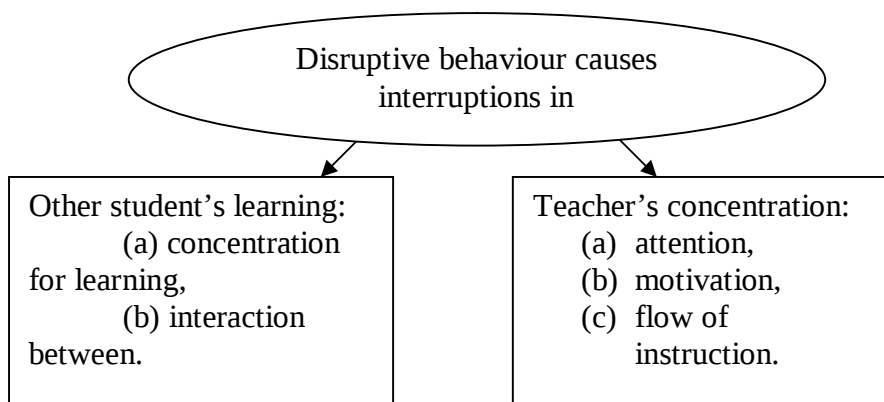


Figure 4.1. Features of a Disruptive Behaviour

The participants also mentioned some minor features of such student behaviour: (a) diversion from the content, and (b) no contribution to the topic of discussion. The conclusion is that participants find student disruption as irrelevant, disturbing, and deviating from the usual process of instruction.

4.1.1.1 Disruptive Behaviour Interference with Learning

When analyzed, definitions of the participants made it clear that disruptive behaviour interferes with the other's learning. The participants verbalized this as follows:

ST5: The problem is that disruptive behaviour hinders others who have the motivation to learn in the classroom. (Interview at Time 1, p. 15)

ST8: A disruptive behaviour is any behaviour which interrupts the others' concentration as well as hinders others' learning. (Interview at Time 1, p. 29)

ST5 puts the emphasis on the distraction of students who are motivated. Similarly, ST8 verbalizes the term motivation as 'others' concentration'. She also mentions hindrance of learning in her definition.

4.1.1.2 Disruptive Behaviour Interference with Teaching

Another dimension of participants' definition of disruptive behaviours is that it interferes with teacher's teaching. In other words, such behaviours disrupt the flow of instruction. In the following extracts participants describes the qualities of disruptive behaviour from this perspective.

ST1: Classroom management is based on a close relationship. The disruptive behaviour interrupts the student-student interaction, first. Next it reflects on student-teacher interaction.... Thus, disruptive behaviour is a behaviour which first destroys and interrupts a student's own learning, and then that of his/her classmates. (Interview at Time 1, p. 1)

ST7: Because it distracts a teacher's attention, disruptive behaviour is very important. It distorts the flow of instruction as it interferes with a teacher's attention span, and s/he can't concentrate. This is very important for me, for example.

Researcher: In other words, the behaviour distracts the teacher's attention.

ST7: At the same time, the student's friends are disturbed, which is a major factor. If it hinders the other students' participation in the class, there is a problem with the classroom management. (Interview at Time 1, p. 25)

ST1 questions his definitions and provides reasons for his definition of classroom management. He sets up a chain of reaction. In contrast, ST7 focuses on herself as the initial person who is distracted and then comments on the destruction of the students' participation in the class.

4.1.2 Disruptive Behaviour Examples

The data for the disruptive behaviours which the participants experienced have been collected through interview and observation. During transition phase, the researcher collected behaviour examples through interviews conducted with 14 participants and videos made for observational purposes.

4.1.2.1 Findings from Interview

The participants were asked what kinds of disruptive behaviours they experienced in their classes (question 4). The participants described their experiences and the researcher categorized the codes into two major categories: *nonverbal* and *verbal* disruptive behaviours as in the following table, Table 4.2. For the nonverbal behaviours, we synthesized the misbehaviours experienced by the participants as *out of seat*, *wandering*, *off-task behaviour*, and *fighting*. On the other hand for verbal disruptions, participants reported *chatting*, *irrelevant answer*, *buzzing*, *verbal aggression*, *shouting*, and *talking-out-of-turn*. Among the nonverbal behaviours, participants stated they experienced mostly *wandering* (19.7 %) and *off-task behaviours* (17.8 %). Off-task behaviours were one of those which included many different actions. Some of the participants mentioned their students dealing with some electronic equipment, such as their mobiles and/or Discmans (as in the following quote by participant 10), while some others referred to students clapping for no good reason. This category also includes eating in classroom or looking out of a window.

ST10: well, generally they deal with electronic equipment. That is, with cameras, mobile phones, tape recorders. Once, they recorded their teacher's voice while she was shouting at one of their friends. (Interview at Time 1, p. 43)

Of the verbal disruptive behaviours listed in Table 4.2 below, the participants experienced, *chatting* behaviour (17.8 %) the most often. This behaviour not only involves two desk mates chatting but also two students far from each other in the seating arrangement talking.

In the following excerpts, participant 11 states that even sitting far apart students may display such behaviour, while participant 12 emphasizes the chain reaction of chatting behaviour.

ST11: There are talks between groups: one part of the classroom is chatting with another part. (Interview at Time 1, p. 49)

ST12: Chatting usually occurs when another student is already talking with permission. One starts chatting, then another answers back, and it goes on like a chain. (Interview at Time 1, p. 53)

Aggressive disruptive behaviours such as *fighting* (non-verbal) and *verbal aggression* (verbal) have also been experienced by the participants.

Table 4.2 *Frequencies of Disruptive Behaviours in Interview at Time 1*

Category	Disruptive Behaviour	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Non verbal</i>	Wandering	11	19.7
	Off-task behaviour	10	17.8
	Out-of-seat	3	5.3
	Fighting	1	1.8
<i>Verbal</i>	Chatting	10	17.8
	Irrelevant answer	6	10.8
	Verbal aggression	6	10.8
	Shouting	5	8.9
	Buzz	1	1.8
Total		56	100

It would be beneficial to define and exemplify these misbehaviours presented in the table above. The terms below are defined in line with the participants' descriptions during talks and the images from observation records. *Out-of-seat* may be defined as a disruptive behaviour where "student either does not sit in his/her regular seat or stands up. S/He does not stay in his/her seat as s/he is expected". Participant 12 exemplifies the behaviour with a hyperactive student's inappropriate class behaviour below. She also elaborates on her handling strategy along with a dominant out-of-seat behaviour in her classes.

ST12: For example, there is a hyperactive student. When he is out of seat I do not deal with him. If he wants to go out, I also let him because I know when he is unhappy, I am unhappy, too.... I warned them at the beginning of the term: "Everyone should bring his/her textbook with

her/him. You won't stand or walk round during the class, won't go to other desks. Each one of you will have a permanent desk." They change their seats every day. (Interview at Time 1, p.53)

Wandering occurs when "a student walks around the classroom without permission". This activity code is different than out-of-seat behaviour in that the student hangs around with or without a purpose or permission. In the following extract, this quality of this disruptive behaviour is differentiated from out-of-seat by participant 10.

ST10: I also faced the students who throw objects to each other. Moreover, I also experienced some standard disruptions: walking around, or changing their seats without permission. (Interview at time 1, p. 43)

Off-task behaviour may be identified with the irrelevancy of the student actions in class. "Student is engaged with irrelevant actions, such as dealing with some electronic equipment and/or eating, and fooling with friends, rather than the assigned task." Participant 7 exemplifies off-task behaviours she had in her classes in the following extract.

ST7: During classes they are not interested in activities. Whatever you do, there are some who are not willing to learn. Instead, they read magazines, listen to music. Such behaviours show they are not interested in what you were trying to teach. (Interview at time 1, p.25)

Fighting is usually attached to "physical attacks and student anger displayed through brutal actions." This non-verbal act is also interrelated with authority defiance and verbal aggression. Participant 7 narrates a fight she experienced during practice teaching referring to the defiance of the authority and her being inexperienced.

ST7: Once, I experienced a fighting. Two of them stood up and started to fight.... I didn't know what to do. They swore at each other. They really used very rude words.... Then, the other students started to calm them down. One student bullied the other, and I was between them. (Interview at Time 1, pp. 25-26)

Chatting may be identified as “student talking to others during class although s/he is not allowed to.” In the following extract, participant 14 questions the effects of such behaviour.

ST14: I am mostly disturbed by the chatting behaviours. They talk in a loud voice as well as disturb the others who really focus on what I am teaching. (Interview at Time 1, p. 60)

Irrelevant answer is defined as “student answers the question s/he is supposed to but with an irrelevant answer. Also, s/he raises new irrelevant issues although s/he seems to be taking the turn to answer the question.” Student 4 in the extract below, refers to one particular student and continues her remark with his being also disinterested in class activities.

ST4: X is a regularly irrelevant student. He often disrupts the classes with his irrelevant answers to my questions. I actually thought that X is highly interested in class activities at the beginning of my teaching. However, after some time engaged in them, I understood that he is one of the gap-fillers. He thinks that taking turn and talking brings him a good student image back. He thinks that as a teacher I would think that he is a highly participative, and thus a successful student. (Interview at Time 1, p.12)

Buzzing occurs when “most of the students in class make noise irrelevant to the assigned task.” Buzzes are different than chatting behaviour in that most of the students talk in buzz whereas a few couples talk between themselves in chatting misbehaviour. Participant 5 refers to pair or group work activities to describe buzzes in her class.

ST5: For example, there always is a buzz as soon as I assign a task in pairs or groups. They start to wander. They regard such activities as a time for chatting or walking around. It is an opportunity for them. (Interview at Time1, p. 15)

Verbal aggression may be depicted as “use of bad language and display of anger against others or the teacher.” A verbal aggression act may include curses along with a

non-verbal disobeying what the teacher orders him/her to do. Participant 7 above already mentioned such behaviour embedded in a fight.

Shouting behaviour may be portrayed as “student use of high tone of voice.” Participant 10 refers her surprise of shouting students even when she was present and teaching in the classroom.

ST10: I really do not understand some of my students. They shout as if they are in a monologue stage like a 4-year-old infant. I am there as an authority figure. Alas, it does not matter for them. (Interview at Time 1, p. 43)

4.1.2.2 Findings from Observation and Stimulated Video Recalls

The participants were asked to give their consents for video records one of their teaching hours (~ between 35- 40 minutes) during practice teaching in the transition phase of this study. The video recording sessions, labeled in this study as *Observation at Time 1*, were conducted between April-May 2005 at their practicum schools. After the video recording session, the participants were given appointments to watch and discuss the disruptive behaviours they experienced and their handling strategies. In the methodology known as stimulated recall, either the participant pauses the track any time s/he wants and comments on it or the researcher pauses the track to ask questions. In this study, both techniques were combined. A stimulated video discussion took about one or one and a half hour with each participant. Discussion results were noted for analysis. Here are the results:

Table 4.3 *Frequencies of Disruptive Behaviours in Observation at Time 1*

Category	Disruptive Behaviour	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Non verbal</i>	Off-task behaviour	14	24.4.
	Wandering	13	22.8
	Out-of-seat	3	5.3
	Tardiness	2	3.6
<i>Verbal</i>	Chatting	15	26.3
	Buzz	6	10.5
	Talking-out-of-turn	3	5.3
	Bullying	1	1.8
Total		57	100

As can be seen in Table 4.3, there are two categories of disruptive behaviours participants experienced in their practice teaching in the observation session. The researcher used the same categories and terminology in Observation at Time 1 as in the Interview at Time 1 results. As in the first category, nonverbal disruptions, the participants experienced were *out of seat*, *wandering*, *off-task behaviour* and *tardiness* disruptions. However, some new codes such as *tardiness*, *talking-out-of-turn*, and *bullying* had to be added.

According to Table 4.3 above, *wandering* and *off-task behaviour* have been witnessed more than other misbehaviours (22.8 % and 24.4 %, respectively). On the other hand, the least experienced was *tardiness* behaviour (twice). The second category, verbal disruptions, included *chatting*, *buzz*, *bullying* and *talking-out-of-turn*. Among these, *chatting* has been observed 15 times out of 57 disruptive occurrences. This has been the most frequent verbal disruptive behaviour with a 26.3 %. *Bullying*, on the other hand, has been the rarest disruptive student behaviour during Observation at Time 1 with 1.8 %. This result correlates with the study of Arbuckle and Little (2004), who discovered that the most problematic disruptions are not the aggressive ones but milder frequently occurring ones, such as *talking-out-of-turn*, or *off-task behaviours*.

Tardiness is viewed simply as “late coming.” It has a negative effect both on students and teacher. Participant 13 focuses on such behaviour from a teacher’s perspective in the following extract.

ST13: A late-comer distracted my attention. I am usually easily distracted with such behaviour. Although, I warn him, he is a regular one displaying tardiness. (Stimulated Video Recall at Time 1)

Talking-out-of-turn occurs when “student talks without taking a turn or without being called upon by the teacher.” This disruptive behaviour is exemplified by participant 9’s experience.

ST9: They talk without permission too much. I am fed up with reminding of the class rules. Well, apparently, I am ineffective in handling this misbehaviour that they always do it. (Stimulated Video Recall at Time 1)

Bullying is an act related with “authority defiance as well as student’s feeling him/herself more powerful than the rest of the class.” Participant 10 describes this disruptive behaviour in the following extract.

ST10: There are two dominant students at the back row. They usually scare the other students. Rest of the students usually do not deal with them. They have a high tone of voice and try to dominate my decisions, too. (Stimulated Video Recall at Time 1)

4.1.3 Handling Strategies

The data for the handling strategies of participants were collected through vignette, interview and observation. Vignette tasks were given at the very beginning of the study in March 2005. Interviews and observations were administered between March-May 2005. The data obtained from participants showed that they have two main handling strategies: prevention and intervention. Preventive strategies are used before the disruption occurs. In other words, a teacher prepares the classroom atmosphere in such a way that s/he eliminates the potential sources for misbehaviours. On the other

hand, intervention means attending to the disrupting action there and then. The teacher starts dealing with the disruption after it occurs.

4.1.3.1 Findings from Vignette Task

The participants were given five different vignettes. The scenarios in these vignettes have been excerpted from Cangelosi (2004). The vignettes were chosen among the more frequent disruptive behaviours as stated in the related literature. Therefore, the vignettes included the disruptive behaviours of *off-task behaviour*, *chatting*, *talking-out-of-turn* and *bullying*. The purpose was to have the participants determine what the problem was in the vignette and if s/he agreed with the teacher's handling strategy in the vignette. If not, they were questioned about what they would do instead. The answers revealed whether participants were aware of disruptive behaviours and also what their strategies would be for handling these problems.

The first vignette task was related to a task reluctance problem. The participants commented on how they would react to such students with various handling strategies. Some of them stated that they would insist that the students stayed on task. Some referred to a *change in delivery style of instruction*. Others agreed with the teacher who cancelled the present activity and replaced it with another. They also asserted that they would deal with the noisy students overtly and directly by *calling out* their names, *using proximity*, and *warning* them to stop. They even mentioned having students *change seats* and separating the misbehaving student from his/her desk mate with whom s/he organizes the behaviour in the following excerpts:

ST6: If I were Mrs Allen, I would motivate my students to do translation activities in class. I would inform my students about the importance of translation, and I would encourage them to participate and learn. To achieve this aim, I would find a way to attract their attention and establish silence in classroom, and I would emphasize keeping quiet during the activity. (Vignette Task, Case 1)

ST5: If I were the teacher, I would observe the students and walk between the desks as soon as they start chatting. I would talk to the chatterboxes about the translation activity to motivate them to do it. Also, it is normal to hear some noise during these kinds of pair or group work

activities; I would not expect the whole class to be entirely silent.
(Vignette Task, Case 1)

Vignette Case 2 was about a teacher trying to deal with some noisy off-task students using his tone of voice. The participants agreed with the teacher mostly but suggested alternative strategies such as *using proximity*, becoming silent and waiting for them to understand their mistaken behaviour, establishing *eye-contact*, using a *high tone of voice*, and directly *warning* the chatting students.

ST8: I find Mr Eglin very accurate in his decision.... If I were him, I would do the same, would try to lower my voice. Some time later, I would stop instructing and only stare at them. Thus, I would let the students reflect about what was wrong about the situation. In this way I think I would succeed in getting their attention. (Vignette Task, Case 2)

The third case was about talking-out-of-turn behaviour and how the teacher handled it. The participants all agreed with the teacher's handling strategy, namely, *praising the good behaviour*. Nevertheless, some added strategies as a *back-up* for her handling strategy, such as *ignoring* the student or *warning* her directly. Using *facial expressions* such as *frowning* and maintaining *eye-contact*, and *reminding of class rules* were also suggested by the participants. In the following excerpt, participant 2 accepts the teacher's reaction but also criticizes it. She finds *talking-out-of-turn* behaviour not a big disruption. Her focus is keeping the students on task.

ST2: ...it's the best way to solve this problem, I think. However, the students can be discouraged as a result of such a reaction...I tried to listen to each student and answer their questions. This takes too much time, but it encourages students to produce the new language. They feel a sense of approval which I think is necessary to be motivated. If the question was irrelevant, the reaction of the teacher would be right. I would just answer it....This behaviour of the student is proof of her interest and that she is listening to the teacher. (Vignette Task, Case 3)

The fourth case was about off-task behaviour of a student: a show off. The teacher in this case changes his seat and *isolates* the disrupting student from others. The participants either chose *confronting* this kind of student by bringing him to the front and letting him perform his show to everybody in the class or confronting him in another corner of the room (one-to-one). They also would warn him directly and remind him of the class rules. Some simply would *ignore* such a student. In the following excerpts, participant 4 disagrees with the teacher's strategy while participant 12 finds it as a reasonable one.

ST4: I don't find the teacher's strategy right. I think she may piss the student off and cause him be more aggressive. The student may be obstinate and go on performing similar misbehaviours in following class hours. I would ignore such behaviour if I were the teacher. The student would give up sometime later since he would understand that he could not manage to get attention. (Vignette Task, Case 4)

ST12: The teacher's isolation of the student from the others and assigning a task and later showing interest in him prevents him from engaging in other disruptive behaviour. Because it worked well here, I really liked this strategy. I would do the same. (Vignette Task, Case 4)

The last case was about a student using bad language and defying the authority. The teacher accepts the student's reason and explains that unless the student uses a good language she will not be able to get help from the teacher in a courteous way. Some of the participants were harsh about bad-language-use behaviour and proposed using direct *warning* and *reminding of class rules* to this student. Yet, the rest of the participants suggested dealing with the disruptive student by *isolation* and a *one-to-one talk* to learn what lies beneath such an attitude. In the following excerpts, the participants try to persuade the misbehaving student to stay on task.

ST10: I would explain to Debbie how people behave in a social situation and why she should be respectful in her life. So, she can gain an idea of the importance of respect and can apply it to her social life. (Vignette Task, Case 5)

ST14: I would deal with the student through a tactful choice of words that will help me win him/her over. I would say “Come on! You know you can do that. You are intelligent, but today I see that you are not feeling all right. I think you will come up with a great idea about this subject for the next lesson.” (Vignette Task, Case 5)

As it can be interpreted from the excerpts above, the participants agreed with the teachers’ strategies most of the time. However, they also proposed some alternative strategies which they frequently used in their classes. The result is the following table in which the entire responses are summarized.

Table 4.4 *Handling Strategies in Vignette Task*

Case #	Approach	Category	Strategy suggested by participants
1 Reluctance	Interventionist	Verbal	Using intonation (high) Changing the delivery of instruction style Changing the activity Encouraging Warning Calling out
		Non-verbal	Giving a break Using proximity
2 Off-task: Chatting		Verbal	Using intonation (high or low) Warning Using eye-contact
		Non-verbal	Stopping instructing Using proximity
3 Talk out-of-turn		Verbal	Nominating the model behaviour Reminding of rules Warning
		Non-verbal	Gesture/Facial expressions Ignoring Using eye-contact Using back up (family)
4 Off-task: Show off		Verbal	Revealing the disruption Confronting (one-to-one)
		Non-verbal	Ignoring Isolation Warning
5 Defying the authority		Verbal	Encouraging Confronting (one-to-one) Warning Reminding of rules
	Preventive	Non-verbal	Planning more effective lessons

The strategies used above may be defined as in the following way in two categories: (a) interventionist strategies and (b) preventive strategies:

Interventionist Strategies:

Using intonation may be defined as “the changes in the teacher’s tone of voice (high or low).” Usually a high tone of voice is related to Behaviourism/Punishment Model of classroom management models. Participant 9 explains when she uses such a strategy in the following extract.

ST9: When they interrupt each other, I warn them with a loud tone of voice. Or else, I know some female students are timid and thus I approach them with a very low tone of voice not to agitate them during classes. (Interview at Time 1, p.37).

Changing the delivery of instruction style is “changes in the delivery style of instruction, for example, from a lecture to a discussion.” On the other hand, *changing the activity* is “replacing the task with another one.” As an illustration to this, replacing a question and answer activity with a fill-in-the-blanks activity while teaching *if clauses*.

Warning is “giving verbal signals to the misbehaving student that demands him/her to stop.” Phrases such as, “Stop talking! Focus on your task!” may be examples of this strategy. Most of the participants employed such a strategy to prevent the students from continuing disrupting. Participant 12 reasons why and how she uses this strategy in the following extract.

ST12: I warned them a lot because they talk-out-of-turn. I told them that I would organize the flow of instruction not them. I reminded them I was the one in charge of making decisions in the order of the activities. (Interview at Time 1, p. 53)

Encouraging can be identified with “the motivating effort of the teacher to make the students participate in the task” usually to prevent off-task behaviours. As stated in Cooperative Discipline Model, encouraging is an appropriate strategy to divert students for an expected behaviour. *Calling out* is “calling the name of the misbehaving student

aloud. Thus, the teacher reveals the identity of the student in front of class.” Such identification may embarrass the student. As a result, misbehaving student stops or delays his/her undesirable behaviour.

Giving a break may be depicted as “teacher giving a short break to let the students relax and then s/he starts the activity again.” Therefore, the teacher implicitly demonstrates that s/he is well aware of the students’ span of attention and psychology. In other words, s/he cares about her students’ state of being.

Using proximity as a non-verbal strategy is shown when “teacher walks close to the disrupting students to make them aware of his/her existence and thus to stop them misbehaving.” Being one of the most common strategies and part of Positive Discipline Model, participant 12 questions why she uses proximity.

ST12: When there is a disruption, first I remind them that I exist in the classroom. I do this usually by approaching the row of misbehaving student or groups of students. (Interview at Time 1, p. 53)

Nominating the model behaviour is “teacher ignorance of the misbehaving student and instead giving the right to talk to another student who is behaving well.” Mostly, participant 9 employed this strategy. In the following extract, she narrates one of these instances.

ST9: In fact, I am a democratic teacher that I usually think I am equal in giving turns to my students when they demand appropriately. Yet, there are always show-off students. They like being recognized with their naughty actions and they like to be shown attention. One of such students in my class was thinking that I usually ignore her. Once, she started to shout “Teacher! Teacher!” to draw my attention. I ignored her again and deliberately nominated another student who was raising her hand to get the turn to talk. (Interview at Time 1, p.34)

Gesture/Facial expressions are a strategy which “teacher uses his/her facial expressions and/or gestures to show that s/he is uncomfortable with student behaviour.” For example, s/he frowns to alert the misbehaving student for she is aware what’s happening. Other examples of this behaviour may be staring, crossing the arms on the

chest, giving a posture, tapping on the table or the board. Such body movements to control the class are also included in Positive Discipline Model.

Using back-up is defined as “getting help from an outsider, such as the family or the administrators to solve disruption problems in this study.” Such strategy may be employed by the teacher because of the severity of the misbehaviour. Also, a teacher following Positive Discipline Model rules benefits from such a strategy. Participant 10, in the following extract, explains the back-up sources as school counselor, administrators, and parents.

ST10: Reprimanding in front of his/her friends is very severe and s/he may react harshly towards the teacher. This is why, confronting outside is better. If the problem is really big and the teacher cannot solve it, then, s/he may refer to the help from administration. The teacher may contact with the parents as well as the school counselor. (Interview at Time 11, p. 44)

Revealing the disruption means that “teacher makes the student come to the front of the row and perform what s/he was doing.” Thus, disruptive student’s identity will be revealed. Student 14 has been a regular benefitor of such strategy, and in the following extract he describes how he uses it.

ST14: When students talk irrelevantly, I approach them and say “Yes, your friend has a significant contribution to the topic in question”. Thus, I reveal what they were doing there and then prevent them from going further. (Interview at Time 1, p. 61)

Confronting is a strategy in which “teacher has a one-to-one talk and tries to solve the problem in an isolated area.” The teacher questions the behaviour and works with the student to negotiate for a common solution. This strategy used by the participants is also a part of the Social Discipline Model. *Isolation*, on the other hand, is “removing the misbehaving student to a far corner of the classroom so that s/he would understand he is punished and would reflect on what s/he did wrong.” Behaviour Modification Model includes such a strategy.

Another very frequently applied strategy is *reminding of rules*. “Teacher reminds the student of the rules and states that disruption is against the rules, forcing the student indirectly to realize what s/he did was wrong.” This strategy is one of Assertiveness Model teacher actions.

Preventive strategies:

Although participants were less aware about preventive strategies, some of them mentioned it indirectly. *Planning more effective lessons* is a strategy where “teacher anticipates potential disruption sources and eliminates them through his/her effective instructional planning.” An effective lesson plan, as stated in Instructional Management Model, would keep students on task and lessen the time spent for handling with misbehaviours. Participant 9 exemplifies her types of activities to attract the student’s attention.

ST9: The main aim, here, is to keep the students comfortable and busy. I usually try to have them choose the activities they want to do. Songs or games are their favorites. This way I really have less disruption in my classes. (Interview at Time 1, p. 35)

4.1.3.2 Findings from Interview

Interview question 4 dealt with the misbehaviour examples the participants experienced in their classes. Question 5 explored how participants dealt with such behaviours. In the interview question 10, participants were asked what proactive measures they would use.

Table 4.5 shows the approaches and handling strategies classified as *non-verbal* and *verbal*. The results show that they employ interventionist strategies most, both in non-verbal and verbal categories.

Table 4.5 *Handling Strategies in Interview at Time 1*

Approach	Strategy	Participant
Verbal Strategies		
Interventionist	Calling out	ST5, ST6, ST8, ST9
	Confronting	ST1, ST5, ST9, ST10, ST13
	Deliberate nomination	ST5, ST9, ST11, ST14
	Sermons	ST3, ST7, ST8
	Reminding of rules	ST2, ST4, ST6, ST7, ST9, ST10, ST12
	Using intonation	ST4, ST6, ST7, ST14
	Task assignment	ST1, ST5, ST8,
	Warning	ST2, ST5, ST7, ST9, ST12,
	Reprimand	ST1, ST9
Preventive	Setting the rules beforehand	ST3, ST4, ST8, ST10
	Encouraging	ST2, ST3, ST5, ST9, ST12
	Planning more effective lessons	ST5, ST9, ST11, ST12, ST13
	Using back-up (from counselors/administrators)	ST6, ST10, ST14
Non-Verbal Strategies		
Interventionist	Gestures/facial expressions (frowning, tapping, holding own hand, clapping, touching the student, staring, eye-contact)	ST4, ST6, ST7, ST12, ST14
	Ignoring	ST2, ST3, ST4, ST12, ST13, ST14
	Using proximity	ST1, ST5, ST6, ST7, ST9, ST11
	Changing seats	ST2, ST3, ST7, ST9, ST13
	Using interesting teaching materials	ST4, ST9, ST11
Preventive	Having a mild, friendly relationship with the students	ST7, ST10

As for the non-verbal strategies, participants remarked that they usually used *calling out, meetings, deliberate nomination, sermons, reminding of rules, using intonation, task assignment, warning and reprimanding*. For preventive measures,

participants also stated that they would motivate students to participate in class activities. They gave assurances that they would explain how important learning English for the students' futures was. They mentioned the importance of effective lesson planning and setting the class rules at the beginning of academic year. Similarly, Reality Model emphasizes the gravity of negotiating the class rules with the students at the very beginning of the academic year to provide the serene atmosphere. Additionally, the participants referred to getting help from administrators or school counselors for behaviour problems of the students. Below participant 5 explains her verbal interventionist strategies, while participant 7 mentions the preventive ones:

ST5: I try to avoid direct warnings, I, by using their names try to discourage them from being disruptive.... I sometimes ask questions about the task If it does not work, I start calling out their names and warning them using such phrases as "Would you sit down, please?" or "Could you be quiet?" (Interview at Time 1, p.16)

ST8: ...teachers should determine class rules by negotiating with the students. The common view about the accepted behaviours in class or unaccepted ones should be clarified, that is, students should all agree on these behaviours so that they could act accordingly later during the year. Interview at Time 1, p.31)

For the strategies using non-verbal intervention, participants reveal that they employed their *gestures* and *facial expressions*, such as *frowning*, *tapping* and/or *clapping*, *proximity*, *eye-contact*, and *changing seats*. Yet, sometimes they simply ignored the disruptive actions in their classes. Furthermore, they added they would *use interesting teaching materials* to keep the students on task. A *close friendly relationship* would also enable the students to respect the teacher and, thus, they would not create behavioural problems in class. Participant 4 exemplifies her non-verbal strategies to handle with misbehaviours. She also presents the behaviour management strategies along a continuum. Participant 7, on the other hand, mentions preventive actions, referring to building close relationships between students and teacher.

ST4: I try eye-contact and my gestures and facial expressions. I want them to realize what I mean by such actions. I use intonation, sometimes low, sometimes high.... If these do not work well, I have to say “be quiet!” I request them to be quiet but with a harsher tone of voice. I try to mention what I will deal with in class. (Interview at Time 1, p.12)

ST7: Teacher can organize the class. For example, s/he can develop strategies to communicate closely with the students. If s/he shows more interest in them, builds a reciprocal affection, students may be more participative. At least, they do not try to disrupt the instruction because they like their teacher. (Interview at Time 1, p.28)

Classroom management and instruction are interdependent in nature (Brophy, 1988). In successful classroom, students are usually on task and cannot find time to disrupt the instruction. The teacher is well aware of the potential power of effective planning and using interesting teaching materials. Table 4.5 above makes it clear that some of the participants realize this benefit and adopt it as a strategy for proactive disruptive behaviour management.

The terms used in the table above, then, may be defined as in the following way.

Interventionist strategies:

Deliberate nomination is “teacher asking the disruptive student to do an activity when s/he is misbehaving.” The teacher not only reveals student identity but also sends him/her the message that s/he has a control all around the room. Participant 5 illustrates her strategy use in the following extract.

ST4: I know it is a disturbing one but I usually nominate the misbehaving student. I know that s/he will be embarrassed when I reveal her identity to all class. Yet, I assume that s/he has already taken the risk and the responsibility of the consequences of his/her actions. (Interview at Time 1, p. 16)

Sermons are “giving lectures about problem behaviour and about an ideal classroom atmosphere.” The teacher stops the lesson deliberately to give this talk.

Breaking up the lesson would make the students aware of the severity of the disruptive behaviours they displayed in class. *Reprimand* differs from sermons in that “the teacher uses harsh and firm language.” Yet, the disruption lasts for a shorter time compared to duration of sermons.

Task assignment is “the teacher giving an extra task to the misbehaving student to make him busy so that s/he will not interfere with the instruction.” Participant 8 explains the functions of assigning a task to a hyperactive student in the following extract.

ST8: I tried to add him to my classes, I assigned him some extra tasks or tailored him new roles. Then, he felt involved and motivated. Thus, he didn’t disrupt the others’ concentration and my classes went on without trouble. (Interview at Time 1, p. 30)

Changing seats means that “positioning the student in an area in the class so that s/he cannot have contact with the others and disturb them.” A frequently used strategy is also demonstrated by participant 7.

ST7: After the fight I tried to separate two students and then made them sit apart. I made one of them sit in the front row so that I can control him more easily. (Interview at Time 1, p. 26)

Ignoring is a strategy in which “the teacher stays still and does not react to the misbehaving students”. There are two different functions of this strategy: (a) not allowing the student to disrupt the flow of instruction and (b) making the student give up attention seeking behaviours. In the following extract, participant 12 depicts them well enough.

ST12: I ignore them. They ask silly irrelevant questions. They seek attention and thus talk nonsense. I ignore their efforts, but at the same time, I satisfy them saying “let’s talk about these in the break time”, and thus delay the subject and prevent the disruption. (Interview at Time 1, p. 54)

Preventive strategies:

Setting the rules beforehand is mentioned as “the teacher (either by him/herself or with the students) making clear both the wanted or unwanted behaviours in class at the beginning of the academic year.” ST3 exemplifies the use of such strategy in the following way.

ST3: At the beginning of the academic term there may be a negotiation with students about class rules. Both the teacher and the students agree upon what is acceptable and what is not. This way, students would obey their rules. (Interview at Time 1, p.10)

Using interesting teaching materials may be defined as “trying to attract students’ attention with interesting materials.” The main goal is to keep students on task as long as possible, which would enable them to prevent from disrupting the instruction.

ST4: The activities may be boring or not appropriate to the levels of the students. If the teacher colors the classes and prepares different interesting activities, then students would not be bored. This means that they will cause less disruption. (Interview at Time 1, p. 13)

Having a mild, friendly relationship with the students is “having a close relationship with students so that they build a reciprocal understanding.” Participant 14 illustrates a *backbone teacher* model in Inner Discipline Model of Coloroso. In the following excerpt, he mentions the strategy referring to the role of the teacher.

ST14: During teaching, the teacher should be a brother/sister to his/her students. This way s/he establishes a reciprocal trust. Then, students participate more into the class activities. They wouldn’t have a strict teacher image in their minds. (Interview at Time 1, p. 59)

4.1.3.3 Findings from Observation and Stimulated Video Recalls

The observation at Time 1 was conducted in the participants' practicum schools between March and May 2005. Each participant was video recorded during only one class hour, which might be 40 or 45 minutes. The results were obtained during stimulated recall sessions for the purpose of discussing the teachers' interventionist strategies for dealing with disruptive behaviour.

Table 4.6 *Handling Strategies in Observation at Time 1*

Category	Strategy	Participant
Non-verbal	Gestures/facial expressions (frowning, tapping, holding own hand, clapping, touching the student, staring)	ST1, ST 5, ST11
	Ignoring	ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7, ST8, ST9, ST10, ST11, ST12, ST13, ST14
	Using proximity	ST2, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7, ST8, ST10, ST11, ST12, ST13, ST14
	Using eye-contact	ST4
	Changing seats	ST3, ST10
	Isolation	ST4, ST7
Verbal	Calling out	ST1, ST7, ST10, ST13, ST14
	Deliberate nomination	ST3, ST4, ST9, ST10, ST12
	Reminding of rules	ST2, ST7, ST14
	Using intonation	ST1, ST4, ST7, ST14
	Warning	ST1, ST2, ST3, ST6, ST7, ST 8, ST10, ST11, ST12, ST13

According to Table 4.6, participants used *gestures* and *facial expressions*, *proximity*, *eye-contact*, *changing seats* or *isolation* strategies for handling misbehaviours in their classrooms during their teaching. They also verbally *called the students' names out*, *deliberately nominated* the misbehaving students, *reminded such students of class rules*, *warned* and adjusted their *tone of voice* in accordance with the problems occurring. In the stimulated recall sessions, participants were mostly surprised

to see how they had performed in class. Their remarks were mostly that they had not noticed what their students were doing. This is why all the participants *ignored*, at least once, disruptive behaviours. The other employed strategies were using *proximity* and *warning*. Then, *calling out*, *deliberate nomination*, *intonation*, *reminding of rules*, *changing seats*, *isolation* and *eye-contact* come in a descending order in terms of frequency usage.

In the following excerpts, participant 7 mentions how she modeled her mentors in handling an off-task student. Participant 2 provides reasons for using proximity. Furthermore, she refers to her preference for warning disruptive students. Rather than warning in general she likes to employ calling out strategy as she did not like to be referred to as “you” when she was a student herself.

Researcher: Here, I see an off-task student (referring to the still image at 4' 25'' in the video record). He is listening to the music while you are teaching. You seem a little bit far away from him.

ST7: Because he usually is a disruptive one, all the teachers isolate him from the other students. I also do the same. It is better than to send him outside. (Stimulated recall for the Observation at Time 1, 10th May, 2005)

Researcher: We saw in your video that you usually walked around. Is there a specific reason for such behaviour?

ST2: First of all, I do walk around to see if the students are on task or not or if they have any problems with the activity. I check them and warn them if necessary. Approaching has a positive effect on keeping them on task. As I do not know their names, I cannot call them out. I never liked the teachers who called me “you”. I wanted my teachers to use my name. (Stimulated recall for the Observation at Time 1, 10th May, 2005)

4.2 Results of Induction Phase

This phase includes the term between September 2005 and June 2006, when the participants were appointed as English Language teachers to state schools and started to teach English full time. The researcher administered interviews, one in December 2005

(Time 2) and the other in May 2006 (Time 3), monitored observation sessions, one in December 2005 (Time 2), another one in February 2006 (Time 3) and the last one in May 2006 (Time 4), and read diaries (kept from December 2005 to May 2006) and answered the research questions 2 and 3. As mentioned previously, four participants attended this part of the study: ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14. When this phase started, participants were three-month-old teachers. The longitudinal data were based on these participants' performances and beliefs.

4.2.1 Definition of *Disruptive Behaviour*

During the transition phase the participants defined the term disruptive behaviour in interview question 2 in the following way:

ST2: Anything, any action that hinders their friends participating the lesson. (Interview at Time 1, p.5)

ST6: ...sometimes there is talking-out-of-turn, which may be OK if the remark is related to the topic, but if it *hinders* the others, to *disrupt* means to *break up* the concentration of the others participating in the course. That is, it *ruins* other student's sense of comfort in class, *disturbs* others. If it causes the other students to experience a problem Then it *interrupts* the flow of instruction. That is disruptive behaviour. (Interview at Time 1, p.19)

ST9: Disruption may be any behaviour *disorder* which *diverts* the students' interest in any way. (Interview at Time 1, p.33)

ST14: If a lesson being taught by a teacher and the flow of instruction or the students' concentration is diverted by irrelevant actions, such as throwing a pen to another student, then the lesson is disrupted. Such actions are called disruptive behaviours. To state in another way, it is an effort to disturb the instruction by engaging in irrelevant actions. (Interview at Time 1, pp. 58-59)

Participants focus on some key points while defining the term. For example, participant 2 and 6 focus on the action being a hindrance for others who try to contribute to the task. Participant 9, on the other hand, approaches such behaviours from another perspective. She mentions the diversion created with these disruptions. Participant 14's response suggests an effort to interfere with the instruction being given.

The interview at Time 2 was conducted in December 2005. The teachers were reminded of their previous definition and asked if they still defined the term similarly. All the participants stated that they still had the same definition for the term *disruptive behaviour*.

The interview at Time 3 was conducted in May 2006 in the same way. Participant 2, 6 and 9 maintained their original definitions. However, participant 14 responded in a different way, thus changing his definition. He put an emphasis on behaviours as being very aggressive. He also remarked that he is now accustomed to those behaviours that he exemplified as disruptive previously.

ST14: My previous definition does not exist anymore. Now, I am used to those behaviours that I exemplified as disruptive previously. For me now, it includes only the very aggressive behaviours which disrupt the mood of others. (Interview at Time 3, 19th May, 2006)

4.2.2 Disruptive Behaviour Examples

The disruptive behaviours that participants experienced were varied. During the transition phase they were interviewed and observed while teaching. During the induction phase they were interviewed and observed twice and also requested to keep a diary between December 2007 and May 2006. For a comparative analysis, we will present disruptive behaviours examples of both transition and induction phases.

4.2.2.1 Findings from Interview

Interview question 4 asked the participants to exemplify what kind of disruptive behaviours they had experienced so far. Table 4.7 presents the disruptive behaviour examples the participants experienced during the study (between February 2005 and May 2006): both verbal and non-verbal examples of disruptive behaviour. To be able to track the changes each participant experienced, we believe that a case by case analysis

would be helpful. Thus, the following table shows misbehaviour experiences of each participant from the interview at Time 1 to the end of the study (Time 1: May 2005; Time 2: December 2005; Time 3: May 2006).

Table 4.7 *Disruptive Behaviours faced by ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14 in the Longitudinal Process*

Interview at Time 1		Interview at Time 2		Interview at Time 3	
ST2					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Chatting	Out-of-seat	Chatting	Out-of-seat	Chatting	Out-of-seat
Irrelevant questions	Wandering	Irrelevant questions	Wandering	Irrelevant talk	Wandering
	Off-task beh.		Off-task beh.		
ST6					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Verbal aggression	Wandering	Verbal aggression	Wandering	Verbal aggr.	Wandering
Chatting		Talking-out-of-turn	Fighting	Talking-out-of-turn	Fighting
			Off-task beh.		Tardiness
					Off-task beh.
ST9					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Talking-out-of-turn	Wandering	Talking-out-of-turn	Wandering	Talking-out-of-turn	Wandering
Interrupting others	Off-task beh.	Chatting	Off-task beh.	Interrupting others	Off-task beh.
Shouting					
ST14					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Chatting	----	Bullying	Off-task beh.	Bullying	Off-task beh.
Shouting	----	Chatting		Chatting	
				Buzz	

During the transition phase, they had faced *chatting*, *shouting*, *interrupting others*, asking *irrelevant questions* or receiving *verbal aggression*. As for the non-verbal actions, they experienced *wandering*, *out-of seat* and *off-task behaviours* such as looking out of window (passive) or dealing with plastic bottles (active and creating noise). In Interview at Time 2, participants stated that they had experienced both verbal and non-verbal disruptive behaviours. *Chatting* and *off-task behaviours* have been most frequent ones. Participant 6 had the most aggressive behaviours examples in her classes such as *fighting* and *verbal aggression*. Participant 14, on the other hand, experienced *bullying* behaviour unlike the others. The other frequently named misbehaviours were *wandering* and *talking-out-of-turn*. The findings from interview at Time 3 are similar to Time 2 and 3. They had experienced misbehaviours in two categories: verbal and non-

verbal. *Off-task behaviours* continued to be the most dominant ones in participants' classes. *Chatting* and *wandering* misbehaviours had the highest level of occurrences. The disruptive acts of *buzz* and *interrupting others* emerged in this period of interviewing.

Participant 2 experienced *chatting*, *off-task*, *wandering* and *out-of-seat* misbehaviours constantly in her classes. She also suffered from irrelevancy, either in the format of questions or answers. She reported that she was bothered with *off-task behaviours* in interviews at Time 1 and 2.

Participant 6 has a different profile than participant 2. She had experienced fewer disruptions at the beginning: *verbal aggression*, *chatting* and *wandering*. Yet, in the following months when she started to teach as a full-time English language teacher she was faced with more types of unwanted behaviours: *talking-out-of-turn*, *fighting* and/or *off-task behaviours*. During the third interview she mentioned her experience related to *tardiness*. Unlike participant 2, participant 6 had to confront more aggressive disruptions, such as *fighting* and/or *verbal aggressions* from the very beginning of her career.

Participant 9 had to cope with similar disruptive behaviours during her career. During the first interview, she informed the researcher that she had experienced *talking-out-of-turn*, *interrupting others*, *shouting*, *wandering* and *off-task* misbehaviours. She also mentioned that she faced those behaviours in her classes during the second and third interview. Only *shouting* behaviour in interview 1 turned into *chatting* misbehaviour when she started to work full-time.

Participant 14 had a different record of misbehaviour experiences in his classes. He had only witnessed verbal disruptions (*chatting* and *shouting*) during his practice teaching. On the other hand, when he started to work full-time, he stated that he encountered *bullying* and *off-task behaviour* additionally. In the interview at Time 3, he also mentioned a new emergent disruption: *buzz*.

4.2.2.2 Findings from Observation and Stimulated Video Recalls

The participants were observed on videotape and by the researcher present in the classroom while they were teaching. Ten teaching hours of video records were collected of four participants who attended the entire study from the beginning to the end: One class hour during the transition phase (Observation at Time 1) and nine class hours during induction phase (Observation at Time 2, 3 and 4). The researcher preferred to conduct the observations to stay with the participants during the video recordings for the familiarization with the context. The video records, then, were analyzed by the researcher first and then with the participants. The findings from tapes included samples of disruptive behaviours and the teachers' handling strategies. The disruptive behaviours that occurred at Time 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively, are listed in the following table.

Table 4.8 *Disruptive Behaviours faced by ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14 in the Longitudinal Process*

Observ.at Time1		Observ.at Time 2		Observ.at Time 3		Observ.at Time 4	
ST2							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Tardiness	Buzz	---
Chatting		Chatting		Chatting		Chatting	---
Wandering		Wandering		Wandering		Talking-out-of-turn	---
Talking-out-of-turn		Talking-out-of-turn		Talking-out-of-turn			
ST6							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Off-task beh.
Chatting	Wandering	Chatting	Tardiness	Chatting	Wandering	Chatting	Wandering
Talking-out-of-turn		Talking-out-of-turn	Wandering	Talking-out-of-turn	Fighting	Talking-out-of-turn	Irrelevant quest.s
		Irrelevant questions					
ST9							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Chatting	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Out-of-seat	Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Off-task beh.
Talking-out-of-turn		Chatting	Tardiness	Chatting		Chatting	Wandering
		Talking-out-of-turn	Wandering	Talking-out-of-turn		Talking-out-of-turn	
ST14							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	Off-task beh.	Buzz	---	Buzz	Fighting
Chatting		Chatting		Chatting	---	Irrelevant questions	---
Talking-out-of-turn		Irrelevant answer		Talking-out-of-turn	---	Talking-out-of-turn	---

The researcher analyzed the video records with the participants and observed *chatting* and *talk-out-of-turn* disruptive behaviour in all classes. Three out of four participants also experienced *buzz* in their classes. As for the non-verbal disruptive behaviours, the participants experienced only off-task behaviours. In the excerpt below, Participant 2 states such actions in her stimulated video session. *Chewing gum, dozing off, or talking on the mobile* have been some of the examples of similar *off-task* actions.

ST2: I did not notice these wandering students because I had my back to them as I was writing something on the board.... I never see the details: Look at this student talking on his mobile in the classroom!!! Another one is sleeping. Ahhh, (pointing to another student), she is chewing gum. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 1, May 10, 2005)

Observation at Time 2 in induction phase was conducted after the participants were appointed as full-time teachers by the Ministry of Education in September 2005. They were contacted and the official letters were written to get permission from the local offices of the Ministry where the participants work. Following this, observation (three class hours) at Time 2 in December, 2006 was conducted.

The classroom culture in each situation was observably different, but each participant had similar behaviour problems and similar ways of handling them. *Chatting* and *buzz* were the ones which all participants experienced at least once in their sessions. *Talking-out-of-turn, off-task behaviour* and *wandering* disruptions were the second most common misbehaviour examples. *Tardiness, irrelevant questions* or *irrelevant answers* were also among the disruptive behaviours students displayed during observation at Time 2.

Observation at Time 3 in induction phase was conducted two months after the Observation at Time 2. Since the researcher was now familiar with the schools, data collection became more practical. Each participant was observed for three more class hours in February 2006, just after they started the spring semester. In table 4.8, the examples of disruptive behaviours participants faced during the Observation at Time 3 have been synthesized.

The participants clearly suffered from *chatting* misbehaviour mostly as well as *buzzes* and *talking-out-of-turns* in their class. All the participants referred to the *chatting* behaviour as one of the most common in their sessions of stimulated recall discussion.

While looking at the excerpts, participant 2 described the unwanted behaviour with the word *noisy*, while the other participants utilized the verb *talking* for such misbehaviour. Non-verbally, *off-task* and *wandering* behaviours, then, bothered the participants while they were teaching. *Fighting* and *tardiness* disruptive behaviours also were observed.

ST2: My classroom is usually very noisy while I am presenting the lesson.... All the other teachers have problems with these students because of their unwanted behaviours. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 3, Feb 17, 2006)

Observation at Time 4 in induction phase was conducted nearly three months after the Observation at Time 3. It was close to the end of the term when the last video recording sessions were conducted. The participants, their students, and the school staff and the administrators already were well-informed about what we were doing in their schools by then. Therefore, it was easy to collect data: video records and stimulated recalls. *Talking-out of turn* and *buzz* were observed to be the most common misbehaviours during Observation at Time 4. *Chatting*, *wandering*, *off-task behaviours*, and *irrelevant questions* followed those in terms of occurrence frequency. *Fighting* as a disruptive act was the rarest one. Participants were well aware of the potentially misbehaving students. Participant 2 gave the name of the student and used the word *again* to indicate that he regularly misbehaved. Participant 14, on the other hand, described such students as *certain* ones. Participant 9 referred to both the positive and negative sides of her classes in terms of disruptive actions. She found it logical for students to misbehave when they were bored. Moreover, she also happily directed attention to her excited students when they talked out of turn.

ST2: X again talks with another student. I try to control him by approaching.... When I give time for activities, they start talking and the whole class turns into a bee hive. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 4, May 12, 2006)

ST9: Sometimes they get bored and they start to be off-task or chatting. Then, suddenly I notice the whole class is buzzing.... This group is highly excited about my classes, and they are eager to talk. They

sometimes forget that they should be recognized by the teacher before they start to answer. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 4, May 11, 2006)

ST14: Some certain students are highly noisy.... I deliberately ignore the irrelevant questions because as long as I answer they go on asking.... I punished two fighting students by assigning a writing task.... I reminded them of the rule for raising their hands and then waiting silently to be recognized. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 4, May 12, 2006)

A cross-case analysis will be useful to understand what each participant faced during each observation time. Participant 2 experienced experienced *buzz*, *chatting* and *talking-out-of-turn* disruptions all the time throughout the study. The second most confronted misbehaviours were *wandering* and *off-task behaviours*. Participant 2 also experienced *tardiness* during observation at Time 3. In the last observation no non-verbal misbehaviour in participant 2's classes was detected. Furthermore, the least number of misbehaviours in her classes were perceived in the last observation session.

Participant 6 suffered from verbal behaviours including *chatting*, *buzz*, *talking-out of turn*, and non-verbal including *wandering* and *off-task behaviours*. Less frequently, she experienced unwanted behaviours of *tardiness* and *irrelevant questions*. The greatest number of misbehaviours occurred during observation at Time 2 and 4, the least at Time 1 and 3.

For participant 9, *chatting* and *talking-out of turn* were the most frequent verbal misbehaviours. She, also, had to deal with *buzz*, *wandering* and *off-task behaviours*. Less frequently, she had faced *out-of-seat* and *tardiness* behaviour. Although participant 9 experienced the least number of misbehaviours during observation at Time 1, she had the most disruptions during observation at Time 2.

Participant 14 most often experienced *buzz* and *chatting* disruptions. He also endured *out-of-turn* talking and *wandering* students in his classrooms. Rarely, he was faced with *tardiness* and *out-of-seat*. As can be seen in Table 4.8 above, participant 14 had no non-verbal disruptions during observation at Time 3. However, he dealt with four different types of unwanted behaviours during the rest of the observations.

4.2.2.3 Findings from Diary

Four participants in induction phase were asked to keep a diary for the disruptive behaviours they encountered from December 2005 to the end of May 2006, a period of about 6 months. They not only mentioned the misbehaviours, but also referred to their own handling strategies. They were asked to elaborate on each case and write down the results. Furthermore, they were requested to reflect on each case holistically from their own professional perspective. What they learned, what changes (if necessary) they would make were also to be focal points of the reflective diary. The following table reveals the examples of misbehaviours they experienced and reported on in their diaries. Participants elaborated on many instances of disruptive behaviours they faced. They encountered both verbal and non-verbal misbehaviours. Their experiences involved both mild disturbances (*chatting, talking-out-of-turn* and *wandering*) and aggressive ones (*verbal aggression, shouting, bullying* and *fighting*). They were confronted with *off-task behaviours*, such as eating in classrooms, and *taking-out-of-turn* as well as *wandering* and *buzz* actions. In the diaries, the teachers frequently gave names to identify clearly some students as being highly disruptive in their classes.

Table 4.9 *Disruptive Behaviour Examples of ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14 in Diary*

Participant	Category	Disruptive Behaviour	Extract
ST2	Verbal Non-verbal	Chatting Wandering	“X was talking and walking in the room. Because he doesn’t know how to read or write whatever I do doesn’t attract his attention.” Diary entry, April 2006, case 4
ST6	Verbal Non-verbal	Chatting Talking-out-of-turn Buzz Shouting Verbal aggression Out-of-seat Wandering Off-task behaviour Authority defiance	“One part of the class was trying extraordinarily hard to hear what I was explaining; the other part was like totally out of their minds. The male students were chatting, wandering, and shouting at each other.... Additionally X was producing a weird sound” Diary entry, March, 2006, case 10 “This time they moved to the back row, shouting, talking, and they did not let me instruct in a peaceful atmosphere....They even started to eat chocolate.” Diary entry, February, 2006, case 6
ST9	Verbal Non-verbal	Talking-out-of-turn Chatting Verbal aggression Bullying Off-task behaviour Fight	“Today one of the students made fun of his friends in the classroom. She was very embarrassed, and she got very nervous and she shouted at him. Then, a quarrel started.” Diary entry, February, 2006, case 5
ST14	Verbal Non-verbal	Verbal aggression Bullying Talking-out-of-turn Out-of-seat Wandering	“They had a row with one another during break time. They accused one another of stealing another student’s pencil (it is the common reason for verbal aggression). It, then, turned into a kind of verbal aggression and as usual afterwards, a kind of smear campaign.” Diary entry, January, 2006, case 1

4.2.3 Handling strategies

The data for the handling strategies for induction phase were collected through interviews (at Time 2 and 3), observations (at Time 2, 3, and 4) and reflective diaries. The data we obtained from four participants (ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14) who participated in induction phase showed that they have two main categories of handling strategies: prevention and intervention. Preventive strategies are used by the teacher when preparing the classroom atmosphere in such a way that the potential sources for misbehaviours are eliminated. On the other hand, intervention takes place after the disrupting action occurs.

4.2.3.1 Findings from Interview

Interviews were conducted three times: April 2005, December 2005, and May 2006. Participants used both verbal and non-verbal strategies at interview at Time 1. They mostly employed *warning* as verbal strategies and *gestures/facial expressions*, *ignoring* as non-verbal strategies. Additionally, they, for verbal strategies, used *intonation*, *calling out*, *meetings*, and *reminding of rules*. For the non-verbal strategies, they utilized *physical contact* as in Behaviourism Model and *proximity*.

Compared to the first interview, they reported that they employed more and varied strategies at Time 2. They started to try out the new strategies that they had not utilized beforehand. For example, using *reinforcements* from Behaviour Modification Model (positive or negative) had become a usual way of dealing with misbehaviours. Participants mentioned scoring the students for their bad or good deeds either with marks or with symbols such as ‘+’ or ‘-’. As well as reinforcements, participants seemed to be employing *warning*, *gestures/facial expressions* and *ignoring* strategies as in the previous interview. They also used *intonation*, *isolation*, *deliberate nomination*, *changing seats*, *calling out*, *meetings* and *back ups*. They sometimes *assigned a task*, *used proximity*, *nominated the model behaviour* or repeated the *rules* to the disruptive students. The following extracts show how each participant commented on their own reinforcement style.

ST2: Ignoring misbehaviours worked a lot....I sent them to the principal’s office. Also I organized a row of desks for isolation. It only lasted 2 weeks, though. Similarly, I gave them ‘+’ for good behaviours ‘-’ for unwanted ones. It also worked for a short time only. Eye-contact works very well. They do understand from my posture as well. I stare at them and stop talking. I also cross my arms tightly. One-to-one talks produced the best result. I explain to them the rules in such meetings. (Int at Time 2, Dec 15, 2005)

ST14: I threaten them with giving low marks but it doesn’t work well. I sometimes have students change their seats. I ignore them and give the turn to speak to the ones who behave themselves....I directly warn them, sometimes. (Int at Time 2, Dec 15, 2005)

In addition to the strategies used by the participants, they mentioned some changes they made in strategies used for disruptive actions in their classes. For example, participant 2 stopped using negative *reinforcements*. She noticed the importance of using their names more, and she frequently mentioned *calling out* as an important strategy. She also discovered that the preventive measures were more important than interventionist strategies. In line with professional talks with the school inspector, she decided to pace the teaching of language components more slowly and tried to give students more exercises. Similarly, participant 14 described the result of using especially more *interesting materials* rather than dealing with students after they had misbehaved. He also put emphasis on using a language laboratory to keep the students on task and reduce potential disruptions. Participant 9, as well as participant 6, agreed with them and pointed out that interesting instructional material enhances the students' participation. She mentioned the benefit of using songs in her classes to make them more enjoyable so that the students were not distracted. The most strategies in number were employed by participant 6, while participant 14 employed only three. At the end of the study, the participants seemed to have more knowledge of how to control disruptions before they occur and to employ various and more strategies to interfere with misbehaviours.

Table 4.10 *Handling Strategies of ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14 in the Longitudinal Process*

Interview at Time 1		Interview at Time 2		Interview at Time 3	
ST2					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Warning	Gesture/facial expr.s	Assigning a task	Warning	Assigning a task	Ignoring
	Ignoring	Reinforcement	Isolation	Calling out	Gesture/ facial expr.s
		Meetings	Gesture/facial expr.s		
		Reminding of rules	Ignoring		<u>Preventive</u>
		Back-up		Interesting materials	
				Slower pace	
				Extra activities	
ST6					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Using intonation	Physical contact	Using inton.	Gesture/facial expr.s	Using inton.	Gesture/facial expr.s
Calling out	Using prox.	Warning	Nom. the model beh.	Sermons	Nom. the model beh.
Warning		Reinforcement	Using prox.	Warning	Using prox.
				Assigning a task	
				Hushing	
				Reinforcement	
					<u>Preventive</u>
				Interesting teaching material	
ST9					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Calling out	Gesture/facial expr.s	Using inton.	Gesture/facial expr.s	Warning	Using prox.
Warning		Warning	Nom. the model beh.	Deliberate nom.	Ignoring
Meetings		Reinforcement	Using prox.	Hushing	Gesture/facial expr.s
Reminding of rules					
					<u>Preventive</u>
				Interesting teaching material	
				Extra activities	
ST14					
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Using inton.	Ignoring	Reinforcement	Changing seat	Reinforcement	----
	Gesture/facial expr.s	Warning	Ignoring		
		Deliberate nom.			<u>Preventive</u>
				Interesting teaching material	
				Extra activities	

Table 4.10 shows that participant 2 developed multi-numbered strategies throughout the study. She, at first, used only a few strategies to handle with disruptions whereas she started to diversify by Time 2, when she started to work as a full-time teacher. The Interview at Time 3 indicated that she had begun to use proactive measures to stop the numbers of disruptive behaviours in her classes. She benefited from *ignoring* and *gesture/facial expressions*, such as *eye-contact* or *staring* through all the time. She also employed *ignoring* at Time 1, *assigning a task*, *reinforcement*, *meetings*, *reminding*

of rules, back-up and *isolation* (from Behaviour Modification Model) at Time 2. She started to realize the benefits of proactive measures, such as using *interesting teaching materials, extra activities* and teaching at a *slower pace*. Participant's use of *ignoring* may be interpreted in line with the research findings which indicate teachers have a tendency to deal only with the students causing the greater disturbances (Papatheodorou, 2000).

It is revealed in the table of the previous page that participant 6 employed an increasing number of handling strategies. She used five at Time 1, six at Time 2 and ten handling strategies at Time 3. Similar to participant 2, she, by the end of the study, also noticed the benefits of using interesting teaching materials to keep the students on task and to reduce the amount of time she had to deal with disruptions. She benefited from *intonation, warning* and *using proximity* throughout the study. On the other hand, she also controlled misbehaving students with *physical contact* and *calling out* at Time 1, *reinforcement, gesture/facial expressions, reinforcement* and *nominating the model behaviour* at Time 2, and finally *sermons, hushing, and assigning a task* at Time 3.

According to Table 4.10, participant 9 follows a similar increasing trend of strategies as participant 6. She benefited from utilizing *warning* and *gesture/facial expressions* throughout the study. She, too, realized that preventive actions, such as using *interesting teaching materials* and giving *extra activities*, make students involved more and keep them at a reasonable classroom behaviour scale. She tried to develop her strategy archive at each interview time. While she was adopting *meeting* and *reminding of rules* at Time 1, she changed her strategies to *reinforcement, using intonation, using proximity* and *nominating the model behaviour* at Time 2. At time 3, on the other hand, she applied *deliberate nomination* and *hushing* in her classes.

Participant 14 followed a very different trend from the rest of the participants. He had a very few strategies at Time 1: *using intonation, ignoring* and *gesture/facial expressions*. This may be due to the characteristics of the students at his practice teaching school during transition phase. Then, when he started to work as a full-time English Language teacher, he enlarged his strategy bank and started to benefit from *reinforcement, warning, deliberate nomination* and *changing seats* at Time 2. It may be because his previous strategies did not solve the new behaviour problems he encountered. Moreover, he reported, at Time 3, having developed some more preventive actions, such as use of *interesting materials* and *extra activities* to keep the students' attention spans high.

4.2.3.2 Findings from Observation and Stimulated Video Recalls

Observations conducted through a video camera enabled the participants and the researcher to reflect upon the practices more objectively. Many times participants referred to the benefits of watching themselves teach. In the stimulated recall sessions, they felt as if they were watching some other person instead of themselves; the others specified the parts they had not noticed during acting. From the researcher's perspective, employing such a strategy for observational purposes allowed watching and re-watching the records to combine this interpretation with other data collection instruments.

The strategies participants employed at the beginning of the study, at Time 1, were both verbal and non-verbal interventionist strategies. It was observed that *ignoring* was one of the mostly beneficial strategies. *Using proximity* and *deliberate nomination* followed in terms of usage frequency. Later, *warning* and *meeting* are other tactics they used. *Warning* and *meeting* are such strategies that they require confrontation with the student directly. It seems logical for the participants to delay employing these strategies until they learn more about their learners.

The handling strategies the participants used at Time 2, also included verbal and non-verbal interventions. Clearly, they enlarged their strategy banks in terms of number of employed strategies. Participant 2 used seven; participant 6, nine; participant 9, seven; and participant 14, eight strategies. Each participant used more verbal strategies than non-verbal ones, except participant 14. He, on the other hand, had a balance between non-verbal and verbal. He controlled his students with *physical contact*, *gesture/facial expressions*, *using proximity* and *changing seats*, as well as *ignoring* some students' irrelevant actions or questions. Participant 2 and 6 preferred *gesture/facial expressions* and *using proximity*. Participant 9 only employed *gesture/facial expressions*. Participant 14 seemed to use different techniques than the others while reflecting on the disturbances in his classes. In contrast, the other participants were more verbal and they employed *warning*, *hushing*, *deliberate nomination*, *nominating the model behaviour*, *calling out*, using *intonation* and *reprimand*.

Participants dealt with the disruptive behaviours in their classes under two categories: verbal and non-verbal at Time 3. The observations and stimulated talks were conducted in February just after the spring term had started. Similar to observation at

Time 2, they seemed to be utilizing as many strategies as they could. They also reasoned why and when they apply those strategies. (See the excerpt of participant 9 and 14 for *intonation* below). They all benefited from *hushing*, *warning*, *using intonation*, and *calling out* as verbal strategies, and *using proximity* and, *gesture/facial expressions* as non-verbal ones. They kept on *ignoring* some students' actions so as not to depart from the focus of teaching or not to give any recognition to the ones who demanded of attention. Apart from these strategies, participant 6 adopted *reprimands* and *reminding of rules*, participant 9 *nominating the model behaviour*, and participant 14 *physical contacts*.

ST9: This student likes to attract my attention and I always warn him... I have to use a loud voice for this group because it is an active noisy group.... When I am angry, I stare at them.... I raise my hand when they start to be noisy... I frequently do this (referring to *deliberate nomination*). This way the student realizes s/he is doing something wrong and reflects on it. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 3, Feb 22, 2006)

ST14: I usually am very active in my classes to control the students so that they cannot misbehave.... I use warning as a last alternative. I usually prefer to deal with students before they are disruptive.... Buzz is an inevitable part of my class, and I know I have to use a loud voice well to control the instructions.... I frequently call my students out. The confrontation prevents them from acting worse. (St. Recall for Observ. at Time 3, Feb 17, 2006)

The final observations and stimulated recall talks in May 2006 gave the researcher a picture of how participants used different strategies. Except for participant 6, the others put the emphasis on verbal strategies. As for verbal strategies, participant 2 used *hushing*, *calling out*, *using intonation* and *meeting*. Participant 6 benefited from *reprimand* and *confronting*, as well as *hushing*. Participant 9 used *warning* along with *hushing*, *calling out* and *using intonation*. Participant 14 utilized very different verbal strategies from the rest of the participant such as *assigning a task* (from Punishment Model), *reminding of rules* and *reinforcement*. For non-verbal handling tactics, they all employed *using proximity*. Besides this, participant 2 preferred *changing seats*, while

participant 6, *ignoring* and *gesture/facial expressions*. Moreover, participant 9 employed *gesture/facial expressions* and *using proximity*, as did the other participants. Participant 14 favoured *ignoring* and *using proximity*. This may be due to the participant's personality as far as observed he is a quiet person, not much keen on talking.

Table 4.11 *Handling Strategies of ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14 in the Longitudinal Process*

Observ.at Time1		Observ.at Time 2		Observ.at Time 3		Observ.at Time 4	
ST2							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Warning	Using proximity	Hushing	Gesture/facial	Hushing	Gesture/facial	Hushing	Using prox.
	Ignoring	Warning	expr.s	Warning	expr.s	Calling out	Changing seats
	Gesture/facial	Using inton.	Using prox.	Calling out	Using prox.	Using inton.	
	expr.s		Ignoring	Using inton.		Meeting	
ST6							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Meeting	Using prox.	Hushing	Using prox.	Hushing	Using prox.	Hushing	Changing seats
	Ignoring	Warning	Physical contact	Warning	Ignoring	Reprim.	Using prox.
		Calling out	Ignoring	Calling out	Gesture/facial	Confronting	Ignoring
		Using inton.	Gesture/facial	Reminding of rules	expr.s	Gesture/facial	expr.s
			expr.s	Reprimand			
				Using inton.			
ST9							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Deliberate nom.	Ignoring	Warning	Using prox.	Hushing	Gesture/facial	Hushing	Gesture/facial
		Using inton.	Ignoring	Warning	expr.s	Warning	expr.s
		Calling out	Gesture/facial	Using inton.	Ignoring	Using inton.	Using prox.
			expr.s	Calling out		Calling out	
				Nom. the model			
				behaviour			
ST14							
<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Non-verbal</u>
Warning	Ignoring	Warning	Gesture/facial	Hushing	Physical contact	Ass.a task	Using prox.
Deliberate nom.	Using prox.	Calling out	expr.s	Calling out	Using prox.	Reminding of rules	
Reminding of rules		Reminding of rules		Deliberate nom.	Gesture/	Reinforcement	Ignoring
		Assigning a task		Using inton.	facial		
		Hushing	Using prox.		expr.s		
		Reinforcement					
		Using inton.					

Table 4.11 displays longitudinal process of participants' handling strategies. According to the table, participant 2 started with four strategies and by the time she was teaching she had enlarged her strategy repertoire. She always benefited from *using proximity* to

keep students on task and even more from *ignoring* irrelevant behaviours or *warning* for disruptions. She, moreover, applied *hushing*, *calling out*, private *meeting*, and *using intonation* as verbal tactics, and *gesture/facial expressions* and *changing seats* as non-verbal ones.

Participant 6, similar to participant 2, started with a few strategies as is clear from Table 4.11. Yet, in the following months, when she started as a full-time teacher, she highly enlarged her application scale. At the beginning, she was observed as only utilizing *meetings* for verbal strategies, and *using proximity* and *ignoring* for non-verbal ones during teaching. Later at Time 2, she was witnessed employing *hushing*, *calling out*, *warning*, and *using intonation* for verbal, and *gesture/facial expressions*, *physical contact* as well as *ignoring* and *using proximity* for non-verbal ones. She continued using those strategies; furthermore, she added *reminding of rules* and *reprimand* to her verbal strategy repertoire, while excluding *physical contact* at Time 3. At time 4, she preferred *changing seats* and *confronting* with the disruptive students rather than using *calling out* or *using intonation*.

Participant 9, in Table 4.11, started with one verbal (*deliberate nomination*) and one non-verbal (*ignoring*) strategy in her teaching. She commenced employing more tactics as she started to work full time in September 2005. During December 2005, at Time 2 she was observed to be utilizing *warning*, *using intonation*, *calling out*, *using proximity*, *ignoring*, and *gesture/facial expressions*. When she was monitored for the third time in February 2006, she applied more verbal tactics than non-verbal ones. While she added *hushing* and *nominating the model behaviour* to her verbal strategy catalogue, she continued benefiting from *gesture/facial expressions* and *ignoring* misbehaviours. In the end of induction phase, she applied *hushing*, *warning*, *using intonation*, *calling out*, *gesture/facial expressions*, and *using proximity* to stop disruptions in her classes.

During the longitudinal process, participant 14 added many verbal and non-verbal strategies to his misbehaviour handling repertoire. He began his career by employing *warning*, *deliberate nomination* and *reminding of rules* as verbal ones, and *ignoring* and *using proximity* as non-verbal ones. Later in the second observations, researcher witnessed him adding *calling out*, *assigning a task*, *using intonation*, *hushing*, *reinforcement*, *gesture/facial expressions* to his index of handling strategies. At Time 3, he continued adding new tactics to his repertoire, and he tried *changing seats* and *physical contact* with the improperly behaving students. At Time 4, he

excluded many of his formerly applied strategies and he used only *assigning a task*, *reminding of rules*, *reinforcement*, *using proximity* and *ignoring*.

4.2.3.3 Findings from Diary

The participants were requested to keep a diary from the first meeting in induction phase through the end of the study: December 2005- May 2006, a period of approximately six months. According to the guidelines provided (see Appendix VI), participants were supposed to note down the cases of disruptive behaviours they experienced in their classes. They had to mention their handling strategies and also to reflect on the solutions of the events and their professional opinions of them. Table 4.12 displays each participant's handling strategies during these six months.

According to the table, the participants employed both verbal and non-verbal strategies. From the excerpts, the researcher deduced that they had highly different experiences. While participant 2 explained her handling with a non-stop talking student, participant 6 mentions her tricky *reinforcement* system. On the other hand, participant 9 described how she benefited from the help of the school manager as a *back-up* system for a very aggressive student. Finally, participant 14 explained how he tried to establish a 'finger rule' utilizing a *ripple effect* in his class. All the participants used *gesture/facial expressions* and *ignoring* tactics. They often used *intonation*, *changing seats* and *calling out* strategies as well. From the holistic perspective, they applied *deliberate nomination*, *private meeting*, *warning*, *reinforcement*, *physical contact*, *sermons*, and *reminding of rules* strategies. The use of *reprimand*, *sermons*, and *ripple effect* may be categorized as the rarest strategies exercised by the participants throughout the study.

Table 4.12 *Handling Strategies of ST2, ST6, ST9, and ST14 in Diary*

Participant	Category	Handling Strategy	Extract
ST2	Verbal	Calling out Warning Deliberate nomination Meeting	“Today while we were reading the dialogue aloud in class, X was talking to his friends all the time. I warned him ‘X!!! Don’t talk!’ Later he continued, but instead of shouting at him, I slowly approached him and stayed there and kept on instructing.” Diary entry, April 2006, case 3
	Non-verbal	Gesture/facial expressions Changing seats Ignoring	
ST6	Verbal	Using intonation Sermon Meeting Reinforcement Back-up	“I also remembered a tactic I’ve heard about before. I announced to them that they have 100 points for their oral performance unless they do not disrupt. I told them that each misbehaviour will bring them minus 10 points. Thus, they would determine their performance, not me.” Diary entry, March, 2006, case 102
	Non-verbal	Physical contact Ignoring Gesture/Facial expressions	
ST9	Verbal	Calling out Using intonation Back-up Warning Reminding of rules	“I said ‘X’ what are you doing? You are in a classroom! There is a teacher in the classroom!’ he looked at me and said ‘Teacher I am very angry, I will kill him!’ I said ‘Stop! Stop! Otherwise I’ll send you to the principal’s room.’ Then I sent him to the principal’s room.” Diary entry, February, 2006, case 2
	Non-verbal	Ignoring	
ST14	Verbal	Calling out Reinforcement Using intonation Ripple effect Reminding of rules	“I developed a kind of strategy to repel disruptive behaviours. I turned my back on the disruptive students and told them explicitly that I wanted to have a lesson with attentive and respectful students (I mean students that respect and listen to their friends’ opinions and obey the ‘finger rule’) students.” Diary entry, January, 2006, case 1
	Non-verbal	Ignoring Gesture/facial expressions Changing seats	

Interview question 4 asked the participants to exemplify what kind of disruptive behaviours they had experienced so far. Table 4.12 presents the disruptive behaviour examples the participants experienced during their practice teaching (February-May 2005): both verbal and non-verbal examples of disruptive behaviour.

4.3 Discussion of Findings

In this section, the findings from the data sources are discussed in line with the literature. First, the results are summarized, and then, the links between the research questions and those findings is dealt with. Last, reference to the relevant literature will be made to see whether the results of the present study comply with it or not.

4.3.1 Summary of Findings

This thesis aimed to determine how English language teachers regard disruptive behaviour and handle it. Some parts of the data were collected cross-sectionally and some longitudinally and analyzed accordingly.

The data were collected in two phases. Transition phase dealt with the data collected from 14 volunteer senior ELT department students. The term *student teacher* in the present study is preferred. The researcher described participant's definition of the term *disruptive behaviour* along with its various features. Moreover, each finding about types of disruptions participants experienced and how they reacted to those unwanted cases was examined through interviews, observations and a vignette task. Induction phase, however, is concerned with how English language teachers approach the misbehaviours when they start to work full-time and how they change professionally over time. Four of the previous 14 participants voluntarily accepted being data sources. Through follow-up interviews, observations and diary notes, the study has progressed in tracking down the changes of the participants' professional attitude about handling disruptive behaviours in their classes while they were working full-time.

4.3.1.1 Change in the Definition of *Disruptive Behaviour*

As mentioned before, the first outcome of transition phase was the description of the concept of disruptive behaviour by the participants. Thus, in line with this phase, the term has been revised and the features of it re-determined. On the basis of these findings, the term can be defined as:

Any student behaviour which distorts both interaction among students and the motivation of other students as well as teacher's attention and pace of instruction.

The definition above includes all the features the participant mentioned during the interview at Time 1: the destruction power of such behaviour, the hindrance in students' and teacher's motivation, the interruption in the flow of instruction. Experts or administrators in the field of education usually have defined the term similarly. However, when other definitions in the literature were analyzed, another dimension of the concept was discovered: *threatening* the atmosphere and/or *violating* the behaviour norms determined by the teacher/administrators/school community. Participants in the study seemed to ignore such a conception of the term. Rather, they considered only the classroom as a separate small unit from the larger contexts of community. Hence, they defined the term more narrowly in line with their concept of class and whatever happens in it as their own responsibility.

Moreover, if and how the participants change their definitions of this concept in induction phase was followed. When the four participants in the longitudinal process were analyzed, we observed that there had been no changes in understanding the concept through time, except for one of them. He changed his definition from a milder one to an aggressive one. He previously reported that he used to define the term to describe the actions of students as interrupting each other's learning. He also added that he was referring to mild acts such as *chatting* or *off-task behaviours*. However, he revised his definition, confessing that he got used to seeing so many mild misbehaviours in his classes that he started to think that he should change his definition of this concept. It seems that he had faced more aggressive behaviours during eight months he worked as a full time English teacher and the term disruptive behaviour for him was enlarged in scope. He, moreover, stated that the previous definition had no longer existed in his archive. Instead, he revised his sense of this term as including more aggressive behaviours and disrupting the moods of others. The change in participant 14 suggests that compared to the behaviour he has just had in induction phase, all of his previous experience in transition phase seemed mild. The behaviours he faced and was confronted with were so aggressive that his conception of aggression was extended to higher levels.

Thus, the conclusion is that the definition of such concepts depends on the experience one has. It may change by time or, vice versa, it may remain stable. However, sometimes one may change a definition for another as in the case here.

In the literature, the concept of change has been considered by many researchers such as Zeichner, Tabachnick and Densmore (1987), Kagan, (1992), Sendan (1995),

Tillema (1998), and Cabaroğlu (1999). Among these, Kagan (1992) and Zeichner, et. al. (1997) confirm that teacher usually do not change their beliefs when they are enrolled in a teacher education program. Sendan (1995), on the other hand, mentioned the limited conceptual change in the content of their beliefs. Tillema (1998) and Cabaroğlu (1999), not only positively announce that there is a change, but also focus on the process of this change with categories and labels. The following figure was adapted from Tillema (1998) by Cabaroğlu (1999).

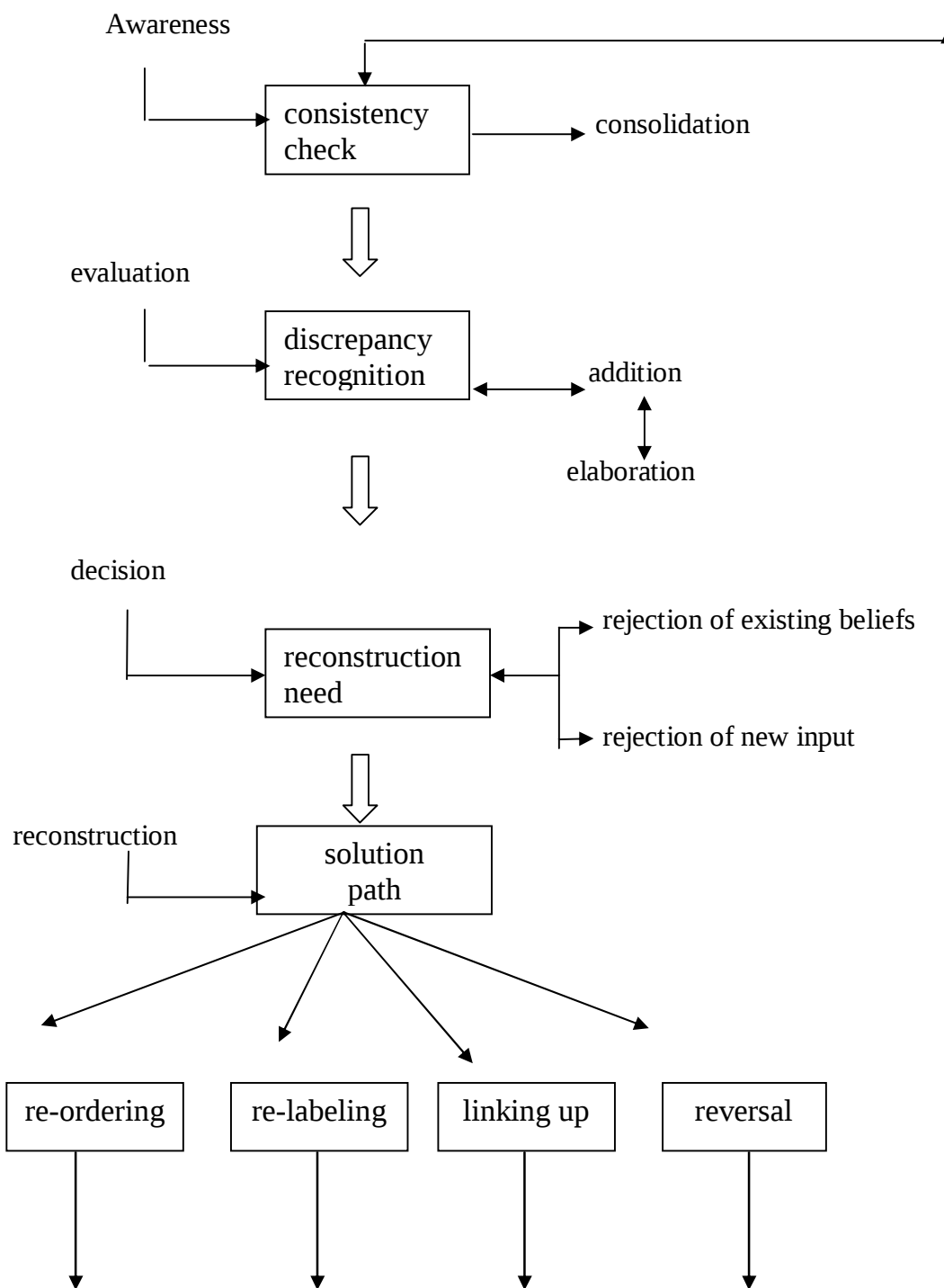


Figure 4.2. The overall process of belief change (Cabaroğlu, 1999, p. 277)

According to the model presented above, the teacher has an awareness of his/her concepts at the beginning of professional development. Later on with new experience, s/he checks the previous concept and if it solves the problem, then, the teacher continues with *consolidation*. That means the concept stays in place, and the teacher carries that concept in his/her construct system. If it does not solve the problem in question, either

the teacher adds a new concept to the previous one or elaborates on it. This *elaboration* may take some several forms: *re-ordering* (change in the order of beliefs to solve the problem), *re-labeling* (re-naming a concept), *linking up* (finding the connection between the old and the new ones) and *reversal* (going back to the old belief and adopting it once again). On the other hand, the teacher may reject the existing belief and adopt a new one to solve the problem in a more effective way.

In this study, for participant 14 the change of definition of the term *disruptive behaviour* may be named *elaboration*. He also passed through an *addition* process with his denial of milder misbehaviours as being non-disruptive, where a need to deal with more aggressive ones remained. He evaluated his previous experiences throughout the process, and he realized that the ones he faced before were usually milder disruptions which he could overcome in a short time. However, the newer undesired student behaviours became more aggressive in terms of frequency and density. Therefore, he enlarged his definition. Finally, he realized the urgency of dealing with more aggressive disruptive behaviours, so he changed his definition in tandem with this realization. This change was due to the teaching context that this participant was in. His students' display of aggressive behaviours in an increasing trend may have caused participant 14 change previous definition.

As for the other participants, the concept stayed stable. Each time they defined the term similarly. This act shows that they consolidated their existing beliefs with additional new experience.

4.3.1.2 Change in Handling Strategies

The participants in this study faced both verbal and non-verbal disruptive behaviours during transition and induction phases. In transition phase, 14 participants primarily faced *off-task* and *wandering* behaviours not only for non-verbal and *chatting* behaviour but also for verbal behaviour. Although they had not experienced high aggression levels, they were clearly stressed from and concerned about the frequency and the duration of the misbehaviors they did experience.

During their first experiences, the participants employed very few strategies and usually similar ones, such as *gesture/facial expressions*, *using proximity*, and *changing seats* as interventionist strategies. Their strategy choices are in line with Wolfgang's (2001) study with developmental stages in maintaining discipline in class. According to

his findings, the participants of the present study correspond to what he calls the Level I, Intuitive-Survival Teacher. At this level, teachers' main concern is to survive. Thus, they feel forced to follow harsh controlling methods although such methods do not fit their style. Furthermore, teachers take preventive actions which are not too harsh to get the defiance because agreement with students is needed. Yet, teachers are not well prepared for the "tacky" or "trashy" student behaviours (Kauffman, Mostert, Trent & Hallahan, 1998). Since the experience with a class of students is limited, the participants in induction phase are highly concerned about their survival. However, contradiction exists between this study and that of Wolfgang's. He asserts that teachers usually tend to select only one model of behaviour management or philosophy and learn to do it well. The data of this study, on the other hand, suggest that participants employ a variety of behaviour management strategies to deal with disruptions. Some preferred direct interventions (for example, ST2 and ST3) while others preferred indirect handling such as private meetings, or isolated confrontations (for example ST4 and ST9). Still, others preferred a mixture of both strategies. As an illustration, ST1 not only applied direct warning and calling out the names of misbehaving students but also utilized intonation to deal with the disruptions indirectly.

Although the participants did not verbalize it during Interview at Time 1, they were not well aware that they had ignored most of the disruptions in their classes during practice teaching. The video stimulated recall session for the Observation at Time 1 revealed that ignoring disruptions was dominant. However, in the later times, when they started to work as full-time teachers, they employed the same strategy consciously and could reason why they used a strategy for unwanted student behaviours.

Yet, the participants were aware, from the very beginning, of preventive strategies, such as utilizing interesting teaching materials and having a close relationship with their students. Primarily, participants were using interventionist strategies rather than preventive ones. The observations revealed they had dealt with the disruptions after they occurred. Moreover, they handled the misbehaviours both verbally and non-verbally. However, their preventive strategies were only non-verbal. Across relevant literature, Martin, Linfoot and Stephenson (1999) found that teachers often employ disapproval rather than praise in classrooms, which raises the possibility of more often applying interventionist strategies.

4.3.1.3 Change in Professional Practice

When longitudinally analyzed, the participants were seen to employ more and more strategies after they had started to work full-time. Winitzky, Kauchak and Kelly (1994) also support this idea by their findings that beginning teachers' beliefs are open to change in structural complexity one year after their training program completion. Apparently, they develop an ownership towards their profession and start to try as many strategies as possible. In the last interviews and observations of the participants of this study, they were seen as having established behaviour management strategies and decreased the number of the tactics they applied. The research findings on this shortening of the tactics explain this process as 'skill learning' (Winitzky & Kauchak, 1995). When teachers start acquiring a teaching skill, they verbalize it with many descriptive words. As time passes, they start to act on it, get feedback from students and revise their actions again: action-feedback-revision. Later, the procedure gets more and more stabilized, and teachers start to chunk their actions under some big umbrella terms. This is why they start to express their actions with fewer words. This might be the explanation of why participants had come up with fewer strategies in the final observations and interviews.

When analyzed one by one, participants were witnessed as having dominant characteristics in their handling styles. Table 4.13 is a summary of participant 2's handling strategies. She was mostly a meeting type. She usually preferred the private confrontations or meetings with her very dominant disruptive students. During our discussions about her preferred style of behaviour management, she mentioned many times how she built a reciprocal relation with them. She showed understanding for her students' misbehaving. She tried to focus on the reasons why her students disrupted her instruction. She attempted to motivate such students to learn English more easily in a more effective way. Previously in their research, Jones, May Ling and Charlton (1999) mention persuasion as a key to solve disruptions. Thus, they add, the teacher develops a comprehension and a consideration of the student's point of view.

During their professional life teachers need principles or standards to guide them in handling occupational problems. These standards are gained through personal development sessions (formal/informal, local/international seminars), reading appropriate literature and listening to experts (educators, psychologists, counselors, head teachers, inspectors, etc.) (Arbuckle & Little, 2004). For example, participant 2

had talks with the district school inspector on disruptive behaviour, and she learned that she could teach at a slower pace and do more exercises with her students. With this support in making changes, she could both keep the attention of her students and decrease the rate of disruptions. She also had a very calm but decisive attitude about misbehaviours. Mostly, she utilized body language. She would fix her eyes on and stay close to misbehaving students, and would maintain an imperative eye-contact with them. Of importance to her was keeping her students on task and hindering them from misbehaving. Her ability to draw pictures became beneficial. Thus, she could present pictures as very interesting teaching materials to her students. In return, the students began to have more fun in her classes and stay on task. In the end of the study, she commented about her efficacy:

ST2: At the beginning, it was like everyone was trying to push me into a corner. They were saying that “you do not beat them, so you cannot calm them down.” Now, I feel like I make progress in my own way. The biggest reason is the experience. It does not happen so quickly. I discover. I am reflective and analytical; I can analyze the situations better.... This study helped me a lot in developing professionally. I saw many times what the students were doing as soon as I turn my back in the videos you recorded. Therefore, I developed tactics. I involve them more and let them write on the board. From the very beginning, I had the chance to see myself through these video records.
(Interview at Time 3, May 19, 2006)

Table 4.13 *Handling Strategies of ST2 throughout the Study*

Interventionist	Verbal	Reminding of rules
		Warning
		Assigning a task
		Meetings
		Calling out
		Hushing
		Using intonation
		Deliberate nomination
	Non-verbal	Back-up
		Isolation
		Ignoring
		Changing seats
		Using proximity
Preventive	Non-verbal	Enabling the participation (motivation)
		Interesting teaching materials
		Slower pace
		Extra activities

Participant 6, on the other hand, had the most difficult students to cope with in terms of problem students. From the very beginning she had to deal with more aggressive students in her practice teaching during which she responded with *reprimand* when she faced *verbal aggression*. Later, when she started to teach she was placed in an urban school. The students were problematic in their families because of either low-socio economic background or ethnicity. The students did not believe English would be useful and were resistant, as Turkish was already a second language for them. Moreover, participant 6 stated that her students did not have an appropriate code of behaviour and lacked self-discipline. She witnessed *fights* and experienced *verbal attacks* directed towards her in her classes many times. This behaviour was verified by Altinel (2006), who found in her study that students from low-socio economic background tend to act more aggressively in classes. Shouting at friends, swearing, hitting, and kicking are frequent in such schools. She lost faith in managing such behaviours with a mild manner and was desperate. In our first talk after she had

commenced to teaching full-time, she mentioned having a hard time managing disruptions. She felt badly because she believed she could not be a good teacher due to the high rate of disruptions in her class. One observation revealed that she could only teach ten minutes out of 40 minutes of class time because she had to deal with so many misbehaviours. However, she never lost her motivation or courage to deal with her students. If she were to be identified with a unique style, it could be called as a large-tactic-archive one, which is clear from Table 4.14 in terms of the numbers of strategies she employed during this study while trying to calm her students during her classes. Of the participants, she was the only one who tried to lecture to the students about proper behaviour. Since she found her students lacking social ethics of social life, she stated that she had to teach them how to behave themselves before teaching English. She also would use school administrators as a back-up. Yet, she did not prefer to employ this strategy often. She solved the problems on her own. In addition, she had professional talks with her mother, who was a retired primary school teacher and who had also worked at the same school before she had retired. Participant 6 verbalized her professional progress throughout this study as follows:

ST6: At the beginning, I was softer. I got tougher and tougher. I started to use harsher words (reprimands/sermons) because the disruptive behaviours I was faced with were so severe and of a quantity that I had never met before. I am usually under stress and I felt physically fatigue.... This school is just the opposite of what I learnt and faced in my social life.... Yet, I never rejected my students. Whenever I saw a glitter in one of my students' eyes, I approached and tried to help. Even one is enough to save.... I always forced myself to find ways to be helpful to my students.... The diary was very helpful in fostering reflectivity. Through it, I had to re-visualise what I experienced and re-analyze my strategies and the results of my management process.... Videotaping was awesome because a person cannot be objective without seeing him/herself as an outsider would. It helped me to see what I was doing. I saw this big gap between what I had learned and what I had applied in my classes. I felt so sorry.
(Interview at Time 3, May 10, 2006)

Researcher's field notes included comments from one of a three-year experienced colleague of participant 6 regarding the situation a novice teacher is in at her school. She mentioned the students' attempts of testing their new teacher. The students usually evaluate their teacher on how persistent and motivated s/he is about behaviour management. This comment relates to findings by Lund (1996) who states that research on effective classroom management shows that the interaction between students and teacher is the key factor for a teacher to be successful. The colleague of participant 6 reflected on her own experiences in the following remark:

As a three-year experienced teacher, I noticed that in the first year, students try to psychoanalyze you as a teacher. They try to understand what you like or what you do not like. This is why they are so off the lines of accepted behaviours. If the teacher does not give up, they will give up misbehaving because their aim is to make you sick of teaching. Now, they know me, I know them. Severe disruptions never happen in my classes, but novice teachers always complain about such situations. I can understand them very well. I went through a similar process. (Field Notes, December, 2005)

Table 4.14 *Handling Strategies of ST6 throughout the Study*

Interventionist	Verbal	Meeting
		Hushing
		Warning
		Calling out
		Using intonation
		Back-up
		Reprimand
		Reminding of rules
	Non-verbal	Confronting
		Assigning a task
		Changing seats
		Reinforcement
		Gesture/facial expressions
		Physical contact
		Nominating the model behaviour
		Ignoring
		Using proximity
Preventive	Non-verbal	Using interesting teaching material

Of the four participants in the longitudinal process, Participant 9 had much calmer classes and students in terms of unwanted behaviour from the very beginning of the study. During her practice teaching, she had highly motivated students. Afterwards as a full-time teacher, she had very quiet classes. During the study, she followed similar strategies. However, she became more effective in applying them. She employed more and more strategies and increased her number of non-verbal behaviours. She always utilized gestures and facial expressions successfully. A stare from or eye-contact with her was meaningful to her students. She was also one of the most willing participants to reflect on her actions as well as one of the most relaxed. She commented on her role in the study:

ST9: I particularly wanted to be a volunteer in your study. I wanted to analyze my professional actions. Video records never disturbed me. They helped me to see what I could not observe by myself. You cannot be objective when you think of yourself as a teacher. During this study, you (the researcher) helped me a lot. We questioned, discussed and tried to find solutions for my problematic students in classes.... At the beginning I was too optimistic. I received such unexpected reactions that I needed to revise my beliefs about student behaviours. I had thought my students would be alert like me. However, I learned that they are different and their ways of thinking and acting are so different. I observed that they were different from day to day, from one class to another. I learned that this profession is one of the most difficult ones. It is a bad feeling if you cannot handle your and their actions well. (Interview at Time 3, May 11, 2006)

Clearly seen from Table 4.15, she was mostly utilizing *nomination* to keep the students on task. She was either deliberately nominating the disruptive students or nominating a student who displayed appropriate model behaviours to send an implicit message to the others. She did not walk around the classroom as did the other three participants. She preferred to stay close to the board and preferred to be seen in front more. During the end of the present study, she also mentioned the necessity and the benefit of extra activities and attractive teaching materials to keep the students attentive. Hence, she indicated that she was well aware of the preventive strategies as well as interventionist strategies. Her attitude supports the findings of Daloglu (2002), who acknowledges that novice teachers relates a very well planned class with effective behaviour management.

Table 4.15 *Handling Strategies of ST9 throughout the Study*

Interventionist	Verbal	Deliberate nomination
		Warning
		Meetings
		Calling out
		Hushing
		Reminding of rules
		Reinforcement
	Non-verbal	Using proximity
		Changing seats
		Nominating the model behaviour
		Gesture/facial expressions
		Ignoring
Preventive	Non-verbal	Using interesting teaching material
		Extra activities

Participant 14, considering the data collected from him, may be labeled as an inventor or non-verbalist. He mostly utilized non-verbal strategies. However, those strategies were newly invented ones in most cases. He not only utilized negative reinforcements as well as giving extra writing assignments but also utilized a laser beam to make the high noise rate in class clear to the students. During the observations, students were observed warning each other since they had guessed what he meant when using the laser or another similar strategy. When a student was misbehaving, he encouraged other students to protest or intervene. Generally, he was a quiet teacher. Whenever he faced misbehaviour, he would rather act in such a way as to prevent it from going on than directly deal with. As Cartledge and Johnson (1996) asserted, confident teachers tend to use more proactive measures. Thus, we may conclude that participant 14 had a different career development process than the other three participants. In personal talks with him, he remarked that his full-time teaching experience opened a new window in his professional life. He, furthermore, added that the misbehaviours which he faced could be regarded as a means of more closely recognizing the family situation or economic background of students. In Interview at Time 3, he was able to understand why some of the students were dominant in

disrupting his classes at the end of the present study. In other words, he could reason why his students were performing in such a misbehaving way, knowing their personal life stories. Table 4.16 displays the summary of the strategies he employed during his professional experience.

Table 4.16 *Handling Strategies of ST14 throughout the Study*

Interventionist	Verbal	Calling out
		Reinforcement
		Using intonation
		Ripple effect
		Reminding of rules
		Assigning a task
		Hushing
		Deliberate nomination
		Warning
	Non-verbal	Physical contact
		Ignoring
		Gesture/facial expressions
		Changing seats
		Using proximity
Preventive	Non-verbal	Using interesting teaching material
		Extra activities

4.3.2 Factors Affecting Change

The data suggest that having experience, knowing students, and learning from others in the profession played a contributive role throughout the participants' professional change. The findings reflect the relationship between what is found in this study and the theories which the present study were based on. In line with the views of Personal Construct Psychology, Experiential Learning and Field Theory, personal beliefs of the participants have been changed and re-shaped with the following factors.

Experience: When analyzed longitudinally, participants enlarged their behaviour management repertoire in line with the time spent in classes and the experience gained. For example, the handling strategies of the participants were very limited at the beginning in line with the experiences they had in their practice schools. Later, they developed different strategies to deal with different types of disruptions. In each case, the process of development was different for each participant. The diversity of the experience was an opportunity for the participants to develop different strategies to handle each situation encountered. The literature about this issue is proof that experience is an important factor for the change of practices and beliefs. For example, Nettle (1998) states that student-teachers' beliefs change in time due to teaching experience. As Anderson (cited in Winitzky and Kauchak, 1995) refers to how experience empowers teachers because they learn from the problems that they have to solve in their classes. Each action and the resulting feedback from students forces teachers to revise their actions. Hence, teachers begin integrating the knowledge acquired during a training program with their own actions and experiences to determine their unique style.

Knowing students: With the help of experience, participants began to recognize the various characteristics of students (Atıcı, 1999). This competence helped them to understand the nature of the disruptions they faced and more efficiently intervene. Each participant, during the interviews, named a dominantly misbehaving student when referring to reasons why the instruction was disrupted. Boredom, limited attention span or simply disinterest in the school subject were common reasons why such students were usually off-task and/or disruptive. Participant 14, after having learned his students' disruption margins, elaborated on his previous definition of the concept of *disruptive behaviour*.

Learning from others: Another factor that contributed to participants' professional development in terms of handling misbehaviours was learning from others (Atıcı, 1999). Participants started to share their teaching problems relating to behaviour management with their mentors or supervisors at their practice schools. Then, as a full-time teacher, they had peers, school staff or administrators, and school inspectors with who they could discuss the management problems they encountered. Participant 2 and 9 usually had chances to talk with their peers, while participant 6 shared her reflection

with the school staff. Participant 2 also got advice from the district school inspector about instructional management which in turn alleviated her busy curriculum. Thus, she was able to teach skills thoroughly rather than introducing new topics, which also allowed her to keep students on task with more interesting activities on a known language component. Participant 14 renewed his beliefs with the help of peers and school staff about behavioural problems.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the data analysis and discussion. The data gathered have been analyzed and presented in two categories: transition and induction phases. It has also displayed the summary of results and made reference to the relevant literature. The next chapter deals with the answers to the research questions asked in the study.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the conclusion of this study. First, the research questions are answered. Then, the implications of the study for the ELT context are presented. Also, personal and professional reflections on further research in this field are portrayed.

5.1 Research questions

In this section, each research question is considered in line with the findings from the present study.

RQ1: What are the beliefs of senior student-teachers about disruptive behaviour?

How do they define disruptive behaviour?

How do they handle disruptive behaviour in their classes?

The answers obtained from the participants indicate that they define the concept with a few keywords, which also constitutes the qualities of the term according to them. The term was defined as follows:

Any student behaviour which distorts both interaction between students and motivation of other students as well as teacher's attention and pace of instruction

Misbehaviour not only had an interrupting effect but also a hindering or demolishing effect on students' learning and the teacher's teaching. This is why the vocabulary used is more or less synonymous with words, such as *ruin*, *distort* and *destroy*.

To answer the second part of the research question 1, the three data sources were analyzed: interview, observation, and vignette task. The results suggest that the participants have become more aware of the strategies that they applied in their

classrooms. During interviews, they described their handling strategies not only in terms of verbal and non-verbal, but also in terms of interventionist and preventive. The total handling strategies described in the interview outnumbered the ones observed and those connected with the vignette task. This shows that the participants were aware of the strategies; however, it was not easy to apply those strategies to real teaching situations for them. They usually preferred milder handling strategies, such as verbal warnings or private confrontations. They also highly employed ignoring most of the disruptions. They defined the reason as not having noticed the disruptions when they were practice teaching.

RQ2: What are the beliefs of these senior student-teachers about disruptive behaviour in their first year in the profession?

How do they define disruptive behaviour?

How do they handle disruptive behaviour in their classes?

Research question 2 dealt with the developmental cycle of participants in a longitudinal process. The change in defining the term and utilizing handling strategies with disruptive behaviour were different for each participant although similarities were noted.

Most participants did not change their previous definition of the term disruptive behaviour. However, one of the participants changed his definition explicitly towards the end of the study. He defined the term as follows:

*More aggressive student verbal or physical behaviours,
such as cursing or fight are disruptive behaviour.*

For the handling strategies, participants employed both verbal and non-verbal strategies to deal with disruptive behaviours. Most of the measures taken by the participants were interventionist in nature rather than proactive. First of all, the participants tried to utilize a small variety of the strategies as much as they could. However, they did not seem to be aware of the rationale behind employing such strategies. Later on, they were observed to both employ more strategies and also appeared to realize which strategy to use for which misbehaviour and why. They were able to reason their strategy usage in the latter period of the study.

RQ3: What is the nature of the change (if any) in their beliefs in terms of handling disruptive behaviour?

Research question 3 questioned the nature of change in participants' beliefs about handling disruptions. From practice teaching through the end of the first-year in the profession, the participants went through different paths of change. Each had a unique style and his/her own way. However, they also had common points in their process of change. First of all, they all started with mild strategies and were not very certain which strategies to use. Thus, they mostly ignored student misbehaviours. When they started to work full-time, now having an ownership approach, they started to utilize the strategies in their archive (awareness process). They also tried to find new strategies with the help of the third parties such as colleagues, administrators or peers. By the middle of their first-year in the profession, they had begun using the greatest number of strategies (addition process). Towards the end of the study, on the other hand, they limited their preferences, and they appeared to have consolidated their management styles (omission process). This remark cannot be made with certainty because follow-up data is lacking as the study was limited to the end of the first-year in the profession. However, the limited data indicate a routinizing of their preference in handling unwanted behaviours. As a result, the participants' use of handling strategies takes the form of a bell curve along with the professional continuum (see Figure 5). It should be noted that these results are valid for the population of this study only.

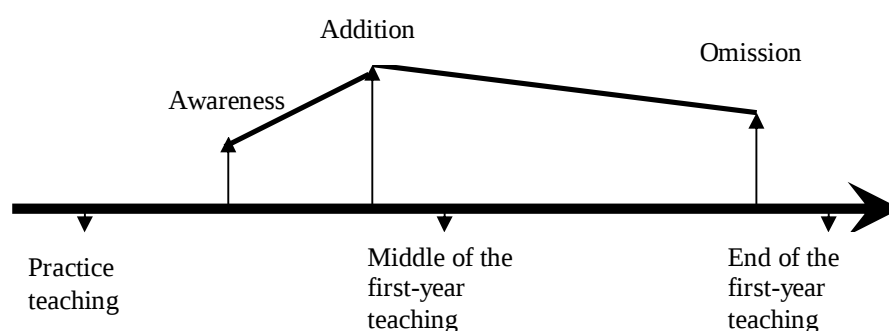


Figure 5. Strategy Use Throughout the study

5.2 Relationship with Other Studies

This study revealed a relationship to prior research conducted in this field. The following list displays the results that correlate with the relevant literature.

- Over time English teachers in this study changed their definition of the term *disruptive behaviour* and, thus, their use of handling strategies (see section 4.3.1.1). Such a change has been noted down in the previous literature by Kagan, (1992), Sendan (1995), Zeichner, Tabachnick and Densmore (1997), Tillema (1998) and Cabaroğlu (1999). The changes observed in this study have been consistent with the terms used by Cabaroğlu in her study: *awareness*, *addition*, *elaboration*, and *omission*.
- The English language teachers participating in this study mostly utilized interventionist strategies. Although they were aware of preventive strategies, they believed that they could not have benefited from them (see 4.3.1.2). This finding is consistent with Wolfgang's (2001) developmental stages in classroom management. He remarks that usually teachers start the profession with a limited use of the strategies. Also, Martin, Linfoot and Stephenson (1999) found that teachers mostly employ disapproval rather than praise in classrooms. This means that interventions are preferred more than dealing with behaviour problems.
- Wolfgang (2001) also states that teachers at the beginning of the profession highly focus on employing one management model and sticking with its principles. On the other hand, by the end of the study the participants demonstrated that a rather multiple strategy and model usage. For example, ST6 employed many strategies which may be labelled under different models. She would sometimes be successful through the use of mild interventions, while at other times she was harsh. Being mild or harsh in the approach of behaviour management are at two opposite ends of behaviour management (see section 2.5.4).
- The change in professional beliefs is due to three factors: (a) experience, (b) knowing students, and (c) learning from the others (see section 4.3.2). These factors were highly similar with Atıcı's (1999) study, in which she explored the relationship between classroom management efficacy and teacher efficacy of British and Turkish primary school teachers.

5.3 Implications for English Language Teaching Context

In this study, several implications about the context of English language teaching were deduced. First of all, a teacher training program provides sufficient theoretical knowledge to participants in terms of handling disruptive behaviours in classrooms. Yet, the actual problem seems to consist of two areas, (a) terminology, and (b) which strategy to use when. First of all, the participants were unable to use the exact terminology to describe either student misbehaviours or their own handling strategies. Rather, they provided their own terms during interviews or stimulated recall sessions. As for the second area, participants usually were in a dilemma about which strategy is preferable for which problems. Sometimes they even described their situation as being in a bottomless hole. They had many strategies in their repertoires; however, they could not pick which one to employ. On the other hand, sometimes they felt helpless because they could not find any solutions for some recurring disruptions.

This study demonstrates that the participants needed more practical experience before they started working full-time. During these practical sessions, the terminology may be over-emphasized. Personal and peer reflections, whole class discussions as well as simulations with samples from real practice teaching may help participants to empower themselves in terms of handling unwanted student behaviours. Teaching methodology classes as well as classroom management courses are both important to provide the closest simulations of the teaching experience. Such courses may also provide student teachers with more preventive skills such the use of effective teaching materials. This study proves doing so is more beneficial than using interventionist strategies. Hence, when they become full-time teachers their burden will be less troublesome.

Other than this, in-service training programs may benefit from the results of this study because managing a classroom is one of the major problems for beginning teachers. These programs may enhance the quality of English teachers' first year experiences so that they do not experience burnout. As many teachers from different backgrounds with a variety of disruptive behaviours in their classes gather for such courses, the discussion sessions would become more educational and efficient. Thus, not only repertoires of disruptive behaviour and handling strategies would be enlarged more, but would result in teachers remaining in the profession longer than is currently expected. Consequently, in-service programs may empower participants professionally

as they work on solving students' behaviour problems, and ease their classes in terms of instructional delivery.

Last but not least, this study has been the first attempt to contact with the graduates of Çukurova University, English Language Teaching Department. A system to be built for a similar purpose would help the graduates not to feel alone after they graduate. In other universities, the alumni systems or forum sites are generally used. Such systems would assist the graduates of Çukurova University to provide professional support at their difficult times, especially in their-first years. Furthermore, English Language Teacher training program at Çukurova University may constantly benefit from such systems to update the curriculum needs and problems as well.

5.4 Recommendations for further studies

This study is longitudinal and qualitative in nature. A few recommendations can be made for the researchers who would like to work further on this subject. First of all, as mentioned earlier, management problems in classes are one of the major reasons for the teachers to quit the profession. In spite of this fact, an official document about burnout rates of teachers due to misbehaviours could not be found in the archive of relevant institutions in Turkey. Such a report would be very beneficial in terms of interpreting the results of this study. Thus, to fill the gap in the field a holistic study is suggested to find out the percentage of burnout and teacher retention.

Also as related to the scope of this dissertation, we recommend that further researchers in this field conduct a similar study allowing more longitudinal time with their participants to determine the direction of changes in their professional development. Such a chain of studies in this field would enable to map the various directions of belief changes by English language teachers. Similarly, the gravity and the duration of the disruptions may be studied to determine their effect on learning/teaching atmosphere.

As for more effective use of data collection tools, we may suggest that researchers would benefit from having additional video records than were used in this study. One of the participants in induction phase commented on the need for more frequent visits and video records since she thought that she benefited most from the video sessions:

You (to the researcher) could come more often and visit us
in our schools with your handycam. I believe that I mostly benefited

the video sessions in this study. I watched myself as an outsider and noticed many of my actions which beforehand I didn't.

(ST2, Follow-up interview, 15 May, 2006)

Such a comment reflects not only on the advantage of having video records but also on the affect they have on the participant's reflective cycle. Therefore, if the problem of administrative consent can be solved, frequent visits and video recording at schools would enhance the interpretive process of the data.

5.5 Personal reflections

Doing the current thesis contributed greatly to my personal and professional understanding of conducting a piece of research in the field of English Language Teaching. As being the researcher of this study, I have gained a whole different perspective on administering research. Having a positivist research background, I have acquired knowledge of qualitative research paradigm which has taught me how to conduct interviews and observation in a systematic way. Moreover, doing video recordings is a long and complicated process. Organizing the tapes, getting the consent from the administration and comforting the participants about the records were highly demanding. People were uncomfortable when they saw a handy cam in their schools. I realized that a good command in communication skills solves such technical problems. These research tools also taught me to be more patient in eliciting the data for the scope of the subject in question. This study, additionally, helped me to work in an organized way to be able to trace the qualitative changes in people's personal thinking.

In terms of changes in one's personal and professional beliefs, I have learned that they require time and a state of readiness. When one is ready to change and s/he has acquired enough experience, then, change comes slowly, but visibly. Furthermore, when I helped the participants notice the changes in their beliefs and practices over time. Actually witnessing their joy and excitement, and seeing the concrete results were beneficial. Then, as a researcher, I felt satisfied with achieving my goal which I had at the beginning of this research.

Finally, I acquired the ability to look at issues at hand critically. Although the process was painful at times, still, the gains I had made every second of effort worthwhile.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I

Consent and Information Sheets of Interview and Observation

A1. INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

I am attending this interview voluntarily. I have been informed about the aim and procedure of the interview process by the researcher Ayse Kizildag. I do state that there is no inconvenience about this interview.

Date

Name

Sign

A2. INTERVIEW INFORMATION FORM

Dear Participant,

The purpose of the interview, which you are about to attend, is to realize and discuss your beliefs about disruptive student behaviors. We expect to contribute to the training of English Teachers more effectively in the future through these discussions.

During the interview you will be asked 9 questions and it is anticipated that the interview will last for about 30 minutes. The interview will be recorded via a mini tape recorder; however, I guarantee that no one but me will listen to it.

Soon after the interview, the data will be transcribed for analyzing. The transcriptions will not be shared with any other person except my doctoral advisor, jury member and me.

For the dissertation, some segments of the transcription may be directly quoted. Nevertheless, I assert that no details that may uncover your identity will be reflected in to those quotations.

A consent form will be given soon after this information sheet. If you have further questions regarding the aim and procedure of this interview, please do not hesitate to ask now.

AYSE KIZILDAG,

The researcher

Date

Sign

B1. VIDEO RECORDING CONSENT FORM

I am attending this recording voluntarily. I have been informed about the aim and procedure of the recording process by the researcher Ayse Kizildag. I do state that there is no inconvenience about this video recording.

Date

Name

Sign

B2. VIDEO RECORDING INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Participant,

The purpose of the video recording, which you are about to attend, is to see your handling strategies about disruptive student behaviors and to discuss them with you later. We expect to contribute to the training of English Teachers more effectively in the future through these recordings and discussions.

The recording is planned as one class hour (about 40 minutes). The recording will be done via a digital handy cam by the researcher and it will not be watched except by any other person but you, the researcher, the doctoral advisor of the researcher and the jury member.

Direct quotations from your students and your verbal utterances will be used in the dissertation. Nevertheless, we guarantee that the identity will not be revealed in any way. Instead, a code or a pseudo name may be replaced to refer to the scenes.

A consent form will be given to you after this sheet. If you have further questions, do not hesitate to ask now.

AYSE KIZILDAG,
The researcher

Date

Sign

APPENDIX II

Consent from Ministry of Education District Offices

A. Example I

T.C.
VALİLİĞİ KAYMAKAMLIĞI
ilçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı :B.08.4.MEM.4.31.09.01.230-644
Konu: Öğrenci Ayşe KIZILDAĞ' ın Çekim İzni

05.12.2005

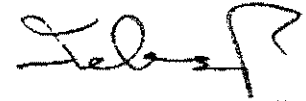
KAYMAKAMLIK MAKAMINA

Çukurova Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Öğretim Üyesi Doç.Dr.Zuhal OKAN 24.11.2005 Tarihli müdürlüğümüze göndermiş olduğu dilekçesinde;bölümleri doktora öğrencisi Ayşe KIZILDAĞ" ın "İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sınıflarda dersin akışını bozan davranış hakkındaki görüşleri üzerine"1 bir çalışma yaptığını,bu çalışmanın amacının da öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusunda nasıl bir mesleki gelişim içerisine girdiklerini niteliksel olarak araştırmak olduğu belirtilmektedir.

Bu çalışma içerisinde İlçemiz İlköğretim Okulunda görevli aynı okul mezunu İngilizce öğretmeni un derslerinde Aralık-Şubat ve mayıs aylarında birer kez dersin işlenişini video kamere ile kaydetmesi gerektiği buna bağlı olarak da çekim izni istemektedirler.

Teklik müdürlüğümüzce uygun mutaaala edilmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde olurlarınıza arz ve teklif ederim.



Muharrem KELEŞOĞLU
Müdür V.

OLUR
05.12.2005

Ünal ÇAKICI
Kaymakam

B. Example II

T.C.
..... KAYMAKAMLIĞI
İlçe Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

SAYI: B.08.4.MEM.4.33.09.020/1622 - 14734

25/10/2005

KONU:Doktora Tezi.

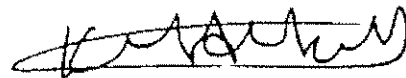
KAYMAKAMLIK MAKAMINA

İlgiliçemiz
sayılı yazısı.

İlköğretim Okulu Müdürlüğünün 10.10.2005 tarih ve 600/385

Çukurova Üniversitesi; Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi doktora öğrencisi Ayşe KIZILDAĞ 2005-2006 öğretim yılında İlçemiz İlköğretim Okulunda 'İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sınıflarda dersin akışını bozan davranış hakkındaki görüşleri' üzerine bir çalışma yapmak istemektedir. Bu çalışmada staj ve mesleğin ilk yılından örnek olay incelemeleri başlıklı tez çalışmasını (gönüllü katılan) İngilizce öğretmeni i'nin dersinde video kamerayla kayıt yapmak istediğini belirtmiş ve bu tez çalışmasının yapılmasında bir sakınca görülmediği okul müdürlüğünün ilgi yazısında belirtilmektedir.

Ayşe KIZILDAG'ın 2005-2006 öğretim yılında tez çalışmasını İlçemiz İlköğretim Okulunda, ' ' , 'n m dersinde yapması Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmekte olup, Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde OLUR'larınıza arz ederim.



Kâzım Alp ALKAN
İlçe Millî Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
10/10/2005

Abdulhamit ERGUVAN
Kaymakamı

APPENDIX III

Characteristics of Schools Participants Worked

A. Transition Phase

1. Participant 1, 6, 7 and 10's School: The school is an Anatolian Communication High School where students enter with a national exam and are trained aged between 14 and 18. The school is a low socio economic one. It has a preparatory program for one year in which the students learn English. They have approximately 20 class hours of English course per week. This high school is one of the vocational ones which students are supposed to prefer communication and journalism for their tertiary education. Average class population was 35 students.

2. Participant 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 12, 14's School: The school is an Anatolian High School. Similar to the vocational school above, this school, having approximately 1000 population, selects 180 students each year with a national exam,. However, the success rate and the socio-economic background are high. The students also have a preparatory school for one year. They attend 20 hours of English courses per week. Moreover, in the following three years English courses are limited to eight hours per week. Average class population was 30 students.

3. Participant 9 and 11's School: The school is an Anatolian High School with 100 teachers and 2252 students. Similar to the school above, it also has a preparatory school for one year. The socio-economic background is middle but the success rate is relatively high. Average class population was 40 students.

4. Participant 13's School: The school was unlike the rest of them, is a private one. It has primary, secondary and high school sections. The socio-economic background is high and the students do not need an exam to register. There are totally 300 primary school students who participant has contact with during practice teaching. Average class population was 20 students.

B. Induction Phase

1. Participant 2's School: Being a small town primary school, participant 2 is the only English language teacher. She has total 200 students from 4th to 8th grades. The students come from low socio-economic background families. Average class population was 35 students.

2. Participant 6's School: Participant 6 teaches at a low-socio economic background primary school. The school is highly populated, that is it has 3000 students. Participant 6 works with other two English language teachers. She teaches English from 4th graders to the 8th graders. Because the students also come from a different ethnic background, they are usually resistant to learn a foreign language. Average class population was 40 students.

3. Participant 9's School: The school is a local town school with 600 population. Coming from middle socio-economic background, students are eager to learn a foreign language. Being the only English teacher at her school, participant 9 was a favoured teacher both by students and administration. Average class population was 30 students.

4. Participant 14's School: The school is from a low-socio economic background. It is a boarding school for students having single parent or no parents. There are 1200 students at school where the participant is the only English Language teacher. He teaches from 4th to 8th grades. Because participant also has duties to observe students during their obligatory self-study times, he had more frequent contact with his students than the other participants of this study. Average class population was 35 students.

APPENDIX IV**Biography Sheet****Biography Sheet****Name-Surname:****Class:****Practice School:****Mailing Address:****E-mail:****Home Phone:****Cell-Phone:****The best friend's Name- Surname / cell phone:****Teacher in the Family (who? How long?):****Teaching experience (how long? Where?):****Classroom Management Teacher at ELT Department:****Wish to work as a teacher:***Very eager () Eager () Not Sure () Doesn't Matter () Not at all ()*

APPENDIX V

Vignette Task

Vignette task

Read the cases below and answer the questions. Thank you for your answers in advance.

Ayşe Kizildag, the researcher

Case 1

There are 30 minutes remaining in Ms. Allen's fourth period Russian 2 class when she directs the students to begin work on a translation exercise from their textbooks. A number of students carry on conversations that disturb others. Ms. Allen motions for silence, but talking continues to spring up around the classroom. Ms. Allen calls a halt to the translations, saying "Class, please let me have your attention.... I think each of us needs silence to translate these sentences properly. I'm sorry, but I see this isn't working. Let's hold off on these translations until you can get away by yourselves, either at home or during your free period. Just have them ready for class tomorrow. Right now, put your books away and we'll work together on our conversational Russian. Here's what we'll do...."

- 1.1 What is the problem here?
- 1.2 How did you find the teacher's reaction to the problem?
- 1.3 Do you think her strategy to solve the problem right? Why? Why not?
- 1.4 What would you do if you were the teacher of this class?

Case 2

Mr. Eglin is lecturing to a political science class when several students' conversations develop in the crowded lecture hall. Mr. Eglin lowers his voice below the level of the combined students' voices. Other students, who are now straining to hear Mr. Eglin's inaudible words, turn to those near them who are talking and tell them to be quiet. As the conversations cease, Mr. Eglin raises his voice so that he can be heard.

- 2.1 What is the problem here?
- 2.2 How did you find the teacher's reaction to the problem?
- 2.3 Do you think his strategy to solve the problem right? Why? Why not?
- 2.4 What would you do if you were the teacher of this class?

Case 3

Mr. Rutknecht is explaining how to bisect an angle with a straightedge and compass when Debbie, one of his 34 students, interrupts: "What size radius do you need for the first arc?" Mr Rutknecht appreciates that Debbie has asked a question relevant to the topic. He wants to encourage her interest and that type of question, but he doesn't want to reinforce interruptions positively. He responds to Debbie's out-of-turn question with a frown and continues his explanation, watching for Debbie and other students to raise their hands. Momentarily, Lynn raises her hand, and Mr. Rutknecht, immediately recognizes her. Lynn asks a question and raises a point on which Mr. Rutknecht elaborates. Five students, including Debbie, raise their hands and two speak out without being recognized. Mr. Rutknecht cuts off the interrupting students and calls on those with hands raised. At one point, he thanks a student for her patience in waiting to be recognized.

- 3.1 What is the problem here?
- 3.2 How did you find the teacher's reaction to the problem?
- 3.3 Do you think her strategy to solve the problem right? Why? Why not?
- 3.4 What would you do if you were the teacher of this class?

Case 4

It is the first week of the school year in Ms. Giminski's class. Students have just begun working individually on a language art task. Brian jumps up and begins dancing and gyrating in front of the others saying, "Watch me! Watch me!" two students stop their work and giggle, but most just ignore him. Ms. Giminski thinks, "I hope this isn't a pattern for Brian. I'll bet this is what he does for attention at home." She picks up Brian's paper, takes him by the hand, and walks him over to an area of the room that is out of the view of the other students. She softly tells Brian, "Please sit here and finish your paper. Bring it to me only after all of these spaces are colored in. What are you going to do?" Brian: "Color all this and bring it to you." Ms. Giminski: "That is what you are to do."

Over next several days, Ms. Giminski watches for signs of Brian's wanting to show off. She makes an effort to see that he gets attention at times when he is not trying to show off.

- 4.1 What is the problem here?
- 4.2 How did you find the teacher's reaction to the problem?
- 4.3 Do you think her strategy to solve the problem right? Why? Why not?
- 4.4 What would you do if you were the teacher of this class?

Case 5

Susan, a seventh grader, is working on a problem-solving assignment when she exclaims in a curt voice to Ms. Comeaux, her teacher, "I can't do this asshole crap!" It's so stupid!" Ms. Comeaux: "I can tell you're frustrated. The problems are difficult. When you are ready for me to help you with them, tell me in a courteous way, using only words that are acceptable to me."

- 5.1 What is the problem here?
- 5.2 How did you find the teacher's reaction to the problem?
- 5.3 Do you think her strategy to solve the problem right? Why? Why not?
- 5.4 What would you do if you were the teacher of this class?

APPENDIX VI

Interview Questions

1. What is classroom management?
2. What is disruptive behavior?
3. Describe the ideal classroom atmosphere, ideal student and ideal teacher.
4. What kind of disruptive behaviors have you met so far?
5. How do you cope with them?
6. Which of these strategies do work well? Why?
7. Which of these strategies do not work well? Why not?
8. Why do such disruptive behaviors emerge in classrooms?
9. What kind of precautions should be taken not to have disruptive behaviors in the class?

APPENDIX VII

Journal Guidelines

Guidelines for journal keeping

Dear Participant,

The journal you are about to start keeping is very important for the present doctoral dissertation in that it will enlighten us to realize your attitude and handling strategies about disruptive student behaviors in your class in the first year of your teaching career. Through this journal will we be able to track down the development/change in your professional attitude together.

Below are the guidelines to make it easier for you while writing up your notes down in to your journal. We thank you for your participation, in advance.

December, 2005

Ayşe Kizıldag, the researcher

1. You do not have to write down every day. However, it is important to note down the disruptive behavior samples you experience. For this the following questions will help you:
 - Where (in which class/section) did the disruptive behavior occur?
 - What was the behavior? (Describe it: Who did it? What did s/he (they) do?)
 - How did you react? What did you do?
 - How did the disruptive student(s) react back? What did s/he (they) do?
 - What is your reflection about this event? What did you learn out of this event? How did it do you think contribute to your professional development?
2. You may give a title or code name for each case such as Johnny Case or Case 1. Thus, referring to the events would be easier and more practical for discussions. I, once again, state that the names will be covered in my dissertation.
3. You do not forget to write the date of journal keeping. Date is important to be able to realize and describe your development/change.
4. The duration you are expected to keep this journal is between December 2005 and June 2006.

APPENDIX VIII

Journal Tasks in the Pilot Study

A. Journal Task 1

- Describe three samples of disruptive behavior you observed so far.
 - a. What was the disruptive student behavior?
 - b. What was the teacher reaction to this behavior?
 - c. How did the student react to this teacher reaction?
 - d. What was the result?
 - e. What are your comments?

B. Journal Task 2

- Describe the following to be able to have an optimum instructional management.

Students:

Teacher:

Classroom atmosphere:

C. Journal Task 3

Read the scenarios and answer the questions below.

Case 1

There are 30 minutes remaining in Ms. Allen's fourth period Russian 2 class when she directs the students to begin work on a translation exercise from their textbooks. A number of students carry on conversations that disturb others. Ms. Allen motions for silence, but talking continues to spring up around the classroom. Ms. Allen calls a halt to the translations, saying "Class, please let me have your attention.... I think each of us needs silence to translate these sentences properly. I'm sorry, but I see this isn't working. Let's hold off on these translations until you can get away by yourselves, either at home or during your free period. Just have them ready for class tomorrow. Right now, put your books away and we'll work together on our conversational Russian. Here's what we'll do...."

- 1.a. How did you find the teacher's strategy to deal with the student?
- 1.b. How would you react if you were the teacher in this class?

Case 2

Mr. Eglin is lecturing to a political science class when several students' conversations develop in the crowded lecture hall. Mr. Eglin lowers his voice below the level of the combined students' voices. Other students, who are now straining to hear Mr. Eglin's inaudible words, turn to those near them who are talking and tell them to be quiet. As the conversations cease, Mr. Eglin raises his voice so that he can be heard.

- 2.a. How did you find the teacher's strategy to deal with the student?
- 2.b. How would you react if you were the teacher in this class?

Case 3

Susan, a seventh grader, is working on a problem-solving assignment when she exclaims in a curt voice to Ms. Comeaux, her teacher, “I can’t do this asshole crap!” It’s so stupid!” Ms. Comeaux: “I can tell you’re frustrated. The problems are difficult. When you are ready for me to help you with them, tell me in a courteous way, using only words that are acceptable to me.”

- 3.a. Do you find teacher just in treating Susan? Elaborate on it.
- 3.b. How would you react if you were the teacher in this class?

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